

LINGUISTICS COURSE

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society

How language varies with people and situations: dialect, class, style, prestige, multilingualism, contact languages, standards and endangerment.

10 Chapters

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Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society

Course 1 · Chapter 1 · Language in Society

Historical Linguistics and Language Families 1 listed social prestige among the causes of language change, with the loss of the /r/ in Received Pronunciation as its example. Phonetics and the IPA 7 then showed that English has several accents, and that an accent can carry a social meaning. This course takes that social side seriously. The question it asks is not "what is the rule?" but "who says what, to whom, and why?"

> **THE IDEA IN A BOX**
>
> Sociolinguistics is "the descriptive and scientific study of how language is shaped by and used differently within any given society" (Wikipedia, Sociolinguistics). People do not all speak alike, and the differences are not random: they line up with who the speakers are and where they are.

What Sociolinguistics Studies

The field combines dialectology with the social sciences to identify regional dialects, sociolects, ethnolects and other styles. It studies variation between social groups and under cultural norms, expectations and contexts, including how variation contributes to language change. The social variables the source names are ethnicity, religion, status, gender, education and age, as well as geographic barriers.

TERM	MEANING
Sociolect	the way language varies among social classes; some sociolinguists study these
Regional dialect	variation tied to geography (dialectology, the older field sociolinguistics built on)
Sociology of language	focuses on the effect of language back on society; sociolinguistics overlaps with it, with pragmatics and with linguistic anthropology

Variation: More Than One Way of Saying It

Wikipedia's article on linguistic variation defines it as the feature of language where "there is more than one way of saying the same thing in a given language". It can occur in pronunciation,

vocabulary and grammar.

- **Inter-speaker variation**: different speakers choose differently.
- **Intra-speaker variation**: the same speaker chooses differently on different occasions.
- The page uses *variable* for Labov's sociolinguistic variables and *variants* for the competing forms. It does not give a formal definition of either, so this course uses them as the page does.
- Some variation is part of language change, while other competing forms can persist in "stable variation" for a long time.
- Variation is bounded: speakers across dialects tend to keep the same word order and fit new sounds into existing phoneme inventories.
- Social factors (class, region, gender, age) and formality (register) condition variation.

Examples of variables

KIND	VARIABLE (FROM THE SOURCE)
Phonetic	frequency of the glottal stop; vowel height or backness
Morphosyntactic	negative concord (double negatives)
Morphophonological	T/D deletion (*I kep' walking*); the ING variable (*-ing* against *-in'*)

Age gives a clear case. The same page reports that in 1979 about two-thirds of 12-year-olds in Toronto said "zee" for the letter Z, against 8% of adults, and that in 1991 39% of 20-25-year-olds and 12% of those over 30 used "zee". The page hypothesises that an American children's alphabet song influenced this pattern. That is a hypothesis in the source, not an established cause.

> **WATCH OUT: A PERCENTAGE IS A TENDENCY, NOT A RULE**
>
> "Two-thirds of 12-year-olds" does not mean every 12-year-old. Sociolinguistic results describe how often a group uses a variant, and individuals vary. When a table gives 39% against 12%, ask how many speakers were counted and when.

How Researchers Collect and Count It

- **The sociolinguistic interview**: a long, loosely structured conversation meant to elicit the vernacular style. The **observer's paradox** complicates it: the speech being studied is what would occur without the interviewer present. Techniques include eliciting narratives of memorable events and interviewing subjects in groups.
- **Variationist analysis**: quantitative study of variation and change, associated with Labov, which assesses social and linguistic variables in a speech corpus. Labov's ideal variable is high in frequency, resistant to conscious suppression, part of larger structures and easily quantified on a linear scale. Analysis counts the tokens of a variant against the number of times it could have occurred (Tagliamonte's "Principle of Accountability").
- **Other methods**: ethnography and participant observation, analysis of recordings, matched-guise tests, dialect surveys, and analysis of existing corpora.

A Short History

- Social aspects of language were first studied by Indian and Japanese linguists in the 1930s, with forerunners in Denmark and Switzerland around 1900.
- Thomas Callan Hodson's 1939 article "Sociolinguistics in India" is the first attested use of the term.
- Charles A. Ferguson and William Labov (US) and Basil Bernstein (UK) pioneered Western sociolinguistics. Labov is regarded as the founder of variationist sociolinguistics.
- Labov's 1963 paper "The social motivation of a sound change" helped establish sociolinguistics as a subfield. The Martha's Vineyard page describes his 1963 study as "widely recognized as a seminal work in the foundation of sociolinguistics".

The Founding Example: Martha's Vineyard

Labov wrote his master's thesis on changes in the dialect of Martha's Vineyard, an island off the coast of Massachusetts. The Wikipedia pages I read give only that outline. The details below come from a LINGUIST List announcement of Meredith Josey's 2004 NYU dissertation, which summarises Labov's study before reporting her own data, so they are a second-hand account:

QUESTION	ANSWER AS REPORTED
Variable	centralisation (first-element fronting or raising) of the diphthongs /ay/ and /au/ (the source writes /au/ where this course elsewhere writes /aw/)
Speakers	men on the island, particularly middle-aged fishermen
Social meaning	correlated with "identity (i.e., local heritage) and resistance to summer visitors"
Later change	Josey's data, from men and women, show movement away from centralisation, attributed to economic dependence on newcomers and tourists and to a "linguistic market"

The lesson is the one the field is built on: a small sound difference was not random. It marked who the speakers took themselves to be.

NOTE ON SOURCES

The definitions, history and methods come from Wikipedia's articles on sociolinguistics (read to its first 100,000 characters), linguistic variation and Martha's Vineyard; the Martha's Vineyard findings come from the LINGUIST List announcement of Josey's dissertation, a secondary source I could open but whose original (Labov's 1963 thesis) I did not. The Wikipedia pages for Labov did not carry the study's findings or his New York City department-store study, and the Martha's Vineyard Sociolinguistic Study page I tried returned 404, so those are not described here. A web search also reported a few other details (for example that centralisation peaked in a middle age band), but I did not open those sources, so they are not used. The "tendency, not a rule" warning is mine.

Try It Yourself

EXERCISE 1

Say whether each is inter-speaker or intra-speaker variation: two speakers in the same town pronounce *-ing* differently; one speaker says *-in'* at home and *-ing* at a job interview.

View solution

EXERCISE 2

For the ING variable, name the variable and its two variants. Then explain what the Principle of Accountability asks you to count.

View solution

EXERCISE 3

Summarise the Martha's Vineyard finding in two sentences, naming the variable, the speakers and the social meaning. What does it suggest about whether a sound change can be "random"?

View solution

CHAPTER 1 QUICK REFERENCE

- Sociolinguistics: how language is shaped by and used differently within a society
- Variation: more than one way of saying the same thing; inter-speaker versus intra-speaker
- Variable = the feature; variants = the competing forms (ING: *-ing*, *-in'*)
- Methods: sociolinguistic interview (observer's paradox), variationist counts, matched-guise tests, surveys
- Labov is the founder of variationist sociolinguistics; Martha's Vineyard (1963) is the founding example

COMING NEXT

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society 2 asks when a variety is a dialect, an accent or a language, and why that question is partly social.

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society

Course 1 · Chapter 2 · Dialect and Accent

Everyone uses the words *language*, *dialect* and *accent*, and most people assume the difference is obvious. It is not. This chapter sorts the three terms out and then shows why the line between a language and a dialect is drawn by society as much as by linguistics.

> **THE IDEA IN A BOX**
>
> A **dialect** is a variety of a language spoken by a particular group. An **accent** is how a variety sounds. There is "no universally accepted criterion" for telling languages from dialects (Wikipedia, Dialect), so the distinction is partly a matter of status and politics.

Dialect, Accent, Idiolect

TERM	MEANING
Dialect	a variety of a language spoken by a particular group; most often a regional dialect, while social or ethnic varieties may be called sociolects or ethnolects
Idiolect	one individual's variety
Accent	in general, pronunciation; dialect also covers grammar and vocabulary

Dialects of the same language differ in phonology, morphology, syntax and vocabulary. John Lyons notes that many linguists treat accent differences as part of dialect differences. When Phonetics and the IPA 7 compared Received Pronunciation, General American and Scottish English, it was comparing accents; if it had also compared vocabulary and grammar, it would have been comparing dialects.

Standard and Nonstandard

A **standard language** is a variety that has "undergone substantial codification" in its grammar, lexicon, writing system or other features. It has the highest status or prestige among related varieties, especially in formal public and academic settings. Often it is the prestige variety of a whole country.

How standardisation happens

- A variety is selected, often to promote uniformity, and accepted by influential people.
- It spreads socially and culturally, gains status by being linked to successful people, and is used in more contexts.
- Efforts include stabilising spelling, codifying usage and meanings in grammars and dictionaries, and encouraging people to see these codifications as correct.
- Some standards are created by institutions; the page cites the Académie Française and the Royal Spanish Academy. English standardised more informally, without government intervention.
- The standard is usually used in broadcasting, official communication and education.
- Standardisation is ongoing, because language keeps changing; codification slows that change.

A standard dialect is backed by institutions such as government recognition, schooling, and published grammars and dictionaries. Nonstandard dialects usually lack this support and have little codification. The line between the two is often arbitrary and rests on social, political or historical factors.

> **WATCH OUT: THE STANDARD IS NOT "BETTER"**
>
> The standard-language page says many speakers believe the standard is inherently superior, but this belief comes from social perceptions, not objective evaluation. It also notes that the standard is an idealised abstraction, and actual speech is neither uniform nor fully stable. In the UK, for example, Standard English is based on the language of the medieval court of Chancery and became the upper-class norm in the late 1600s and early 1700s. It is usually linked with Received Pronunciation, but other accents can be used.

