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DEPARTAMENTUL LINGVICĂ GERMANICĂ  
ȘI COMUNICARE INTERCULTURALĂ

Svetlana CORCEVSCHI,  
Viorica LIFARI, Tatiana ȚEPLIC

**Soziolinguistik  
der deutschen und englischen  
Sprachen**

**Sociolinguistics in the German and  
English Languages**

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**SUPPORT DE CURS**

*Aprobat de  
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**Recenzenți:** *Victor Chiseliov, doctor în filologie,  
conferențiar universitar, UPS „I. Creangă”*  
*Inga Stoianova, doctor în filologie,  
conferențiar universitar, ULIM*  
*Oxana Creanga, doctor în filologie,  
conferențiar universitar*

Suportul de curs “**Sociolingvistica limbilor germană și engleză**” este elaborat conform curriculumului actual la aceste discipline. Cursul este destinat studenților ciclului I, Licență, de la domeniul general de studii Științe ale Educației, specialitățile *Limba germană și engleză* și *Limba engleză și franceză*, și este predat în limbile germană și engleză corespunzător. De asemenea pot beneficia de acest curs și studenții care învață limbile germană și engleză ca idiom de bază și cei care își propun să studieze aceste limbi în mod opțional.

Cursul presupune familiarizarea cu specificul funcționării limbilor germanice contemporane în societate și metodele de investigare ale limbii utilizate în domeniul sociolingvisticii. Obiectivele cursului sunt axate pe aprofundarea cunoștințelor studenților despre limbă și funcția ei în societate, politica de planificare a limbii, factorii ce influențează utilizarea diferitelor registre ale limbii, variații sociale și geografice, dar și uzul individual al limbajului, cum ar fi: identitatea lingvistică, conștiința lingvistică, ideologia lingvistică, prestigiul limbii.

Cursul constă din unități urmate de diverse exerciții de comprehensiune, aplicare și integrare a cunoștințelor obținute. Fiecare unitate are o structură omogenă, începându-se cu obiective și este alcătuită din conspecte elaborate în baza manualelor moderne de sociolingvistică.

Suportul de curs se încheie cu modele de teste, propuneri de proiecte pentru lucru individual și o listă bibliografică.

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# EINHEIT 1. Soziolinguistik als Teildisziplin der Sprachwissenschaft

## 1.1. Soziolinguistik als Sprachwissenschaft

### Feinziele der Vorlesung:

Fz1 – Gegenstand der Soziolinguistik feststellen und erklären können;

Fz2 – die wichtigsten Soziolinguisten nennen und ihre

Anwendungsbereiche bestimmen können;

Fz3 - Fragestellung der Soziolinguistik definieren und zusammenfassen können;

Fz4 - Themen der Soziolinguistik nennen und sie beschreiben können;

Fz5 – frei zum Thema sprechen und eigene Meinung äußern können.

Die Soziolinguistik ist eine Teildisziplin der Sprachwissenschaft, die Sprache und Sprachgebrauch im Kontext von Gesellschaft und Kultur untersucht. Sie entstand in den sechziger Jahren des 20. Jahrhunderts. Die Soziolinguistik ist als eine interdisziplinäre, eigenständige Disziplin noch sehr jung. Sie untersucht einerseits Probleme der Einwirkung der Gesellschaft auf die Sprache, andererseits jedoch auch den Einfluss der Sprache auf das Funktionieren und die Entwicklung der Gesellschaft.

Die Soziolinguistik steht in enger Beziehung zur Angewandten Linguistik und zur Allgemeinen Linguistik. Die Soziolinguistik hat enge Verbindung mit der Soziologie, der Anthropologie, der Sozialpsychologie und der Erziehungswissenschaft.

Der Ausdruck wurde erstmals im Englischen als *Sociolinguistics* im Jahr 1952 von Haver C. Currie in seinem Werk *Projection of Sociolinguistics: Relationship of Speech to Social Status* verwendet.

Der eigentliche Beginn der Soziolinguistik geht auf die Arbeiten von Basil Bernstein in den 1960er Jahren zurück, der die Sprache der sozialen Unterschicht sowie der Mittel- und Oberschicht untersuchte.

Der Linguist Hugo Steger betrachtete 1973 die Variabilität in Sprachen und in welchen Formen sie allgemein auftraten.

Der deutsche Soziolinguist Norbert Dittmar untersuchte zur gleichen Zeit die gesellschaftlichen Bedingungen und die Anwendung linguistischer und sozialwissenschaftlicher Methoden.

## **Mikrosoziolinguistik und Makrosoziolinguistik**

Eine wichtige Unterscheidung innerhalb der Soziolinguistik ist die zwischen Mikrosoziolinguistik und Makrosoziolinguistik.

Die **Mikrosoziolinguistik** untersucht Sprachvariation und bezieht diese auf soziale Variablen: sie bringt Unterschiede in Aussprache, Wortgebrauch und Grammatik in Zusammenhang mit Variablen wie soziale Klasse, Geschlecht, Alter, Religion und ethnische oder regionale Herkunft.

Die **Makrosoziolinguistik** beschäftigt sich mit der Interaktion zwischen Sprache und Gesellschaft. Ihre Aufmerksamkeit richtet sich vor allem auf die Sprachwahl und deren sozialen, psychologischen und politischen Hintergrund. Untersuchungsgegenstand ist zum Beispiel der Prozess von Sprachwechsel im Fall von Migration oder die Sprachpolitik in Mehrheits-Minderheits-Kontexten.