Many standards for one language

Pluricentric languages have several interacting standard varieties; the page names English, German and Portuguese. **Monocentric** languages, such as Russian and Japanese, have one standardised form.

Language or Dialect?

Mutual intelligibility is one proposed test, but it is criticised, especially for dialect continua. The source gives several cases where intelligibility and the label disagree:

CASE	WHAT THE SOURCE SAYS
Danish and Norwegian	separate languages by the sociolinguistic test of shared linguistic authority, despite high mutual intelligibility
Yiddish	its own language despite some intelligibility with German
Mandarin and Cantonese	often called dialects in China despite their mutual unintelligibility; the page says "hundreds of mutually unintelligible Chinese languages contain thousands of dialects"
Romansh	counts as a language because it became a written language, even though it is close to Lombardic alpine dialects and classical Latin
Bhojpuri	classed as a Hindi dialect for social reasons, though the page calls it objectively a distinct language
Italy	regional languages are often called *dialetti* colloquially, a usage that carries a pejorative tone
Serbo-Croatian and Macedonian	classification is disputed; the Macedonian case is described as political

Why the labels follow status

- The label "dialect" often reflects status: it tends to be applied to varieties that are low-prestige, unwritten, lack a state, or lack a standard form.
- Max Weinreich's Yiddish saying is rendered in English as "A language is a dialect with an army and navy."
- Einar Haugen described four steps by which a dialect can be promoted to an independent language: selection, codification, elaboration and acceptance.
- Linguistic distance is also used: dialects are close to their parent language, while languages in the same family can be more or less distant (Historical Linguistics and Language Families 5).
- Some linguists call any variety a dialect of some language, so "everybody speaks a dialect."

Dialect Continua

A **dialect continuum** (or dialect chain) is a series of language varieties across a geographic area in which "neighboring varieties are mutually intelligible". Differences accumulate with distance, so widely separated varieties may not be. Dialectologists map features with isoglosses (Historical Linguistics and Language Families 6) rather than drawing hierarchical classifications.

CONTINUUM	WHAT THE SOURCE SAYS
West Germanic	Dutch, Frisian, Low Saxon and High German dialects once formed a continuum, but it has largely broken apart; standard Dutch and standard German show limited mutual intelligibility
Romance	a western continuum runs from Portuguese through Spanish, Catalan, Occitan, French and Italian varieties to Romansh
Arabic	adjacent dialects are largely mutually understandable, while those from distant regions are harder to understand; Modern Standard Arabic is the prestige variety for writing
Indo-Aryan	most Indo-Aryan languages of the Indian subcontinent form a continuum; Punjabi and Bengali have their own continua

Two further points from the continuum page are central to this chapter. A standard variety can be codified within a continuum and then serve as the authority for local dialects, which local speakers often treat as their standard, making their dialects dependent on it. And political boundaries often cut across continua: speakers on either side may use nearly identical varieties but depend on different standards, so they are counted as different languages. Nation-states and their standard languages have increasingly eroded nonstandard dialects since the early 20th century, making boundaries sharper.

NOTE ON SOURCES

The definitions, the language-or-dialect cases, the standardisation points and the continuum examples come from Wikipedia's articles on dialect (read to its first 100,000 characters), dialect continuum and standard language. The Standard German detail was not on the standard-language page beyond a mention as a pluricentric example, so it is not described. The page says Swiss German is the everyday default and Low German is often counted among German dialects, but I have not used these. The link between accent and the earlier Phonetics and the IPA chapter, and the remark that the "Danish and Norwegian" row is an illustration of the language-or-dialect problem, are mine.

Try It Yourself

EXERCISE 1

Say which of accent, dialect or idiolect each describes: a pronunciation difference only; a difference in grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation shared by a region; the way one person speaks.

View solution

EXERCISE 2

Danish and Norwegian are largely mutually intelligible; Mandarin and Cantonese are not. Say what a purely intelligibility-based test would conclude for each, and what labels the source actually reports.

View solution

EXERCISE 3

Explain how a political border can turn two nearly identical varieties in a dialect continuum into "different languages". Name Haugen's four steps.

View solution

CHAPTER 2 QUICK REFERENCE

- Dialect = a group's variety (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation); accent = pronunciation; idiolect = one person
- No universal test separates language from dialect; intelligibility, authority, status and politics all play a part
- Standard = codified, institutionally backed, high-prestige; "better" is a social perception
- Dialect continuum: neighbours understand each other, distant ends may not
- Haugen: selection, codification, elaboration, acceptance

COMING NEXT

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society 3 looks at the social variables (class, age, gender, ethnicity) and how studies count them.

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society

Course 1 · Chapter 3 · Who You Are

Chapter 1 named the social variables: ethnicity, religion, status, gender, education and age. This chapter looks at four of them in turn, and at what the sources actually say, because this is the topic where the gap between careful findings and popular stereotypes is widest.

> **THE IDEA IN A BOX**
>
> A **sociolect** is "a non-standard dialect or restricted register, or a set of lexical items, used by a socioeconomic class, profession, age group, or other social group" (Wikipedia, Sociolect). Trudgill describes it as "related to its speakers' social background rather than geographical background".

Sociolect Versus Dialect

Speakers acquire a sociolect passively through their community and actively choose it to show identification with a group. Dialects are tied to geography, sociolects to class, age, gender or ethnicity. The source notes that the terms sociolect, register, jargon and slang are sometimes used as synonyms.

EXAMPLE	WHAT THE SOURCE SAYS
Tamil castes	Mudaliyar (non-Brahmin) and Iyengar (Brahmin) speakers differ in vocabulary: Mudaliyars use *tanni* for drinking water, water in general and non-potable water; Iyengars use *tirrto*, *jalo* and *tanni* for these three meanings
Soda, pop, coke	vary by region of the United States; the page calls this dialectal, not sociolectal
Norwegian	standard Bokmål and the local Ranamål differ in pronunciation and morphology; the page says these are not sociolectal differences per se
Arabic	diglossia: Classical Arabic (*al-fuṣḥā*) for formal contexts alongside local colloquial varieties; Ferguson's model also covers German-speaking Switzerland; the prestige "High" variety has no native speakers

Class

The sociolinguistics article reports that working-class speakers tend to use less standard language. Class aspirations also shape speech, and upwardly or downwardly mobile speakers may **hypercorrect**: in trying to speak "better" they overshoot the target form. The source illustrates class and prestige at the level of individual sounds with Labov's study of post-vocalic /r/ in the Northeastern US (Chapter 1's history of the field). The Sociolect page I fetched for this chapter does not give Labov's New York City findings or any figures, so none are reported here.

Gender

Wikipedia's Language and gender article describes four approaches to gender differences in speech. They are a good lesson in how theories change.

APPROACH	CLAIM, AS THE SOURCE REPORTS IT
Deficit	Robin Lakoff's *Language and Woman's Place* (1975) described a "women's register" that reinforced women's subordinate role, citing tag questions, question intonation and weak directives. Otto Jespersen had described women's speech as deficient as early as 1922.
Difference (dual cultures)	Deborah Tannen (*You Just Don't Understand*, 1990) argues men tend toward a "report style" and women toward a "rapport style", comparing gender differences to cultural ones.
Dominance	Dale Spender, and Candace West and Don Zimmerman, link differences to male power. Deborah Cameron criticises the difference approach for treating male forms as the unmarked norm, and argues the evidence does not support Tannen's claims about male-female miscommunication (2007).
Social constructionist (2000s)	West and Zimmerman's "doing gender" (1987) treats gendered speech as something enacted in interaction rather than a fixed category.

What the findings say

- Women tend to use more standard variants, such as in negative concord ("I didn't do anything" rather than "nothing"). A study of English pronunciation in Norwich found women more conservative toward the standard dialect, which the page links to women's historical exclusion from the workplace.
- Freed and Greenwood (1996) found no significant gender difference in tag questions like "you know?"

- Victoria DeFrancisco's work says men often fail to take up turn-taking offers implied by hedges such as "y' know" and "isn't it".

> **WATCH OUT: GENERALISATIONS ABOUT "HOW MEN AND WOMEN TALK"**
>
> The source warns against overgeneralising. Minimal responses ("mm", "yeah") serve many functions beyond showing support, so Pamela Fishman's support-work interpretation is called an overgeneralisation. Patterns are not universal, individuals often deviate from stereotypes, and speakers accommodate to conversational style rather than to gender, so gender differences are most pronounced in single-gender groups. The sociolinguistics article likewise says gender differences are typically quantitative rather than qualitative.

Gender meets other variables

- **Marital status:** in a study of 67 women and 53 men, marital status affected men's self-disclosure to friends but not women's.
- **Occupation and power:** Cameron's study of UK call-centre workers found emotional labour, which is coded feminine, performed by men without gendered orientation.
- **Age:** self-promoting talk about achievements was rarely found in conversations among older men.
- **Politics:** US congresswomen in the 2010s used masculine verbal behaviour like their male colleagues but more feminine non-verbal behaviour; in UK Parliament, women used concrete anecdotes more, and another female MP's presence increased women's participation.

Ethnicity: African American Vernacular English

African American Vernacular English (AAVE) is the variety of English natively spoken by most working-class and middle-class Black Americans, and by some Black Canadians. The page describes it as a dialect, ethnolect and sociolect. Middle-class speakers often use it as the informal end of a range of speech styles, switching toward standard American English in formal settings.

The page says AAVE has its own grammar, vocabulary and accent features, and presents patterns such as consonant cluster reduction (*test* becomes *tes*) as evidence of consistent rules.

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// AAVE features given on the page (rule-governed, not "errors")
He be working Tuesdays.     habitual be: he frequently or habitually works on Tuesdays
```

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You crazy.                  copula deletion: "You're crazy"
She my sister.              copula deletion: "She's my sister"
I didn't go nowhere.        negative concord: every negatable element is negated
```

- The majority view among linguists is that AAVE descends from non-standard English dialects

- A minority creole theory holds that it may have started as a creole influenced by African languages before converging back toward English. The page says John McWhorter considers the West African contribution minor. This is a question the source leaves open.

Age: Reading a Table

Chapter 1 gave the Toronto "zee" figures. They make a good model for reading any sociolinguistic table:

YEAR	GROUP	USED "ZEE"
1979	12-year-olds	about two-thirds
1979	adults	8%
1991	aged 20-25	39%
1991	aged over 30	12%

- Ask **who** was counted and **when**. Two years, two age groups.
- Ask what changed between the rows. The younger group uses "zee" more in both years, which is consistent with a change spreading through a generation. The source does not say this; it reports the figures and a hypothesis about a children's alphabet song.
- Ask what is **missing**: sample sizes, and the group's other characteristics.

NOTE ON SOURCES

The sociolect, gender and AAVE material comes from Wikipedia's articles on sociolect, language and gender, and African-American Vernacular English (the gender and AAVE pages were read only up to their first 100,000 characters, so the AAVE page's social perception section and any discussion of stigma were not reached). The Sociolect page did not carry Labov's New York City findings, Cockney, Bernstein's codes or age-grading research, so none appears here. The reading-a-table questions and

the remark that the "zee" pattern is consistent with a change spreading through a generation are mine.

Try It Yourself

EXERCISE 1

Say whether each is dialectal or sociolectal according to the source: *soda/pop/coke*; Tamil *tanni* and *tirrto*; Bokmål versus Ranamål.

View solution

EXERCISE 2

Match each claim to a model (deficit, difference, dominance, social constructionist): "men speak a report style, women a rapport style"; "gendered speech is enacted in interaction"; "women's speech is deficient"; "differences reflect male power".

View solution

EXERCISE 3

Look at the "zee" table and list three questions you would want answered before treating it as evidence of a language change. Then say what the source offers as a possible cause.

View solution

CHAPTER 3 QUICK REFERENCE

- Sociolect = variety tied to social background (class, age, gender, ethnicity); dialect = tied to geography
- Working-class speakers tend to use less standard language; mobile speakers may hypercorrect
- Gender models: deficit, difference, dominance, social constructionist; avoid overgeneralising
- AAVE has its own grammar and rules (habitual *be*, copula deletion, negative concord)

- Read tables by asking who, when, how many and what is missing

COMING NEXT

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society 4 looks at style and register: why one speaker uses many varieties depending on the setting and audience.

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society

Course 1 · Chapter 4 · Style and Register

Chapter 3 treated each speaker as belonging to a group. But the same speaker talks differently to a friend, a judge and a child. This chapter is about that second kind of variation: not between people but within one person, depending on the situation and on who is listening.

> **THE IDEA IN A BOX**
>
> **Dialect** covers variation by *user*; **register** covers variation by *use*, since each speaker chooses among varieties depending on the situation (Wikipedia, Register (sociolinguistics)). The same person is intra-speaker variable, as Chapter 1 described.

Register

A register is a variety of language used for a particular purpose or communicative situation. Registers form a spectrum with no clear boundaries, and scholars disagree on terms like *register*, *field* and *tenor*. The term was introduced by T. B. W. Reid in 1956 and popularised in the 1960s. Diatype is a similar term for variation by social purpose, and the line between dialect and diatype is not always clear.

Field, mode and tenor

FEATURE (HALLIDAY AND HASAN)	MEANING
Field	the total event and the speaker's purpose, including subject matter
Mode	the channel (spoken or written) and the text's function, such as narrative or persuasive
Tenor	the role relationships among participants

These three determine a text's linguistic features. For Halliday and Hasan, register is one of two defining concepts of a text, alongside cohesion. A text is coherent when it fits its context and stays consistent in register.

Register or style?

Language teaching often uses *register* as shorthand for formal versus informal style, though the source calls this definition aging. Linguists increasingly use **style** for formality levels and reserve **register** for specialist language tied to an activity, such as academic jargon. Situational registers listed include legalese, motherese, the language of a biology lab, a news report and the bedroom.

Five Styles of Spoken English

Martin Joos described five styles in spoken English:

STYLE	DESCRIPTION	EXAMPLE GIVEN
Frozen	fixed, unchanging wording	biblical quotations, a pledge
Formal	one-way communication	presentations
Consultative	two-way exchanges where background is explained	teacher and student
Casual	talk among friends, with slang and ellipsis	(none given)
Intimate	private talk among family or close friends, relying on intonation and shared vocabulary	(none given)

Formal English may use *walking* rather than *walkin'*, *father* rather than *dad*, *child* rather than *kid*, and avoids words like *hella*, *ain't* and *y'all*. The *walking / walkin'* pair is the ING variable you met in Chapter 1.

Style-Shifting

Style-shifting is when a single speaker changes style in response to context. It is voluntary, and it contrasts with variation between speakers. Wikipedia describes three explanations.

1. Attention to speech (Labov, 1972)

Labov proposed that styles lie on one dimension, "measured by the amount of attention paid to speech". Casual speech receives the least self-monitoring. Criticisms: attention is hard to

quantify, and the model implies one style per formality level (Hindle, 1979). The source's evidence is Labov's 1966 New York department-store study: lower-class speakers rarely pronounced postvocalic /r/ in casual speech, while middle-class speakers shifted toward the higher-status form when paying attention. (This fills the gap left in Chapter 3, which had no source for Labov's New York City work.)

2. Audience design (Bell, 1984)

Speakers adjust to their audience and also to nonpresent reference groups they converge with or diverge from. Speakers continually negotiate their relationships with people, present or not, who come up in discourse.

3. Style as identity

The page does not use the term "speaker design". Its closest equivalent is LePage and Tabouret-Keller's (1985) view that speakers use style to associate with or distance themselves from groups, and that all styles are equally fundamental rather than one underlying "casual" style. Later scholars (Bell, Johnstone, Schilling-Estes) studied initiative style-shifting, where speakers deliberately choose forms to present themselves in a certain way.

- **Eckert, Belten High (Detroit suburbs):** urban-oriented "burnouts" used newer urban-led vowel changes most. A subgroup of "burned-out" burnout girls led in negative concord, which is unusual because it is usually male-led.
- **Eckert, Palo Alto High School:** students used clothing styles to signal identity. "Preppy but unique" girls combined elements of two styles.
- **Podesva et al. (2002):** a gay lawyer avoided sounding "too gay" and used high release of word-final stops to index professionalism.
- **Niederhoffer and Pennebaker (2002):** speakers show linguistic style matching, which is sensitive to power differences.

Accommodation

Communication accommodation theory, associated with Howard Giles, studies when, how and why people adjust their communication to others. (The style-shifting page calls it Communication Accommodation Theory and does not attribute it to Giles; the dedicated page does.)

PROCESS	MEANING
Convergence	shifting speech patterns to "more closely resemble" a partner's
Divergence	"a communication strategy of accentuating the differences between you and another person"

- **Motives named:** social approval; similarity-attraction (people who are more similar tend to attract each other); social exchange (weighing rewards and costs); causal attribution (listeners judge convergence by the intent they attribute to the speaker); intergroup distinctiveness (speech can "signal a salient group distinctiveness, so as to reinforce a social identity").
- **Examples:** a native French speaker using complex terms with a novice (divergence); Welsh speakers who strengthened their accents and used Welsh when their identity was threatened; Tunisian Arabic speakers in London who converged to Sharqi Arabic co-workers; and young people using "Elderspeak", an over-accommodating style toward older adults. In a 2001 study of doctors and patients, converging led to miscommunication.
- **Shortcomings noted:** convergence can occur in arguments, where approval is not the goal, and non-convergence can maintain distance in asymmetric relationships such as employer and employee. The dedicated page does not discuss "maintenance" as a concept.

WATCH OUT: STYLE IS NOT A LADDER FROM "BAD" TO "GOOD"

A casual style is not a degraded formal one. LePage and Tabouret-Keller's view in the source is that all styles are equally fundamental, and Bell's audience design shows speakers choosing forms for who is listening. A speaker who uses *walkin'* with friends and *walking* in an interview is doing what competent speakers do.

NOTE ON SOURCES

The register, style-shifting and accommodation material comes from Wikipedia's articles on register (sociolinguistics), style-shifting and communication accommodation theory (the CAT page was read only up to its first 100,000 characters). The register page's body does not discuss code-switching, and the style-shifting page does not use "speaker design" or attribute accommodation to Giles. The doctor and patient study is reported as the page gives it, without details. The warning above and the note that *walkin'* is the ING variable are mine.

Try It Yourself

EXERCISE 1

Name Joos's style for each: a wedding vow; a lecture to a hall; a teacher explaining a concept to a pupil; two friends joking; a parent whispering to a child.

View solution

EXERCISE 2

Describe Labov's 1966 department-store findings as evidence for the attention-to-speech model. Then give one criticism of the model from the source.

View solution

EXERCISE 3

Explain the difference between convergence and divergence using the Welsh and French examples from the source. Which motive from the list fits each?

View solution

CHAPTER 4 QUICK REFERENCE

- Dialect = variation by user; register = variation by use (field, mode, tenor)
- Joos's five styles: frozen, formal, consultative, casual, intimate
- Style-shifting: attention to speech (Labov 1972), audience design (Bell 1984), style as identity
- Accommodation: convergence toward a partner, divergence away from one
- Every style is a competent choice; none is a ladder of "good" speech

COMING NEXT

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society 5 asks why one variant carries prestige and another does not, and how that drives change.