Ein bekannter Vertreter der Makrosoziolinguistik ist der amerikanische Sprachsoziologe **Joshua Fishman**. Er untersuchte, in welchen Situationen Mitglieder der puertoricanischen Sprachgemeinschaft in den Vereinigten Staaten Spanisch sprechen und in welchen Situationen sie dem Englischen den Vorzug geben. Fishman war der erste, der den Begriff *domain* (Domäne) in der Bedeutung von

'Sprachgebrauchssituation (zum Beispiel Familie, Nachbarschaft, Kirche, Schule...) gebrauchte, und er formulierte eine der Kernfragen der (Makro-) Soziolinguistik: *Wer spricht welche Sprache wie und wann mit wem unter welchen sozialen Umständen und mit welchen Absichten und Konsequenzen?*

## **Themen der Soziolinguistik**

Die Soziolinguistik beschäftigt sich mit konkreten Themen, die vielfach auch andere linguistische Disziplinen berühren. Vorrangige Fragen sind:

- Zweispracherwerb (etwa von Migranten)
- Mehrsprachigkeit
- Sprachwandel: soziale Faktoren des Sprachwandels
- Öffentlicher Sprachgebrauch: Sprache in Politik, Medien und Werbung, Prestige von Sprachen ...
- Dialektologie: Verteilung von Varietäten (Standardsprache, Dialekte, Regiolekte ...)
- Varietätenlinguistik: Soziolekte, Sprachkontakt
- Fachsprachenforschung: Entstehung und Verbreitung von Fachterminologie

Bei der Untersuchung von Sprache im Zusammenhang mit gesellschaftlichen Faktoren sind besonders diese von Bedeutung: Soziale Schichtung/ Klasse, Alter, Geschlecht, Bildung, soziale Gruppe (Sondersprachen), soziale Rolle (soziale Stellung ...).

### **►Fragen zum Thema:**

1. Was untersucht die Soziolinguistik?
2. Wo wurde der Ausdruck der Soziolinguistik zum ersten Mal verwendet?
3. Was untersuchte die deutsche Soziolinguistik?

4. Mit welchen Disziplinen steht die Soziolinguistik im engen Kontakt?
5. Was untersucht die Mikrosoziolinguistik?
6. Was untersucht die Makrosoziolinguistik?
7. Wie lautet die Kernfrage der Soziolinguistik?
8. Mit welchen Themen beschäftigt sich die Soziolinguistik?

### ► Aufgaben zum Thema:

**1. Schreiben Sie die Wörter in die richtigen Lücken! Erklären Sie den Begriff „Soziolinguistik“ mit eigenen Worten!**

**Zusammenhänge Gesellschaft Beziehung Faktoren Geschlecht Merkmale Kontext Ausbildung untersuchen Sprachgebrauch außersprachliche Sprecher**

#### **Was ist die Soziolinguistik?**

Die Soziolinguistik \_\_\_\_\_ die Sprache und den Sprachgebrauch im \_\_\_\_\_ von Gesellschaft und Kultur. Sie beschäftigt sich mit der Frage, inwieweit gesellschaftliche und soziale \_\_\_\_\_ und Sprache bzw. \_\_\_\_\_ einander beeinflussen. Sie untersucht die \_\_\_\_\_ zwischen Sprache und \_\_\_\_\_ und die Art und Weise, auf welche bestimmte \_\_\_\_\_ sich ihrer Sprache bedienen. Dabei spielen auch viele \_\_\_\_\_ Faktoren wie beispielsweise Alter, \_\_\_\_\_, Schicht oder Berufszugehörigkeit und \_\_\_\_\_ der Sprecher eine Rolle. So versucht diese Wissenschaft, die charakteristischen \_\_\_\_\_ des Sprachgebrauchs bestimmter Sprecher auszumachen und sie in \_\_\_\_\_ zu dessen Lebensumständen zu setzen.

**2. Lesen Sie die folgenden Begriffe. Ordnen Sie die richtige Definition zu. Notieren Sie den richtigen Buchstaben in der letzten Spalte.**

1	Angewandte Linguistik	a	ist die Lehre von der Gesellschaft und erforscht sowohl theoretisch als auch empirisch das soziale Verhalten der Menschen.	1
2	Allgemeine Linguistik	b	bezeichnet die Lehre von der Natur bzw. vom Wesen des Menschen.	2
3	Soziologie	c	befasst sich mit menschlichem Verhalten und Erleben im sozialen Kontext	3
4	Anthropologie	d	beschäftigt sich in erster Linie mit der menschlichen Sprache insgesamt als natürliches System, befasst sich also grundsätzlich nicht mit Einzelsprachen als solchen, sondern mit allgemeinen Merkmalen und Funktionen von Sprache.	4
5	Sozialpsychologie	e	befasst sich mit den Bereichen Bildung und Erziehung	5
6	Erziehungswissenschaft	f	ist ein spezifischer Sammelbegriff, der alle die linguistischen Themenbereiche umfasst, die bei der Bewältigung praktischer Aufgaben helfen können.	6

### 3. Was untersuchten die folgenden Soziolinguisten?

1. Haver C. Currie	
2. Basil Bernstein	
3. Hugo Steger	
4. Norbert Dittmar	
5. Joshua Fishman	

**4. Lesen Sie die folgenden Begriffe. Ordnen Sie diese Begriffe zur Mikro- oder Makrosoziolinguistik. Schreiben Sie mit Hilfe dieser Begriffe: Was untersucht die Mikrosoziolinguistik? Was untersucht die Makrosoziolinguistik?**



soziale Variablen Alter Unterschiede in Wortgebrauch Klasse politischer Hintergrund Interaktion Religion Gesellschaft Unterschiede in Grammatik Sprachwahl, psychologischer Hintergrund Sprachvariation Unterschiede in Aussprache Sprache sozialer Hintergrund Geschlecht

Mikrosoziolinguistik	Makrosoziolinguistik

**5. Lesen Sie die folgenden Begriffe. Ordnen Sie die richtige Definition zu. Notieren Sie den richtigen Buchstaben in der letzten Spalte.**

1	Zweitspracherwerb	a	ist Teilgebiet der Sprachwissenschaft, das sich mit der Erforschung der Mundarten beschäftigt	1
2	Mehrsprachigkeit	b	ist die geltende Sprache für ein bestimmtes Fachgebiet oder für eine bestimmte Branche.	2
3	Dialektologie	c	bezeichnet die Veränderung oder Entwicklung einer Sprache	3
4	Varietätenlinguistik	d	Anwendung der Sprache in Äußerungen.	4
5	Sprachwandel	e	verweist auf die Nutzung von zwei oder mehreren Sprachen in Kommunikationssituationen.	5
6	Sprachgebrauch	f	befasst sich mit den vielfältigen Formen beziehungsweise Variationen innerhalb einer Sprache.	6
7	Fachsprache	g	beschreibt den Prozess, bei dem eine zweite oder weitere Sprache nach der	7

		Erstsprache erworben wird.	
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**6. Welche Begriffe haben gleiche Bedeutung? Geben Sie die Erklärung mit eigenen Worten.**

Mundart Sprachdynamik Polyglossie Dialekt Varietätenlinguistik  
Fachsprache Sprachwandel Zweisprachigkeit Bilinguismus  
Terminologie Mehrsprachigkeit Variationslinguistik

## 1.2. Soziolinguistik als Varietätenlinguistik

### Feinziele der Vorlesung:

Fz1 - Gegenstand der Varietätenlinguistik bestimmen können;

Fz2 - das Forschungsgebiet der Varietätenlinguistik nennen und erklären können;

Fz3 - standardisierte Varietäten (Standardsprachen einer Einzelsprache) und nicht standardisierte Varietäten (Dialekt, Mundart, Regionalsprache, Soziolekt, Umgangssprache) klassifizieren und unterscheiden können:

Fz4 – das „soziolinguistische Varietätenmodell“ analysieren können;

Fz5 – frei zum Thema sprechen und eigene Meinung äußern können.

### Gegenstand der Varietätenlinguistik

Die Varietätenlinguistik ist eine Teildisziplin der Soziolinguistik innerhalb der angewandten Linguistik und befasst sich mit den vielfältigen Formen beziehungsweise Variationen innerhalb einer Sprache. Sie versucht die unterschiedlichen Varietäten mit außersprachlichen Faktoren wie Alter, Geschlecht oder sozialer Zugehörigkeit in Beziehung zu setzen und betrachtet auch die Veränderung des Sprachgebrauchs.

**Eine Varietät** ist in der Linguistik eine Teilmenge einer Einzelsprache, die eine Einzelsprache ergänzt oder modifiziert, jedoch nicht unabhängig von dieser existieren kann. Von Varietät spricht man jedoch nur, wenn die Sprachform einer untersuchten Gruppe eindeutige sprachliche Gemeinsamkeiten aufweist.

Auch die Standardsprache beziehungsweise Hochsprache ist eine Varietät: jene, die sich durch den Gebrauch als Schriftsprache und hinsichtlich Grammatik und Aussprache als Sprachnorm definiert. Man unterscheidet standardisierte Varietäten (Standardsprachen einer Einzelsprache) und nicht

standardisierte Varietäten (Dialekt, Mundart, Regionalsprache, Soziolekt, Umgangssprache).

### **Aus der Geschichte der Varietätenlinguistik**

Die Sprache ist nicht etwas Festes, sondern existiert (aus synchroner Sicht) in bestimmten Varietäten. Erste, sehr frühe Klassifizierungen der Varietäten der deutschen Sprache charakterisierten Gemeinsprache, Fachsprache, Wissenschaftssprache, Nachrichtensprache, Schulsprache oder Predigtsprache.

Man untersuchte in der Linguistik lange Zeit nur den Unterschied zwischen einer normierten Schriftsprache, die als Standard galt, und einer gesprochenen, mündlichen Kommunikation, die oft als ungebildet, verdorben oder abgenutzt bewertet wurde.

Im Laufe der Zeit wurde der Forschungsgegenstand jedoch breiter und die Sprachvarietäten wurden zum festen Forschungsgegenstand der Linguistik. In den frühen sprachsoziologischen Untersuchungen wurden z. B. Sprachen von Ober- und Unterschicht oder die Sprachunterschiede zwischen Dorf und Stadt verglichen und erforscht. Neue Impulse zur Beschreibung räumlich bedingter Sprachvariation lieferte dann auch seit Mitte der 60er Jahre des 20. Jahrhunderts die amerikanische Bilingualismus-Forschung. Zu nennen ist hier der Name William Labov, ein amerikanischer Linguist, der vor allem Sprachvariation und Sprachwandel erforschte.

Im deutschsprachigen Raum versuchte Karl Bühler einen wichtigen Beitrag zu leisten und schrieb den sprachlichen Zeichen folgende Funktionen zu:

- Darstellungsfunktion
- Ausdrucksfunktion
- Appellfunktion

Der Sprachwissenschaftler R. Jakobson hat den genannten drei Funktionen noch drei weitere hinzugefügt und alle neu benannt.

Diese amerikanischen Untersuchungen beeinflussten die Bundesrepublik Deutschland. Nach 1970 sind Untersuchungen in Städten oder Dörfern entstanden und diese Tradition dauert im deutschsprachigen Raum bis heute.

### **Das Forschungsgebiet der Varietätenlinguistik**

Die Forschung der Varietätenlinguistik wird in den Mikrobereich der soziolinguistischen Forschung eingegliedert, wo ihr Schwerpunkt auf dem Gebrauch und der Funktion von – lekten (wie Dialekten, Soziolekten und Regiolekten) liegt.

Varietätenlinguistik ist eine Wissenschaft mit Blick auf die Gegenwartssprache, die Sprache mit dem Ziel untersucht, Unterschiede und Gründe für diese Unterschiede innerhalb einer Sprache herauszuarbeiten, also warum bestimmte Sprecher spezifische Variationen verwenden oder über diese verfügen.