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society

Course 1 · Chapter 5 · Prestige and Change

Historical Linguistics and Language Families 1 gave "social prestige" as a cause of language change and cited the loss of the /r/ in Received Pronunciation. It did not say how prestige works. This chapter does, using the best-documented case in the field: what happened to /r/ in English on both sides of the Atlantic.

THE IDEA IN A BOX

Prestige is the level of regard a language or dialect receives within a speech community, relative to others (Wikipedia, Sociolinguistic prestige). It attaches to varieties and also to smaller features such as a pronunciation or a word. It is a social fact, not a linguistic one: prestige varieties show no grammatical features that make them superior.

Overt and Covert Prestige

TYPE	RELATES TO	EXPRESSES
Overt prestige	standard and "formal" features	power and status
Covert prestige	vernacular and often patois features	solidarity, community and group identity more than authority

Which varieties count as prestigious depends on audience and context. Prestige varieties are usually the standard form, though exceptions exist: the source notes that Egyptian Arabic is widely used in mass media, while Literary Arabic is more prestigious. Prestige rests on literary heritage, degree of modernisation, international standing and the prestige of speakers; Latin's prestige came from the churchmen, lawyers and scholars who used it.

Studies that show it

STUDY	FINDING AS THE SOURCE REPORTS IT
Trudgill, Norwich (1972)	more working-class women than men used the standard dialect; men sometimes claimed to speak a less prestigious dialect than they actually used; Trudgill suggests men gain covert prestige from working-class speech

STUDY	FINDING AS THE SOURCE REPORTS IT
Labov, New York City (1966)	at three department stores (Saks, Macy's, S. Klein), employees' use of word-final /r/ in *fourth floor* tracked store status; Saks employees pronounced /r/ most often
Kiesling (1998)	college fraternity men used *-in* rather than *-ing*, which the author linked to projecting working-class traits
Chun (2001)	a Korean-American student used African American Vernacular English to gain acceptance in that speech community
Gumperz (1958)	in Khalapur, India, lower-prestige castes imitated higher-prestige speech, and higher castes then shifted to differentiate themselves
Abu-Haidar (1989)	in Baghdad, women were more prestige-conscious than men
Angle and Hesse-Biber (1981)	poorer men were more likely than poorer women to speak the prestige language in diglossic societies

Two of these pull in different directions for gender: in Norwich women used more of the standard dialect, and in Angle and Hesse-Biber's diglossic societies poorer men used more of the prestige language. Chapter 3's warning applies: gender patterns are not universal.

Hypercorrection

In sociolinguistics, hypercorrection is "the nonstandard use of language that results from the overapplication of a perceived rule" of prescriptive usage (Wikipedia, Hypercorrection). Speakers usually believe their form is more correct or formal, but the rule is applied where it does not belong.

- **Labov, New York City (1960s):** speakers tended to pronounce the "r" in words like *hard* more often when speaking carefully. Lower-middle-class speakers used more rhotic pronunciation than upper-middle-class speakers, apparently trying to imitate them but overproducing the noticeable r-sound. The prestige article describes the word-list version of the study: lower-class speakers, who were monitoring their speech, added /r/ to words that had none.
- **Other examples given:** "he gave it to you and I" (Jack Lynch's example, where "you and me" is correct); *octopi* as the plural of *octopus*; *feels badly* for *feels bad*; *affect* and *effect* confusion;

habanero pronounced as if spelled "habañero" (hyperforeignism).

The source gives no statistics for hypercorrection; it describes Labov's findings qualitatively.

Worked Case: What Happened to /r/ in English

England

- Loss of /r/ first appeared in the early 15th century, before coronals such as /s/ (*ass*, *bass*).
- It became sporadic in the mid-15th century, but such spellings stayed uncommon and mostly appeared in private documents, especially by women.
- In 1640 Ben Jonson wrote that /r/ was "sounded firme in the beginning of words, and more liquid in the middle, and ends".
- By the 1770s, pre-consonantal /r/-less pronunciation was becoming common around London, even in formal educated speech.
- By the early 19th century, the southern British standard was fully non-rhotic, though some variation persisted into the 1870s.
- In Britain, non-rhoticity became the prestige form. The page says it "exerts a steady pressure toward non-rhoticity".

The United States

- In the 18th century, some eastern and southern US port cities with British ties (New York, Boston, Charleston) became non-rhotic among the upper class.
- Non-rhoticity stayed prestigious in the US until the 1860s Civil War shifted power to rhotic areas.
- Rhoticity then gained prestige nationwide, most decisively after World War II, citing Labov, Ash and Boberg (2006). The page does not say Labov found this specifically in New York.
- Today, non-rhotic accents in US eastern and southern cities are often seen as working-class or immigrant, while rhotic accents are seen as "General American". Non-rhoticity persists among African American speakers and in parts of the South, New York City and eastern New England, though it is declining.
- The prestige article adds that New York's dropped /r/ had origins in "posh British speech", but that after WWII, r-less British speech stopped being seen as prestigious.

```
// Same feature, opposite prestige
Britain        non-rhotic = prestige form
US (to 1860s)  non-rhotic = prestigious in port cities, upper class
US (after WW2) rhotic = prestige ("General American")
```

This is why Phonetics and the IPA 7 listed RP as non-rhotic and General American as rhotic: each reflects what its society treated as prestigious.

Linking and intrusive R

Non-rhotic speakers often pronounce a final written *r* when the next word begins with a vowel: **linking R**, as in *water ice*. Many also insert an epenthetic /r/ between vowels: **intrusive R**, as in *drawring* for *drawing*. The source says this is stigmatised, but many RP speakers use it, for example *the idea-r-of it*; RP speakers and some rhotic speakers more often use a glottal stop instead.

Prestige and Language Contact

- Contact between languages of unequal prestige can cause borrowing, language shift (speakers moving to the higher-prestige variety), convergence, or death.
- In diglossia, the prestige language resists change, while the vernacular changes normally. A prestige language in free contact with vernaculars may undergo vernacularisation, as Sanskrit did.

WATCH OUT: PRESTIGE IS RELATIVE TO A COMMUNITY

The rhotic story shows the same pronunciation moving from high to low status as power moved from one region to another. A feature is not prestigious "in itself", and the source says linguists consider all varieties rule-governed and equal on linguistic grounds.

NOTE ON SOURCES

The prestige, hypercorrection and rhoticity material comes from Wikipedia's articles on sociolinguistic prestige, hypercorrection and rhoticity in English (the rhoticity page was read only up to its first 100,000 characters). The prestige page does not use the terms "change from above" or "change from below" and does not discuss RP by name, so those are not used. The hypercorrection page gives no

statistics and does not mention *whom*. The code-block layout and the remark linking this chapter to Phonetics and the IPA 7 are mine.

Try It Yourself

EXERCISE 1

Classify each as overt or covert prestige: standard pronunciation in a job interview; fraternity men saying *-in*; a student using AAVE to be accepted by a community.

View solution

EXERCISE 2

Explain the Saks, Macy's and S. Klein result and the hypercorrection finding in Labov's work. What is the difference between pronouncing /r/ where it belongs and overapplying it?

View solution

EXERCISE 3

Using the dates in this chapter, explain why a New Yorker's non-rhotic speech was prestigious in the 18th century and stigmatised by the late 20th. What changed, according to the source?

View solution

CHAPTER 5 QUICK REFERENCE

- Overt prestige = standard, power and status; covert prestige = vernacular, solidarity and identity
- Hypercorrection = overapplying a perceived rule (Labov's lower-middle-class /r/)
- England: r-loss from the 15th century; fully non-rhotic standard by the early 19th
- US: non-rhotic prestige in port cities until the 1860s; rhoticity prestigious after WWII
- Prestige is a social fact: the same feature can move from high to low status

COMING NEXT

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society 6 moves from one language to many: bilingualism, code-switching and diglossia.

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society

Course 1 · Chapter 6 · Many Languages in One Mind

So far this course has treated each speaker as using one language, in different styles. Most of the world does not work that way. This chapter looks at people and communities who use more than one language: what that means, what they do with it mid-conversation, and how a community can give its languages different jobs.

> **THE IDEA IN A BOX**
>
> **Multilingualism** is the use of more than one language by an individual or a group; "bilingualism" usually refers to two (Wikipedia, Multilingualism). The page says definitions are debated, and Vivian Cook's "multi-competence" framing places most multilingual speakers between minimal and maximal definitions.

How Common Is It?

- Multilingual speakers are believed to outnumber monolinguals worldwide (the page gives no figure).
- More than half of Europeans say they speak at least one language other than their mother tongue.
- Linguist Ekkehard Wolff estimates 50% of Africa's population is multilingual.
- Switzerland's federal administration uses four national languages; India's railway signs commonly use three or more; Singapore has four official languages, with bilingualism part of its education system; Finland's children must learn three languages.

Types of bilingualism

TYPE	MEANING
Simultaneous	two languages acquired natively from early childhood; one language usually dominates
Sequential	literacy is first taught in the native language until a "threshold" is reached; some researchers use age three as the point of basic communicative competence in the first language
Receptive	understanding a language without being able to speak it

The page also covers positive and negative transfer between languages, and language attrition (loss of a first language).

Societal multilingualism

PATTERN	MEANING, WITH THE PAGE'S EXAMPLES
Diglossia	a functional split, e.g. Frisia
Ambilingualism	no predictable split, e.g. Luxembourg, Singapore
Bipart-lingualism	e.g. the Balkans
Polyglossia	more than two languages

English is described as a global **lingua franca**: in lingua franca situations, most speakers of the common language are functionally multilingual.

> **WATCH OUT: DO NOT OVERSELL THE "BILINGUAL BRAIN"**
>
> The same article is cautious about popular claims. On executive function it states "There is no evidence for a bilingual advantage", and says any advantage is marginal or absent. On faster language learning it says "Current meta-analyses find no effect" and attributes the idea's persistence partly to publication bias. The claim of later dementia onset "has come under strong criticism", with "repeated failures to replicate". On personality changes it says there is "little rigorous research". Economic claims exist (one US study found bilinguals earn around $3,000 more per year than monolinguals), but the source reports them as findings, not as proof of cause.

Code-Switching

Code-switching is "shifting from one linguistic code (a language or dialect) to another," depending on social context. It differs from plurilingualism, which refers to an individual's ability to use multiple languages.

TYPE	MEANING	EXAMPLE GIVEN
Intersentential	switching at sentence or clause boundaries	Assyrian-English: *Ani wideili. What happened?*

TYPE	MEANING	EXAMPLE GIVEN
Intrasentential	switching within a sentence or clause	Spanish-English: *La onda is to fight y jambar* ("The latest fad is to fight and steal")
Tag-switching	switching a tag phrase or word	Spanish-English: *Él es de México y así los criaron a ellos, you know.*
Intra-word	switching within a word, at a morpheme boundary	Shona-English: *ma-day-s* (English plural *-s* with the Shona prefix *ma-*)

Why people do it

- A topic better expressed in one language.
- Quoting someone.
- Expressing solidarity or gratitude.
- Clarifying something a listener has trouble understanding.
- Signalling group identity.
- Softening or strengthening a command.
- Filling a lexical gap.
- Fitting in, or getting better treatment when buying something.
- Speaking in a way others nearby cannot understand.

Two models

- **Domain model.** Fishman proposed a domain-specific model, later refined by Blom and Gumperz. Bilinguals choose a language by location and topic: a child might speak Spanish at home, English in class, and Spanish at recess.
- **Markedness model (Myers-Scotton).** Speakers choose the language that clearly marks their rights and obligations in the conversation. When no clear, unmarked choice exists, they code-switch to explore options. Many sociolinguists object that language choice is entirely rational.

Is it a deficiency?

In the 1950s, many scholars viewed code-switching as substandard. Since the 1980s, most have regarded it as a normal, natural product of bilingual use. The page reports that code-switching shows grammatical proficiency comparable to a monolingual's competence, not incompetence,

and John Gutiérrez notes it is most common among bilinguals highly skilled in both languages. Relatively stable informal mixtures of two languages exist, such as Spanglish, Taglish and Hinglish; the page also cites Sarah Geronimo switching between English and Filipino, which it says is widespread in the Philippines, and Maya Diab switching between English and Lebanese Arabic mid-sentence.

Diglossia

Diglossia is a situation in which a single language community uses two varieties of a language, or two distinct languages, in strictly separated settings. Ferguson (1959) described a "relatively stable language situation" with a divergent, highly codified "superposed variety" used for written and formal purposes; the High form is "not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation". Fishman extended the idea so that the H and L varieties can be unrelated languages, not just closely related dialects.

	HIGH (H)	LOW (L)
Status	prestigious and highly codified	the everyday vernacular, often the mother tongue with low prestige
Used for	literature, formal education, government speeches, most writing	conversation at home, with friends, in markets; usually spoken and often unwritten
Native speakers?	the H form may have none	yes

L varieties are not mere simplifications of H; they can have sounds or grammar that H lacks, and vice versa. Thomas Ricento describes a "socially constructed hierarchy, indexed from low to high," often imposed by political figures or media.

COMMUNITY	HIGH	LOW
Arabic	Modern Standard Arabic	colloquial varieties
Swiss German	Standard German (formal settings)	Swiss German dialects (the page calls this both the best and worst example of diglossia)
Haiti	French	Haitian Creole (one of Ferguson's classic examples)

COMMUNITY	HIGH	LOW
Greece	Katharevousa (purist literary form)	Demotic (Dimotiki), the spoken language
Tamil	Senthamizh (writing, media, religion, education)	Kodunthamizh (daily speech)

- **Prestige changes.** Dimotiki became Greece's sole standard language in 1976, and Creole is now recognised as a standard language in Haiti. This links to Chapter 5: prestige is a social fact that can move.
- **Mixing.** Speakers often mix varieties, especially in the Arab world, which challenges Ferguson's model of strictly separate domains.

NOTE ON SOURCES

The multilingualism, code-switching and diglossia material comes from Wikipedia's articles on multilingualism, code-switching and diglossia (the first two were read only up to their first 100,000 characters, so later sections, including neuroscience and limitations, were not reached). The multilingualism page, in the portion I read, does not mention Papua New Guinea or the terms "additive" and "subtractive" bilingualism, and the code-switching page does not discuss Blom and Gumperz's study of Hemnesberget or situational versus metaphorical switching, so none appears here. The bilingual-brain warning follows the source's own hedging; its framing as a warning is mine.

Try It Yourself

EXERCISE 1

Name the type of code-switching in each: *Ani wideili. What happened?*; *ma-day-s*; *La onda is to fight y jambar*; *... los criaron a ellos, you know.*

View solution

EXERCISE 2

A child speaks Spanish at home, English in class and Spanish at recess. Which model explains this, and what does the markedness model add?

View solution

EXERCISE 3

Why is the Arab world a challenge to Ferguson's model of diglossia? Name one case where the prestige of the H or L form has changed, and give the year.

View solution

CHAPTER 6 QUICK REFERENCE

- Bilingualism: simultaneous, sequential, receptive; societal patterns: diglossia, ambilingualism, polyglossia
- Claims about a "bilingual advantage" are contested; the source says there is no evidence for one in executive function
- Code-switching types: intersentential, intrasentential, tag, intra-word; most scholars now see it as normal and skilled
- Models: domain (Fishman, Blom and Gumperz), markedness (Myers-Scotton)
- Diglossia: H for formal writing, L for home speech; the H form may have no native speakers

COMING NEXT

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society 7 looks at contact languages as social events: pidgins, creoles and mixed languages.

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society

Course 1 · Chapter 7 · Contact Languages

Chapter 6 looked at people who already share two languages. Here the starting point is different: people with *no* shared language who need to talk anyway, or bilinguals who build something new from both of their languages. The outcomes are pidgins, creoles and mixed languages. Historical Linguistics and Language Families 6 and 9 met creoles from the family-tree side; this chapter asks who the speakers are and what the language does for them.

> **THE IDEA IN A BOX**
>
> What separates the three is mostly **who speaks them and how they were acquired**: a pidgin has no native speakers, a creole has native speakers, and a mixed language arises among people who are already fluent in both source languages.

Pidgins

Wikipedia's Pidgin article defines a pidgin as a "grammatically simplified form of contact language" arising between groups with no shared language. Its vocabulary and grammar are limited and often drawn from several languages. It is used mainly for trade, or where the groups' languages differ from the national language. It is "not the native language of any singular speech community", though it can be learned as a second language.

- **What it needs.** The article says development usually needs prolonged, regular contact, a need to communicate, and no widely shared interlanguage. Keith Whinnom suggests three languages are involved, with one (the superstrate) clearly dominant.
- **Not "broken".** Pidgins were historically seen as unsophisticated forms of their lexifier languages and carry low prestige. The article counters that each pidgin has norms of usage that must be learned.
- **Examples named.** Tok Pisin (Papua New Guinea), Nigerian Pidgin, Chinese Pidgin English (the term "pidgin" was first applied to it), Bislama, Cameroonian Pidgin English, and Chinook Jargon (classed as a "jargon"). Tok Pisin and Nigerian Pidgin are marked as creolized.
- **Trade pidgins can grow.** The article says trade pidgins can grow into full languages, with Swahili as its example.

Creoles

The Creole language article defines a creole as "a stable form of contact language" that arises when languages simplify and mix into a new form, which then expands into a full language with native speakers in a fairly brief period. Three features "distinguish a creole language from a pidgin": a consistent grammatical system, large stable vocabularies, and acquisition by children as a native language.

	PIDGIN	CREOLE	MIXED LANGUAGE
Who speaks it	people with no shared language	a community, including children	a population fluent in both source languages
Native speakers?	no	yes	yes (a bilingual community)
Grammar	simplified, limited vocabulary	consistent grammar, large stable vocabulary	often keeps inflections of one or both parents

Most linguists hold that a creole forms when children learn a pidgin as their first language (nativization). The sources are careful: not all pidgins become creoles, and Salikoko Mufwene argues pidgins and creoles can arise independently, so a pidgin need not always come first.

Case study: Tok Pisin

- **Origin.** It grew from a pidgin that developed when colonial authorities "forced people speaking numerous different languages to work on plantations", particularly during blackbirding. Most of its vocabulary came from English, with input from German, Malay, Portuguese and Austronesian languages. (The Pidgin article does not itself mention plantations; the Tok Pisin article does.)
- **Status.** Along with English and Hiri Motu it is one of Papua New Guinea's three official languages. It is "frequently the language of debate in the national parliament". English is the main language of education, though some schools use Tok Pisin in the first three years "to promote early literacy". Government documents are mostly in English.
- **Speakers.** The infobox lists 130,000 native speakers and 4,000,000 second-language speakers; the text estimates five to six million use it to some degree. It has "increasingly overtaken Hiri Motu as the dominant lingua franca among town-dwellers", and many urban families raise children in it.