Es wird zwischen sozialen Varietäten wie zum Beispiel Jugendsprache und funktionalen Varietäten wie zum Beispiel Fachsprache, Unternehmenssprache oder Werbesprache unterschieden.

Es ist klar, Sprecher verschiedener Altersgruppen sind im Gespräch mit Vertrauenspersonen oder in informellen Situationen in der Lage, die Standardsprache durch den Dialekt oder die regionale Umgangssprache zu ersetzen. Die Beherrschung eines Dialekts vorausgesetzt, kann der Variantenwechsel schlagartig (code-switching) oder aber allmählicher (code-shifting) geschehen (Schwitalla 1997, S. 44).

Als Folge dieser Tendenzen sieht heutzutage die Situation so aus, dass sich die Varietätenlinguistik auf

Ortssprachenforschungen (im Endeffekt auf Stadtsprachen) konzentriert.

Eine systematische Erforschung der Jugensprache stützt sich so oft heute auf diese Untersuchungen, die aus der Sicht der Geschichte eher zu Soziolinguistik oder Varietätenlinguistik schwer einzuordnen sind.

### **Das soziolinguistische Varietätenmodell**

Um Gegenstand der Varietätenlinguistik klar festzulegen, muss man davon ausgehen, dass die „Gesamtsprache“ keine homogene Einheit ist. Es handelt sich vielmehr um eine Summe von Varietäten.

Das klassische Modell, nach dem als eine Übergangszone zwischen den reinen Formen der Hochsprache und traditionellen Dialekten die Umgangssprache betrachtet wird, nimmt man nicht mehr an. Um differenziertes Sprachverhalten von Sprechern analysieren und beschreiben zu können, hat man einen systematischen Ansatz entwickelt, das sogenannte „soziolinguistische Varietätenmodell“, das Gegenstand der Varietätenlinguistik darstellt. Das soziolinguistische Varietätenmodell dient zur Erforschung systematisch variierenden Sprachverhaltens der Menschen unter bestimmten Bedingungen. Diese Merkmale werden im Hinblick von Zeit, Raum, soziale Schicht und soziale Situation beschrieben. In diesem soziolinguistischen Varietätenmodell kommen Standardvarietäten mit folgenden Merkmalen vor:

- überregionale Merkmale oder Diatopische Varietäten (dialektale, Dialekte, Regiolekte) – Sie entsprechen der unterschiedlichen geographischen Verteilung.
- obergesellschaftliche Merkmale oder Diastratische (soziolektale) Varietäten – Sie werden von den verschiedenen sozialen Gruppen benutzt.

- Diaphasische (situative) Varietäten - Sie werden in unterschiedlichen Situationen verwendet - in Bezug auf den kommunikativen Kontext, Intention, "Wie möchte der Sprecher beim Gegenüber erscheinen.")
- Diachronische (historische) Varietäten - Sie beziehen sich auf unterschiedliche Zeitabschnitte im Laufe der Sprachentwicklung.

Für diastratische Varietäten sind dabei Identität der Sprecher (beispielsweise Jugendsprache, Idiolekt, Frauensprache, Mannersprache) und Zugehörigkeit zu einer Schicht oder Gruppe (Soziolekt) ausschlaggebend. Diaphasische Varietäten sind durch funktionelle und situative Orientierung gekennzeichnet (z. B. Fachsprachen, Umgangssprache).

Im deutschen Sprachraum zum Beispiel existiert das Standarddeutsch in mehreren nationalen Varietäten, die von drei gleichwertigen Vollzentren mit eigenen Kodizes – Schweiz (Schweizer Hochdeutsch mit Helvetismen), Österreich (Österreichisches Deutsch mit Austriazismen) und Deutschland (Bundesdeutsches Hochdeutsch mit Teutonismen) – sowie in vier Halbzentren in Belgien, Italien (Südtirol), Liechtenstein und Luxemburg bestimmt werden.

### »Fragen zum Thema:

1. Womit befasst sich die Varietätenlinguistik?
2. Was bedeutet die Varietät?
3. Welche Merkmale hat das soziolinguistische Varietätenmodell?
4. Welche Varietäten existieren im Standarddeutsch?

## ► Aufgaben zum Thema:

**Finde die Antworten zu den folgenden Fragen. (Schreib die richtige Zahl in die Lücke.)**

### **1. In welchem Land bzw. welchen Ländern benutzt man welche Variante?**

#### **1) Januar, 2) Jänner:**

- in Österreich und Südtirol,
- in Deutschland

#### **2) Coiffeur, 2) Frisör:**

- in der Schweiz,
- in Deutschland, Österreich und Südtirol

#### **3) Fleischer, 2) Metzger:**

- in Deutschland,
- in Südtirol und der Schweiz

#### **4) Tüte, 2) Sackerl:**

- in Deutschland,
- in Österreich

#### **5) Rahm, 2) Sahne:**

- in Österreich, Süddeutschland und der Schweiz,
- in Norddeutschland

### **2. Wo könnten die folgenden Zeitungstexte herkommen?**

a) Costa-Kapitän Schettino klagt gegen Entlassung Francesco Schettino, Kapitän des am 13. Jänner havarierten Kreuzfahrtschiffes Costa Concordia, geht nun selbst vor Gericht: Er klagt die Betreibergesellschaft des Luxusliners, die ihn im Juli nach einem Disziplinarverfahren entlassen hatte, auf Wiedereinstellung.



**A Österreich**

**B Deutschland**

**C Schweiz**

b) Unsere Coiffeure sind die Besten Bei der Weltmeisterschaft für Coiffeure in Mailand haben zwei Jungcoiffeure aus Gold und Silber für den besten Trendhaarschnitt für Damen gewonnen. Den ersten Platz belegte zudem bei der Teamwertung.