- **Side effect.** The article says it is slowly "crowding out" other languages of Papua New Guinea. (That page was read only to its first 100,000 characters.)
- **Sample.** *Em i slip i stap*: "He/she is sleeping." *Em i lusim bot pinis*: "He had got out of the boat." (free translations from the page)

Case study: Jamaican Patois

- An English-based creole with substantial West African influence (also called Jamaican Creole). Ethnologue's figure of 3.2 million native speakers (2000–2001) is cited, and the article says most Jamaicans speak it as a first language.
- **A continuum.** The article describes an acrolect (closest to English), a mesolect (intermediate) and a basilect (most divergent rural varieties), which cannot always be told apart. A speaker's position on the continuum generally corresponds to social context. This is Chapter 4's style-shifting, along a creole's own range.
- **Stigma.** Creoles are "often stigmatised as low-prestige languages" even when they are the mother tongue of most of the population, and Standard English remains the more prestigious literary medium.
- **Standardising.** The Jamaican Language Unit at the University of the West Indies was set up in 2002; its aim is to support non-English-speaking Jamaicans, since state services are normally in English. It standardised the alphabet now known as the Cassidy/JLU orthography.
- **Glossed examples.** *Mi run*: "I run" (habitually), or "I ran". *Mi a run*: "I am running". *Mi did run*: "I have run" or "I had run". *Dem a fight fi wi*: "They are fighting for us".

> **WATCH OUT: "CREOLE" IS NOT A SETTLED CATEGORY**
>
> The Creole language article reports live disputes. John McWhorter proposed a "creole prototype" and claimed "the world's simplest grammars are Creole grammars"; others dispute this (David Gil argued Riau Indonesian is simpler than Saramaccan). Mufwene, Henri Wittmann and Michel DeGraff argue that "creole" is "a sociohistoric concept – not a linguistic one"; McWhorter and Parkvall oppose that view. Theories of origin also compete (Schuchardt's monogenesis, Bickerton's language bioprogram, Hancock's domestic origin hypothesis). This course takes no side.

Decreolization and Attitudes

Because creoles rarely attain official status, speakers may conform their speech to a parent language. The article calls this **decreolization**, typically producing a "post-creole speech

continuum" marked by "large-scale variation and hypercorrection" (compare hypercorrection in Chapter 5). Creoles were long seen in popular opinion as "degenerate variants or dialects" of their parent languages, and many were stigmatized and became extinct. Since decolonization some have been standardized and are used in local schools and universities, and "some creoles have even been granted the status of official or semi-official languages of particular territories". The article also says the historical negative connotation of "creole" is mirrored in the use of the word "ebonics" for African-American Vernacular English.

Mixed Languages

A mixed language is "a type of contact language that arises among a bilingual group combining aspects of two or more languages". Unlike pidgins and creoles, it "typically arises in a population that is fluent in both of the source languages". It differs from code-switching (Chapter 6) in that its fusion is fixed in grammar and vocabulary, though linguists think mixed languages often evolve from persistent code-switching.

LANGUAGE	WHAT COMES FROM WHERE (PER THE PAGE)
Michif	nouns and determiners from French; verbs and demonstratives from Cree, which "remain grammatically intact"
Media Lengua	Spanish vocabulary with Ecuadorian Quichua grammar, "most conspicuously in its morphology"; arose largely through relexification
Gurindji Kriol	Gurindji supplies noun structure, including case-marking; Kriol supplies the verb-structure auxiliaries (tense, aspect, mood)
Light Warlpiri	verbs and verbal morphology largely from Kriol; nouns largely from Warlpiri and English
Mednyj Aleut	mostly intact systematic components from two unrelated languages, Aleut and Russian

- **Identity.** Some scholars propose Michif "emerged as a need to symbolize a new social identity"; Muysken links Media Lengua to "ethnic self-identification"; the page suggests Mednyj Aleut may reflect the community's new group identity. Bakker's account of Michif (paraphrased on the page): children of European men and Cree, Nakota and Ojibwe women learned a mix of French and Cree.

- **Not Anglo-Romani.** The page does not count it as a mixed language; it describes it as a register of English with many Romani loanwords.
- **Disputed.** Many linguists reject the category: some argue it would threaten the comparative method, others that all languages mix to some degree.

NOTE ON SOURCES

This chapter draws on Wikipedia's Pidgin, Creole language, Mixed language, Tok Pisin and Jamaican Patois articles. Creole language and Tok Pisin were read only up to their first 100,000 characters (of 153,005 and 117,095); for Creole language the unread part follows its Bibliography. The Creole language page text I read does not name Haiti, Papua New Guinea, Seychelles or Jamaica, and does not use "acrolect" or "mesolect", so those terms come from the Jamaican Patois article. The Pidgin page's "Common traits" section is flagged there as unsourced and I did not use it. Wikipedia's Mixed language page has maintenance banners about citations. The link from the identity theories to "why speakers do this" is the sources' own suggestion, not settled fact. Linking the chapter to Chapters 4 and 5 is my own framing.

Try It Yourself

EXERCISE 1

Using the table above, say whether each description fits a pidgin, creole or mixed language: (a) traders with no common language use a limited, simplified mix for buying and selling; (b) children grow up speaking a language with a consistent grammar that began as (a); (c) a community fluent in two languages fixes a blend of both in its grammar.

View solution

EXERCISE 2

Michif takes nouns from French and verbs from Cree. Explain why this is a mixed language and not a creole, and say what Chapter 6's code-switching has to do with how such languages may arise.

View solution

EXERCISE 3

Tok Pisin is an official language of Papua New Guinea, yet English is the main language of education. A Jamaican speaker moves between acrolect and basilect depending on the setting. What do the two cases show about creoles and prestige?

View solution

CHAPTER 7 QUICK REFERENCE

- Pidgin: no native speakers, limited vocabulary, for contact; creole: native speakers, full grammar
- Mixed language: arises among people fluent in both source languages; fixed, not just code-switching
- Creole continuum: acrolect, mesolect, basilect; decreolization moves speech toward the parent language
- Status: Tok Pisin official in Papua New Guinea; Jamaican Patois still stigmatised although most Jamaicans speak it
- "Creole" as a category is disputed (McWhorter versus Mufwene, DeGraff and others)

COMING NEXT

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society 8 turns to standard languages, attitudes to accents, and deliberate language planning, including Esperanto.

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society

Course 1 · Chapter 8 · Standards and Attitudes

Chapter 2 introduced the standard language and Chapter 5 showed how prestige works. This chapter asks three linked questions: how does a variety become the standard, what happens to people whose speech is not the standard, and can anyone plan a language on purpose?

> **THE IDEA IN A BOX**
>
> A standard is made by **social choices**, not by linguistic merit. The Standard language article says beliefs that the standard is inherently superior are "firmly rooted in social perceptions rather than any objective evaluation".

How a Standard Is Made

Wikipedia defines a standard language as "any language variety that has undergone substantial codification" in grammar, lexicon, writing system or other features. It has the highest status or prestige among related varieties, especially in formal public and academic settings.

- **The sequence.** A variety is selected, often toward greater uniformity, and accepted by influential people. It spreads socially and culturally, is "established in opposition to competitor varieties", and is maintained, used in more contexts and given high status by its association with successful people. Standardisation is continual, because language keeps changing. (This matches the steps in Chapter 2; the page itself does not name formal stages.)
- **The tools.** Grammar books, dictionaries and reference works stabilise spelling and codify usages and meanings. Broadcasting uses the standard as a normalising reference, and education shapes the version taught to non-native learners. Codification can slow change.
- **Who gets standardised.** Varieties tied to commerce and government, used by educated people and in news broadcasting.

Two routes

ROUTE	EXAMPLE ON THE PAGE
Informal, piecemeal	Standard English, without formal government intervention (the planning article adds Caxton's printing press and the London dialect's prestige)

ROUTE	EXAMPLE ON THE PAGE
Directed by an institution	French and Spanish, via the Académie Française and the Royal Spanish Academy

Where standards came from

- British English is based on the language of the medieval court of Chancery.
- Italian derives from Florentine Tuscan; Greek is based on Southern dialects.
- Standard Chinese was adopted in the 1930s, with Beijing pronunciation.
- Serbo-Croatian has four standard variants sharing Štokavian as their dialect basis; Hindi–Urdu has two standardised registers with legal status in India and Pakistan.
- Brazilian Portuguese is described as a de facto spoken standard, with distinct norms in Africa and Europe.

Attitudes and Discrimination

The Linguistic discrimination article (also glottophobia, linguicism, languagism) defines it as "the unfair treatment of people based upon their use of language", including first language, accent, vocabulary, modality and syntax. Tove Skutnabb-Kangas described linguicism as "ideologies and structures used to legitimize, effectuate, and reproduce unequal divisions of power and resources" between groups defined by language. The page defines **linguistic ideology** as the belief that how a person speaks can signal social status.

AREA	WHAT THE PAGE REPORTS
Accent	research cited links some accents to lower perceived intelligence and poorer social skills
Work	black workers who sound more "black" earned about 12% less than peers (2009 data); in Quebec, speaking English at work correlates with higher earnings
School	AAVE students are reportedly taught that their speech is incorrect; a Flanders teacher survey (775 teachers) found 77.3% agreed pupils should not speak their home languages at school
UK	Received Pronunciation associated with higher class; Welsh speakers discouraged in schools, Scottish Gaelic excluded from education; the 2022 Identity and Language (Northern Ireland) Act gave Irish official status there

AREA	WHAT THE PAGE REPORTS
US	General American widely preferred in contexts such as television journalism; Northerners and Southerners stereotyped as less likable and less intelligent, respectively

The page also mentions the 1977 Ann Arbor case on AAVE and education, Michele Gazzola's study of EU multilingual policy (51% to 90% of people excluded under an English-only policy in 24 countries), and treaties giving minority children a right to use their own languages.

> **WATCH OUT: REPORTED FINDINGS, NOT PROVEN CAUSES**
>
> These are the article's reports, and I have not traced the underlying studies. The page text I read does not mention matched-guise tests or the term "accentism", so I do not describe either here. Where a figure is dated or tied to one country, treat it as that and not as a world rule.

Language Planning

The Language planning article calls it "a deliberate effort to influence the function, structure or acquisition of languages" within a speech community.

TYPE	MEANING	USUALLY DONE BY
Status planning	allocating a language or dialect to functional domains in society, which affects its standing	governments, administrators, politicians
Corpus planning	prescriptive intervention in a language's forms: graphization, standardization, modernization	linguists
Acquisition planning	influencing status, distribution and literacy through education	education ministries; costly, with uncertain effects

Outcomes the page reports

- **Hebrew in Israel:** cited as vernacularization, an indigenous language restored and adopted as official (no further detail given).
- **Ireland:** after independence in 1922 the Gaelic League pushed for Irish to be taught at least an hour daily in primary schools. The effort lost strength: implementation was left to individual schools, there was no consensus on method and no assessment system. Native speakers have declined steadily.

- **Peru:** Quechua was declared official "coequal with Spanish" in 1975, reversed about four years later; the 1979 constitution made Spanish the sole official language.
- **Vocabulary:** Hungarian mostly coined words internally and Japanese borrowed heavily from English (both cited as successes); Hindi and Arabic are cited as failing to expand their lexicons adequately.

A planned language: Esperanto

- **Origin.** L. L. Zamenhof, a Jewish ophthalmologist from Białystok, created it in the late 1870s and early 1880s and published the first grammar book, *Unua Libro*, on 26 July 1887 as "Doktoro Esperanto".
- **Aim.** An easy, flexible universal second language to support "world peace" and international understanding and build a "community of speakers".
- **Design.** A constructed language between naturalistic and a priori design; about 80% of its vocabulary comes from Romance languages, with Germanic, Greek and Slavic elements.
- **Speakers.** The article says usage figures are difficult to establish: estimates of second-language speakers range from about 30,000 to 2 million (Culbert about 2 million; Wandel above 2 million; Vendelbo 30,000–180,000). Native speakers (*denaskuloj*) are given as about 1,000 (2022) in the infobox but about 2,000 in the lead, which is inconsistent.
- **Standing.** The first World Esperanto Congress was in Boulogne-sur-Mer in 1905 and the event is now annual. No country has adopted it officially. In 1954 UNESCO supported it in the Montevideo Resolution, but it is not one of the UN's six official languages.

NOTE ON SOURCES

This chapter uses Wikipedia's Standard language, Linguistic discrimination, Language planning and Esperanto articles. Linguistic discrimination was read only to its first 100,000 characters (of 227,289), ending at its "In the Middle East" section, and Esperanto only to its first 100,000 (of 253,863), ending in its Orthography section. The Standard language page does not contain the saying about a dialect with an army and navy, and the Language planning page does not mention Turkey's reforms, Norwegian or Indonesian, so none appears here. The Esperanto text I read does not mention Scotland. The Hebrew example is stated only as far as the page states it. Reading Esperanto as a language-planning case, and the exercises' links to Chapters 2, 5 and 6, are my own framing.

Try It Yourself

EXERCISE 1

Compare the routes by which Standard English and Standard French were established. Then decide whether each of these is status, corpus or acquisition planning: (a) requiring Irish to be taught an hour a day in primary school; (b) coining new Hungarian words for modern ideas; (c) declaring Quechua coequal with Spanish.

View solution

EXERCISE 2

A manager says a candidate "sounds unintelligent" because of their accent. Using the Linguistic discrimination article's definition and findings, explain what is wrong with that judgment, and name what the article cannot tell you.

View solution

EXERCISE 3

How many people speak Esperanto? Give the range the article reports, name two reasons it is hard to be sure, and say what that tells you about measuring a language community.

View solution

CHAPTER 8 QUICK REFERENCE

- Standard = substantial codification plus top prestige; made by social choices, not linguistic superiority
- Routes: informal (English) or institutional (French, Spanish)
- Linguistic discrimination: unfair treatment based on language use; linguicism (Skutnabb-Kangas)
- Planning: status, corpus, acquisition; outcomes vary (Hebrew, Irish, Quechua)
- Esperanto: created by Zamenhof, 1887; speaker numbers uncertain (about 30,000 to 2 million)

COMING NEXT

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society 9 looks at language endangerment and revival.

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society

Course 1 · Chapter 9 · Endangerment and Revival

Chapters 5 to 8 showed prestige, bilingualism and planning at work. This chapter follows them to a hard conclusion: when a community's languages are ranked, the lower-ranked one can fade out. It then looks at what communities try to do about it.

> **THE IDEA IN A BOX**
>
> Languages rarely vanish suddenly. The usual path is **language shift**: a community becomes bilingual and gradually moves its allegiance to the second language. The Language shift article says that when a community stops using its original language, "language death is said to occur".

Language Shift

Wikipedia defines language shift as "the process whereby a speech community shifts to a different language, usually over an extended period of time". It notes that higher-status languages often spread at the expense of languages seen as lower-status, even by their own speakers.

CAUSE	WHAT THE PAGE SAYS
Prestige	languages seen as more prestigious tend to gain ground; elites can drive shift by linking language to status
Mobility	described by Anthony as "a social strategy" tied to "vertical social mobility" and access to power
Politics	examples include Russification, Spanish centralization, Taiwan's Mandarin-promotion campaigns and a 40-year Tsarist ban on Lithuanian press
Migration, cities	mass immigration to Hong Kong from the 1940s made Cantonese dominant

Case: Hong Kong. Immigrants with different mother tongues needed a common language and Cantonese became dominant; local dialects rapidly vanished as immigrants became the majority in the 1940s and 1950s. The article states that "Most of Hong Kong's younger generation does

not understand, let alone speak, their ancestral dialects." It measures shift "across generations" as the share of a community using the second language at home.

Endangered Languages

The Endangered language article defines one as "at risk of disappearing as its speakers die out or shift to speaking other languages". Once no native speakers remain, it is "dead" or "extinct".

How endangerment is judged

- **Intergenerational transmission** is central: a language is endangered when speakers stop passing it on, with "no new speakers, adults or children".
- **UNESCO (2003)** lists nine factors, including number of speakers, domains of use, government policy, community attitudes and documentation, and four levels: vulnerable, definitely endangered, severely endangered, critically endangered.
- **Krauss** classes languages as safe, endangered or moribund, depending on whether children will probably be speaking them in 100 years.

The numbers the page gives

- Roughly 6,000 to 7,000 languages are spoken today.
- Some linguists estimate 50% to 90% will be severely endangered or dead by 2100; Krauss estimated about 60 to 80% are endangered.
- The 20 most common languages are spoken by about half the world's population, but most languages have fewer than 10,000 speakers.
- UNESCO's Atlas categorises 2,473 languages by endangerment level. More than half of the endangered languages are in eight countries.

These are estimates, and the range (50% to 90%) is wide.

Why it happens

The article, citing the Cambridge Handbook, lists physical dangers (war, genocide, natural disasters, famine, disease) and causes that discourage use:

- **Economic.** Poverty drives migration to cities or abroad, dispersing speakers.
- **Political.** Education and political life conducted only in the majority language, and in some cases outright repression.

- **Cultural.** Literature and higher education available only in the dominant language; speakers may come to see their own language as backward.
- **Shift.** Speakers switch to a prestige or more widely spoken language. The article calls marginalization the most common cause; urbanization and intermarriage are also listed.

What is lost, and a dissenting view

- Losing a language can erode songs, myths, ecological knowledge, social cohesion and political standing; the article links revitalization to better health outcomes. During loss, a language often simplifies.
- Most linguists see loss as an ethical and scientific problem, since future research will see only a fraction of human linguistic diversity. Some, such as Peter Ladefoged and Salikoko Mufwene, view language death as a natural process.

Revitalization

Language revitalization (also revival, or reversing language shift) tries to halt or reverse a language's decline or revive an extinct one. Some distinguish "revival" (resurrecting a language with no native speakers) from "revitalization" (rescuing a declining or moribund one).

What helps

- **David Crystal's conditions:** raising the language's prestige, increasing speakers' wealth and legitimate power, a strong place in education, writing the language down, and using electronic technology.
- **Immersion in childhood.** Sarah Thomason notes Hebrew and Māori share a feature: children were raised in fully immersive environments (kibbutzim for Hebrew, language nests for Māori).
- **Tsunoda's methods:** immersion and neighbourhood approaches work only for weakening languages; master-apprentice works for weakening and moribund languages; technology-based methods work for any state of viability.
- **Fishman's eight-stage model** runs from adult language apprentices and an integrated speaker population through neighbourhood institutions, literacy, schooling, the workplace, and government and media, to higher education; earlier stages should be consolidated first. (The page does not call it "GIDS", but the Endangered language page mentions Fishman's GIDS of 1991 as an early scale.)

Cases the page reports

LANGUAGE	WHAT THE PAGE SAYS
Hebrew	"the only successful example of language revival": a liturgical language became a spoken lingua franca and Israel's national language
Māori	relatively successful, through language nests in New Zealand
Hawaiian	added to Duolingo in 2018; some propose "Neo-Hawaiian" as a separate language because of heavy English influence; concerns raised about the accuracy of the Duolingo material
Cornish	efforts include translating scriptures, a guild of bards and modern literature (Dolly Pentreath is named as last known native speaker)
Irish	Andrew Carnie says state-directed teaching has been ineffective; an urban movement built on Gaelscoileanna (Irish-medium schools), over thirty in Dublin, is growing
Scottish Gaelic	speakers concentrated in the Western Isles, with the population centre shifting toward second-language speakers in Glasgow; Neil McRae argues use is becoming tokenistic

Limits and disputes

- Traditionalists argue heavy borrowing from the majority language produces a new language; Ó Béarra called such Irish "English in Irish drag". Nancy Dorian notes conservative attitudes toward loanwords and grammatical change can hamper revival, while others argue structural compromise may aid survival.
- Kendall King found school-based instruction less effective than language use in the home (the Kichwa case).
- Experts doubt the extent of Sanskrit speech in "Sanskrit villages", and census claims may reflect prestige rather than real speakers.