**A Österreich**

**B Deutschland**

**C Schweiz**

**3. Verstehst du, was die folgenden Ausdrücke aus dem Schweizer Standarddeutschen bedeuten?**

**Trottoir:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Velo:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Znüni:** \_\_\_\_\_

**4. Die deutsche Standardsprache ist nicht überall gleich. Was ist richtig, was ist falsch?**

Welche Wörter werden in Österreich verwendet? Was trifft in Aussprache und Grammatik auf das Standarddeutsche in Österreich zu?

**Wortschatz:**

Topfen - Abendbrot – Marille – Faschiertes – Halbmittag – Obers – Blumenkohl – Eierschwammerl – Pfifferlinge – Karfiol – Velo – zeuseln – Beiried – Quark – Nachtmahl – Powidl

**Aussprache:**

Mathem**at**ik – Mathem**at**ik Kaff**ee** – Kaff**e**e das in Chemie, China wie K [k]– das in Chemie, China wie Ch [ç]

**Grammatik:**

ich bin gelegen, gesessen, gestanden – ich habe gelegen, gesessen, gestanden die E-Mail – das E-Mail

**5. Im Text werden mehrere Gründe genannt, warum sogenannte Austriazismen, also typisch österreichische Wörter, verschwinden. Welche?**

**Österreich grüßt Gott nicht mehr**

Hallo statt Servus heißt es in Wien und anderen Regionen Österreichs nun häufiger. Dies haben Sprachexperten festgestellt. Sie fürchten das Aussterben der Austriazismen. Die österreichische Sprache ist auf dem Rückzug, weil sie vom Standarddeutschen aus dem Norden verdrängt wird. Das zumindest zeigt eine Untersuchung des emeritierten Germanistik-Professors Peter Wiesinger. Der Wiener Sprachwissenschaftler ließ Studenten Bilder betiteln.

Ein Drittel schrieb statt der österreichischen Stiege den in Deutschland üblichen Begriff Treppe. Statt Kassa hieß es Kasse, statt ein Einser oft eine Eins. Zwar hört man in Wien zur Begrüßung weiterhin Grüß Gott und Servus. Aber bei der Arbeit oder in Kneipen rufen viele lieber ein schnelles Hallo. Zum Abschied heißt es immer öfter Tschüss und nicht mehr Baba (Betonung hinten)

„Die Ursachen sind die Medien und ihr Einfluss, synchronisierte Filme und das Internet“, sagt Wiesinger. Dazu gehörten auch Bücher und Zeitschriften. „Grundsätzlich ist die Jugendsprache eher englisch und norddeutsch geprägt“, erklärt der Germanist. Er befürchtet das Aussterben der Austriazismen, also spezifischer Begriffe, die nur in Österreich verwendet werden. Vor einigen Jahren verfasste der Journalist Robert Sedlaczek ein Kleines Handbuch der bedrohten Wörter Österreichs. Kürzlich beklagte er: „Wir sind eine aussterbende Sprache. Was sich zurzeit abspielt, kann nur so beschrieben werden: Die Vielfalt wird eingeebnet, die Sprache verfällt.“

## 1.3. Sprachgemeinschaft

### Feinziele der Vorlesung:

Fz1 – Sprachgemeinschaft in der Sprachwissenschaft bestimmen können;

Fz2 - Formen der Sprache beschreiben und unterscheiden können;

Fz3 – den Begriff Dialekt definieren, deutsche und österreichische Dialekte nennen können;

Fz4 - Soziolekt als Form der Sprache charakterisieren und die Arten der Soziolekte klassifizieren können;

Fz5 – Idiolekt definieren und Unterschiede zwischen Soziolekt und Idiolekt nennen können;

Fz6 – frei zum Thema sprechen und eigene Meinung äußern können.

Sprachgemeinschaft wird in der Sprachwissenschaft bzw. Linguistik eine bestimmte gemeinsame Sprache einer Gruppe genannt, die in sozialem Kontakt steht. So kann auch in einer relativ kleinen Gruppe eine ganz individuelle Sprache erfunden und weiterentwickelt und gepflegt werden. (z.B. Sotiolekt) Auch innerhalb eines kleinen geographischen Gebietes mehrere verschiedene Sprachgemeinschaften (Dialekte) entwickelt werden, deren gemeinsame Sprache z.B. eine Hochsprache ist.

Die Gesamtheit aller muttersprachlichen Sprecher einer Sprache (Nationalsprache) wird ebenfalls als Sprachgemeinschaft bezeichnet.

Voraussetzung für die Verständigung innerhalb einer Sprachgemeinschaft ist die gemeinsam verwendete Struktur eines lebendigen Sprachsystems und Sprachgebrauch, die in ihrer Bedeutung allen Sprechern bekannt ist.

### Formen der Sprache

Es werden die geschriebene Form einerseits und gesprochene Form der Sprache andererseits unterschieden.

Die geschriebene Sprache wird indirekt verwendet. Beim Schreiben verwendet man normalerweise die Standardsprache. Welche Funktion die geschriebene Sprache hat, wird im Duden – Standardwerk zu Grammatik folgendermaßen beschrieben: *„Die Grundfunktion des Schreibens ist nicht die Verständigung in einer Situation, sondern die Übermittlung von Informationen im Raum und Zeit hinweg.“*

Im Vergleich dazu ist die gesprochene Sprache situationsbedingt und einzigartig, d. h. nie wieder werden ganz genau die Wörter, Sätze, noch dazu in der gleichen Reihenfolge ausgedrückt.

Zuerst existierte das Sprechen und erst danach entstand das Schreiben. Mit der Erfindung des Buchdrucks nahm das Geschriebene sehr stark zu.

Es gibt verschiedene Erscheinungsformen der Sprache. Die oberste Form wird die als die Hochsprache bezeichnet. Die Hochsprache, auch Standardsprache oder Schriftsprache genannt, ist die geregelte Form der Sprache. Sie wird in den Schulen unterrichtet, in den Ämtern und in allen offiziellen Institutionen verwendet. In der deutschen Sprache wird sie traditionell Hochdeutsch, Hochsprache, genannt. Dieser Termin lässt sich in zwei Bedeutungen verstehen. In der ersten Variante erhielt sich die soziologische Wertung der Schriftsprache. Diese Sprache wurde von den höheren Schichten der Gesellschaft verwendet, deswegen Hochdeutsch. Die andere Bedeutung ist die Bezeichnung für alle Dialekte, die dem mittel- und oberdeutschen Raum angehören.

## **Die Umgangssprache**

Die weitere Schicht des Sprachsystems nimmt die Umgangssprache ein. Diese Form der Sprache wird in den alltäglichen Situationen verwendet. Sie steht zwischen der

Standardsprache und den Dialekten. Diese Form richtet sich in der Regel nach der Standardsprache, sie unterscheidet sich meistens „durch regionale Färbung in der Lautform“, es werden aber auch dialektale Ausdrücke verwendet. In den deutschsprachigen Ländern gibt es mehrere Umgangssprachen. Es können entweder solche sein, die sich mehr zu der Standardsprache nähern, die einheitlicher sind oder solche, die sehr stark regional gefärbt sind und viele dialektale Merkmale aufweisen. Die Umgangssprache ist die am häufigsten verwendete Sprache in der gegenwärtigen Kommunikation.

### **Dialekte/Mundarten**

Der Begriff Dialekt stammte aus den griechischen Wörtern *dialogomai* (miteinander reden, sich unterhalten) oder *dialektos* (ein Gespräch unter zwei Menschen). Synonym zu „Dialekt“ wird auch der Begriff „Mundart“ verwendet. Es gibt viele Gebiete, auf denen sich zwei oder mehrere Dialekte vermischen. Solche Gebiete nennt man als Übergangsbereiche. Mit den Dialekten beschäftigt sich die Sprachwissenschaft Dialektologie.

Deutsche Dialekte werden traditionell vor allem nach den lautlichen Kriterien in zwei große Gruppen eingeteilt. Man unterscheidet das Niederdeutsche und das Hochdeutsche. Nördlich von der Linie zwischen Düsseldorf und Frankfurt an der Oder werden die niederdeutschen und südlich von dieser Linie die hochdeutschen Dialekte gesprochen. Hochdeutsch gliedert sich noch weiter auf das Mitteldeutsche und das Oberdeutsche:

#### **Übersicht der deutschen Dialekte:**

Oberdeutsch	Oberfränkisch	Südfränkisch Ostfränkisch
	Bairisch	Nord-, Mittel-,

		Südbairisch
	Alemannisch	Schwäbisch Niederalemannisch Hochalemannisch
Mitteldeutsch	Westmitteldeutsch	Nordmittelfränkisch Westfränkisch Rheinfränkisch
	Ostmitteldeutsch	Thüringisch Obersächsisch
Niederdeutsch	Westniederdeutsch	Nordniedersächsisch Schleswigisch-Holsteinisch, West- und Ostfälisch Niederfränkisch
	Ostniederdeutsch	Mecklenburgisch- Vorpommerisch Brandenburgisch-märkisch

## Österreichische Dialekte

Der größte Anteil von den österreichischen Dialekten gehört zu der Gruppe der bairischen Dialekte, die Ausnahme bildet nur das Bundesland Vorarlberg, wo sich das alemannische Sprachgebiet befindet. Die Dialekte in Vorarlberg unterscheiden sich von den anderen Dialekten so extrem, dass sie die Menschen aus den bairischen Gebieten mit großen Schwierigkeiten oder gar nicht verstehen.

### Übersicht der österreichischen Dialektgruppen:

Mittelbairisch (mittelbairisch-österreichisch)	Oberösterreich, Niederösterreich, Wien, Großteil von Salzburg und ein kleinerer Teil von Steiermark
Südbairisch (südbairisch- österreichisch)	Tirol, Kärnten und der Hauptteil von Steiermark und Salzburg
Alemannisch	Vorarlberg

## Soziolekt

Soziolekt ist die Form der Sprache, die für eine Gruppe von Menschen gemeinsam ist und von den außersprachlichen Faktoren und Gemeinsamkeiten dieser einzigen Gruppe abhängig ist. Es existieren verschiedene Gruppensprachen – z. B. berufsspezifische Sprachen, Sprachen der Sportler (Fußballsprache, Wassersportsprache...), oder auch Sprache der Alkohol- oder Drogenabhängigen. Soziolekte werden als Varietäten verschiedener sozialen Gruppen verstanden, deren primäres Kriterium nicht die geographische Bestimmung, sondern die soziale Zugehörigkeit ist.

### Arten der Soziolekte

Soziolekt ist die Form der Sprache, die für eine Gruppe von Menschen gemeinsam ist und von den außersprachlichen Faktoren und Gemeinsamkeiten dieser einzigen Gruppe abhängig ist. Es existieren verschiedene Arten der Soziolekte:

**Symptomatische Soziolekte** sind solche, deren Sprechergruppen sich nach außersprachlichen Merkmalen definieren, die Gruppenzugehörigkeit äußert sich symptomatisch in sprachlichen Merkmalen.

Für **die konstitutiven Soziolekte** dagegen gilt, dass die sprachlichen Merkmale einer sozialen Gruppe ihr Hauptmerkmal bilden und sie somit bestimmen.

Eine dritte Gruppe bilden **die Sondersprachen**, die nicht beruflich bedingt sind. Sie werden bei Löffler als eigentliche Soziolekte bezeichnet. Die Sondersprachen werden unterschieden in transitorische, temporäre und habituelle Soziolekte.

**Transitorische Soziolekte** sind Ausprägungen eines vorübergehenden Lebensstadiums, also z.B. Schüler-, Jugend- und Studentensprache, Militär- und Soldatensprache,

Gefängnisssprache sowie allgemein die Sprachen der verschiedenen Lebensalter.