WATCH OUT: "SUCCESS" IS CONTESTED

Calling Hebrew the only success is the Language revitalization article's own phrasing, yet the same page calls Māori relatively successful. Counting a revival depends on what you count: first-language speakers, second-language speakers, or census claims. Treat the single word as the page's judgment, not a measurement.

NOTE ON SOURCES

This chapter uses Wikipedia's Language shift, Endangered language and Language revitalization articles. Each was read only partly: Language shift to 100,000 of 160,806 characters (ending mid-word in its Taiwan section, so its closing sections, including any on reversing shift, were not read); Endangered language to 100,000 of 107,913 (the rest is navigation); Language revitalization to 100,000 of 199,660 (ending in its Sorbian subsection, so its Wymysorys, Yola, Oceania, health and criticism sections were not read). Welsh does not appear in the revitalization text I read, so it is not discussed. I have not looked at the UNESCO Atlas, so its figure is as the article states it. The point that this chapter completes a chain from prestige (Chapter 5) to endangerment is my own framing.

Try It Yourself

EXERCISE 1

A village's grandparents speak language A, parents speak A and B, and the children use only B at home. Describe this as language shift, say which generation matters most for UNESCO's judgment, and give one cause from the page that could explain it.

View solution

EXERCISE 2

Compare Hebrew's and Irish's revitalization stories as the pages tell them. What does Thomason's point about immersion suggest about why they differ, and which part of that answer is your own inference?

View solution

EXERCISE 3

Two linguists disagree: one says language death is an ethical and scientific loss, the other (like Ladefoged and Mufwene) that it is natural. State each position from the page, then say which question about evidence the page cannot settle.

View solution

CHAPTER 9 QUICK REFERENCE

- Shift: a bilingual community gradually moves to the second language; causes include prestige, mobility, politics, migration
- Endangered: speakers stop passing the language on; UNESCO has four levels, Krauss three
- Estimates of future loss are wide (50% to 90% by 2100)
- Revitalization: prestige, education, writing, technology; immersion in childhood (Hebrew, Māori)
- Views differ on whether language death is a loss to resist or a natural process

COMING NEXT

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society 10 puts it all to work: studying a community, ethics of recording speakers, and a course recap.

Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society

Course 1 · Chapter 10 · Putting It to Work

The first nine chapters described what sociolinguists have found. This one is about how to do it yourself, and how to read other people's claims critically: designing a small study, spotting its weak points, and deciding what you may ethically record.

> **THE IDEA IN A BOX**
>
> Sociolinguistic data has a built-in problem. William Labov's goal was to learn "how people talk when they are not being systematically observed", yet that data can only be gathered through systematic observation. This is the **observer's paradox**.

The Toolkit

Wikipedia's Sociolinguistics article calls the **sociolinguistic interview** "the foundational method of collecting data". The researcher's main aim is casual speech, "complicated by the observer's paradox". The article names these other methods:

METHOD	WHAT THE PAGE SAYS
Interview	techniques to reduce formality include asking for narratives of memorable events and interviewing subjects in groups; researchers then compare styles and correlate demographic features with speech
Participant observation, ethnography	ethnographers such as Dell Hymes and his students "often live amongst the people they are studying"
Recordings of real encounters	natural speech analysed "in detail" (conversation analysis)
Matched-guise tests	named as a method; the page does not describe how they work
Dialect surveys, existing corpora	dialectologists survey people through interviews and compile maps; existing corpora can be analysed

The Observer's paradox article adds the problem in practice: a fieldworker observing a speaker's everyday vernacular in an interview may find the speaker shifts to a more formal register,

because the speaker knows the speech will be used for research. The data then fails to reflect normal speech, and the speaker would talk differently if the researcher were absent. (Chapter 4's style-shifting is exactly why this matters.)

Design a Small Study

The checklist below is **my own** way of turning the course's ideas into a plan; the sources above list the methods but do not give this checklist.

1. **Pick a variable.** One feature with two or more forms, such as the ING ending or the T/D deletion from Chapter 1.
2. **Pick the social factor.** Class, age, gender, style, or audience (Chapters 3, 4 and 5).
3. **Pick a method and name its weak point.** An interview risks formal speech; an existing corpus was not collected for your question.
4. **Decide how you will count.** Count how often each form appears in each style, and compare. The Sociolinguistics article describes Labov's variationist work as focused on "the quantitative analysis of variation and change within languages".
5. **Say what would change your mind.** What result would show your guess is wrong?

Worked outline (invented, for practice): *Question:* does a speaker use more of one form of the ING ending when reading aloud than in a casual story? *Method:* record the same people reading a list and telling a memorable event, then compare counts. *Weak point:* people who know they are recorded may be more careful in both tasks, so the gap could be understated. *Would change my mind:* no difference between the two tasks.

Reading someone else's study

- How was the speech collected, and could the observer's paradox have changed it?
- Does the claim describe a group, or is it being applied to an individual? (The Linguistic discrimination article, in Chapter 8, reports findings about perceived intelligence; a perception is not a measurement of ability.)
- Is a strong word ("only", "no evidence", "success") the source's own judgment? (Chapters 6 and 9 flagged examples.)
- Is the figure an estimate with a wide range (Chapter 9's 50% to 90%, Chapter 8's Esperanto counts)?

Ethics of Recording Speakers

Wikipedia's Observer's paradox and Sociolinguistics pages say nothing about ethics, so this section rests on the Informed consent article, which is general to research (clinical examples dominate it), not specific to linguistics.

IDEA	WHAT THE PAGE SAYS
Informed consent	"a person must have sufficient information and understanding before making decisions about accepting risk"
Three components	disclosure (the information needed and checking the person understands it), capacity (able to understand it and reason about consequences), voluntariness (free from coercion, manipulation or undue influence)
When consent is waived	social science research sometimes waives consent when knowing about the study would change the behaviour being studied, subject to ethics committee or IRB review
Children	generally lack competence for fully informed consent, so parents or guardians typically give "informed permission" and minors may be asked for assent; rules differ by jurisdiction (the "mature minor" or Gillick standard in England, Australia and Canada)
Background	the Nuremberg Code "set a base international standard in 1947"

WATCH OUT: THIS IS A PRINCIPLE, NOT LEGAL ADVICE

The observer's paradox creates pressure to record people without telling them, and the page notes that consent can be waived in social science under committee review. That is a decision for an ethics committee, not for you alone. The Informed consent page says little about confidentiality or withdrawal in research (only that dynamic consent makes withdrawing easier), so I give no rules on those; for any real project, follow your institution's ethics process and the law where you are.

Course Recap

CHAPTER	CORE IDEA
1 Language in Society	sociolinguistics studies how language varies with people and situations; variables and methods
2 Dialect and Accent	dialect, accent and idiolect; the standard; language versus dialect; dialect continua

CHAPTER	CORE IDEA
3 Who You Are	sociolect, class and gender; the four models of gender and speech; AAVE
4 Style and Register	register, style-shifting, audience design and accommodation
5 Prestige and Change	overt and covert prestige, hypercorrection, the history of rhoticity
6 Many Languages in One Mind	multilingualism, code-switching, diglossia
7 Contact Languages	pidgins, creoles, mixed languages
8 Standards and Attitudes	how standards are made, linguistic discrimination, language planning
9 Endangerment and Revival	language shift, endangered languages, revitalization

One thread runs through all of it: **variation is patterned**, and the patterns follow social facts such as who is speaking, to whom, and with what prestige. That sentence is my summary of the course, not a quotation.

NOTE ON SOURCES

This chapter uses Wikipedia's Sociolinguistics (read to 100,000 of 110,102 characters, so the last part, which the fetch tool reported as navigation boxes, was not read), Observer's paradox (a short stub, read in full) and Informed consent (read to 100,000 of 138,210; it was cut off partway through the references) articles. The Observer's paradox page does not mention the "danger of death" question, group sessions or rapid anonymous observation, and has no ethics section; the Sociolinguistics page offers group interviews and narratives of memorable events instead. The Informed consent page's coverage of the Declaration of Helsinki and the Belmont Report is only a link, so I do not describe them. The study checklist, the worked outline and the recap thread are mine.

Try It Yourself

EXERCISE 1

Using the checklist, outline a small study of your own: a variable, a social factor, a method, its weak point, and what result would change your mind. Keep it to five short lines.

View solution

EXERCISE 2

You want to record teenagers at a school without telling them, so their speech is natural. Using the Informed consent page, say what is wrong with the idea, what the page says about waiving consent, and who decides.

View solution

EXERCISE 3

A news story says "a study proves people from region X speak badly". List four questions from this chapter's critical-reading list that you would ask before believing it.

View solution

CHAPTER 10 QUICK REFERENCE

- Observer's paradox: the goal is unobserved speech, but data needs observation
- Methods: sociolinguistic interview (foundational), participant observation, recordings, matched-guise tests, dialect surveys, corpora
- Design: variable, social factor, method and weak point, counting, what would change your mind
- Consent: disclosure, capacity, voluntariness; waiver in social science needs ethics review

COURSE COMPLETE

You have finished **Sociolinguistics: Language, Dialect and Society**. If you want to carry on, *Writing Systems of the World* is a planned course that has not yet been outlined, so it has no chapters yet.