**Temporäre Soziolekte** können nur für eine kurze Zeit aufgenommen und je nach Umgebung gewechselt werden, z. B. in Sport-, Hobby-, Freizeit- und Nachtleben.

Im Gegensatz temporären Soziolekten werden **habituelle Soziolekte** dauerhaft beibehalten und zeichnen eine unbefristete Zugehörigkeit zu einer sozialen Gruppe aus.

### **Idiolekt**

Dem Soziolekt steht der Idiolekt gegenüber. Idiolekt ist das Sprachverhalten eines Individuums. Man versteht darunter die sprachlichen Fähigkeiten und Art der Äußerung jedes Individuums. Bei den Idiolekten geht es nicht um die gesamte Sprachverfahren einer Person, es geht um die *„Besonderheiten“*, *anhand deren sich Sprecher und Sprecherinnen derselben Sprachgemeinschaft unterscheiden lassen.*

#### **»Fragen zum Thema:**

1. Was ist eine Sprachgemeinschaft?
2. Wodurch ist die Umgangssprache gekennzeichnet?
3. Was ist der Dialekt?
4. Welche deutschen Dialekte gibt es?
5. Welche österreichischen Dialekte gibt es?
6. Was ist Soziolekt?
7. Was ist Idiolekt?

#### **»Aufgaben zum Thema:**

**1. Lesen Sie die folgenden Begriffe. Ordnen Sie die richtige Definition zu. Notieren Sie den richtigen Buchstaben in der letzten Spalte.**



1	die Varietät	a	typisch österreichische Ausdrücke	1
2	der Dialekt	b	typisch Schweizer Ausdrücke	2
3	das Standarddeutsch	c	Eine Sprachform innerhalb einer Sprache mit spezifischen sprachlichen Eigenheiten.	3
4	die plurizentrische Sprache	d	Die Sprache mit einer lokalen regionalen Färbung.	4
5	die Umgangssprache	e	typisch deutsche Ausdrücke	5
6	die Austriazismen	f	Die Sprache, die im Alltag benutzt wird.	6
7	die Teutonismen	g	Die standardisierten Sprachvarietäten im deutschen Sprachraum.	7
8	die Helvetismen	h	eine Sprache mit mehreren Standardvarietäten	8

**2. Schreiben Sie die Wörter in die richtigen Lücken! Erklären Sie den Begriff „Dialekt“ mit eigenen Worten!**

**wütend Standardsprache Gegend Gruppen Sprechweise Art wertvoll Sprache Mundart Redeweise unsicher Griechischen dumm**

### Dialekt

Ein Dialekt ist die \_\_\_\_\_, wie jemand eine \_\_\_\_\_ spricht. So gibt es in Deutschland die deutsche Sprache, eine \_\_\_\_\_. Viele Menschen sprechen aber oft einen der vielen Dialekte, die es im Deutschen gibt. „Dialekt“ kommt aus dem \_\_\_\_\_ und bedeutet so viel wie Gespräch oder \_\_\_\_\_. Ein deutsches Wort dafür ist „\_\_\_\_\_“. Gemeint ist die \_\_\_\_\_ der Menschen, die in einem bestimmten Gebiet leben. Der Dialekt kann von Dorf zu Dorf schon etwas unterschiedlich sein. Man fasst Dialekte aber auch in

große \_\_\_\_\_ zusammen. Ein Dialekt kann dann auch der Dialekt einer großen \_\_\_\_\_ sein, wie der Tiroler Dialekt oder der \_\_\_\_\_ sächsische \_\_\_\_\_ Dialekt. Manchmal sind die Menschen sich \_\_\_\_\_, was genau eine Sprache und was ein Dialekt ist. Einige Menschen sind richtig \_\_\_\_\_, wenn man ihre Sprache einen Dialekt nennt. Das liegt daran, dass viele Menschen einen Dialekt für weniger \_\_\_\_\_ oder \_\_\_\_\_ wichtig halten. Sie glauben sogar, dass jemand \_\_\_\_\_ ist, weil er Dialekt spricht.

**Sachsen Gruppe Köln Wissenschaftler Dialekte Österreich  
Mitteldeutsch Norddeutschland Gruppen Dialekten Grund  
Sächsisch Standarddeutschen Norden Südmeißenisch  
Dialektfreunde Landschaft Bairischen Namen Landschaften Osten  
Deutsche**

### **Welche Dialekte hat die deutsche Sprache?**

Die deutsche Sprache wird vor allem in Deutschland, \_\_\_\_\_ und der Schweiz gesprochen. Man teilt Deutsch meist in Niederdeutsch, und Oberdeutsch ein. Das Niederdeutsche in \_\_\_\_\_ gilt als eine eigene Sprache. Die meisten Norddeutschen sprechen aber Dialekte des \_\_\_\_\_. Das Standarddeutsche ist entstanden aus den mitteldeutschen und oberdeutschen

\_\_\_\_\_. Sie stammen aus dem Süden Deutschlands. Dort gibt es mehr Gebirge als im \_\_\_\_\_, darum heißt es „oberdeutsch“. Mitteldeutsche und oberdeutsche \_\_\_\_\_ zusammen nennt man die hochdeutschen Dialekte. Das ist der \_\_\_\_\_ dafür, warum unsere deutsche Standardsprache auch „Hochdeutsch“ genannt wird.

\_\_\_\_\_ haben herausgefunden, dass man die Dialekte auch gut nach Westen und \_\_\_\_\_ einteilen kann. Westmitteldeutsch sind zum Beispiel die Dialekte aus der Gegend um \_\_\_\_\_. Ostmitteldeutsche Dialekte werden etwa in Sachsen gesprochen. Viele Menschen benennen ihren Dialekt nach der \_\_\_\_\_. Das

kann aber in die Irre führen: Im Bundesland Sachsen spricht man durchaus „\_\_\_\_\_“. Eigentlich heißt es Obersächsisch. Im Süden von \_\_\_\_\_ werden Dialekte gesprochen, die eigentlich zum \_\_\_\_\_ Fränkischen \_\_\_\_\_ oder \_\_\_\_\_ gehören. Außerdem haben auch die Dialekte von ganz kleinen Gebieten manchmal eigene

\_\_\_\_\_. Obersächsisch besteht aus Voigtländisch und Meißenisch. Meißenisch wiederum ist eine \_\_\_\_\_ von fünf Dialekten: \_\_\_\_\_ Nordmeißenisch, \_\_\_\_\_ Nordostmeißenisch, Westmeißenisch, \_\_\_\_\_ und \_\_\_\_\_ Südostmeißenisch. Wissenschaftler und \_\_\_\_\_ sind sich nicht immer einig, was unbedingt ein eigener Dialekt ist oder was man in \_\_\_\_\_ zusammenfassen kann. Darum lässt sich auch schlecht sagen, wie viele Dialekte das \_\_\_\_\_ hat. Wer bei einem Dialekt an eine kleine Gegend denkt, wird sehr viele Dialekte zählen. Wer an ganze \_\_\_\_\_ denkt, kommt auf eine viel kleinere Zahl.

### **3. Schreiben Sie die Wörter in die richtigen Lücken! Erklären Sie den Begriff „Soziolekt“ mit eigenen Worten!**

**Interessen aktiv Gruppe soziale gemeinsamer verbindet spezielle geheime automatisch Sprache Dialekt Merkmale Stabilität Lateinischen Gruppe lexikalischen Sprachgebrauch gleichen**

#### **Soziolekt**

Das Wort Soziolekt kommt aus dem \_\_\_\_\_. Es bedeutet Sprachgebrauch einer sozialen \_\_\_\_\_. Das Wort wurde als Analogie zu dem Wort \_\_\_\_\_ gebildet. Hierfür wurden die \_\_\_\_\_ Morpheme *sozio-* und *-lekt* genutzt. Bei einem Soziolekt handelt es sich um den \_\_\_\_\_ einer sozialen Gruppe. Gemeint ist, wie eine sogenannte soziale \_\_\_\_\_ miteinander spricht. Diese soziale Gruppe ist nicht etwa eine Gruppe, die \_\_\_\_\_ gegründet wird, sondern entsteht oder besteht meistens automatisch und teilt gewisse \_\_\_\_\_ Kriterien miteinander.

Alle Menschen gehören \_\_\_\_\_ sozialen Gruppen an (z. B. im Sport, auf der Arbeit, in der Schule). Diese sozialen Gruppen vereinen Menschen mit \_\_\_\_\_ oder ähnlichen \_\_\_\_\_ oder Aufgaben. Jedes Individuum kann sich über verbindende \_\_\_\_\_ mit den anderen Gruppenmitgliedern identifizieren. Das geschieht nicht nur durch das Ausleben \_\_\_\_\_ Interessen, sondern auch durch die gemeinsame \_\_\_\_\_. Sprache \_\_\_\_\_ und eine spezielle Sprache verbindet \_\_\_\_\_ Personen. Eine \_\_\_\_\_ Sprache schließt sogar andere aus. Je fester der Gruppenzusammenhalt ist, desto mehr \_\_\_\_\_ und Sicherheit bietet die Gruppe.

**4. Definieren Sie die folgenden Arten der Soziolekte, geben Sie die Beispiele:**

<b>Arten der Soziolekte</b>	
<b>Symptomatische Soziolekte</b>	
<b>Konstitutive Soziolekte</b>	
<b>Transitorische Soziolekte</b>	
<b>Temporäre Soziolekte</b>	
<b>Habituelle Soziolekte</b>	

**5. Schreiben Sie ein Äquivalent in der deutschen Sprache:**

die Semmel	
der Paradeiser	
der Erdapfel	
die Ribisel	
das (Schlag-)Obers	

die Karotte	
die Marille	
die Fisolen (Pl.)	
das Faschierte / Faschiertes	
der Kren	
der Kukuruz	
das Sackerl	
der Kleiderkasten	
der Sessel	
die Melange	
die Matura	

**6. Welche Wörter werden in Österreich (A) verwendet? Welche Wörter werden in der Schweiz (CH) verwendet? Welche Wörter werden in Deutschland (D) verwendet?**

Topfen - Abendbrot – Marille - Trottoir – Faschiertes – Brötli - Halbmittag – Obers – Blumenkohl – Znüni – Helikopter - Eierschwammerl – Coiffeur- Nachtessen- Pfifferlinge – Karfiol – Velo — – Quark – Nachtmahl – Powidl- Omlette

**7. Bestimmen Sie, zu welcher Sozialgruppe dieser Dialog gehört. Welche Merkmale können Sie nennen?**

A: Tach Beni, na alles fit?

B: Logo, bei dir?

A: Ne man, Paul der Otto hat mein Handy geschrottet. So ein Schwachmaat.

B: Ja shit. Gestern bei der Party oder was?

A: Ja. Bin richtig am Arsch, wenn meine Alten das mitbekommen.

B: Cool bleiben. Kriegste schon hin. Aber megageile Party, oder?

A: Voll. Geile Mucke und so. Nächstes weekend wieder?

B: Ja nice. Bis dann, Bro.

A: Hau rein.

**8. Schreiben Sie die Wörter in die richtigen Lücken! Erklären Sie den Begriff „Idiolekt“ mit eigenen Worten!**

**Idiolekt    Einzigartigkeit    Bildung    Sprechergruppen    einzigartig  
Sprache    Aussprache    Familie    linguistischer    Mensch    speziellen  
Kombination    Individuums**

**Idiolekt**

„Idiolekt“ ist ein \_\_\_\_\_ Begriff, der sich auf die spezifischen Sprachmuster eines \_\_\_\_\_ bezieht. Jedes Individuum variiert mit einer einzigartigen \_\_\_\_\_ aus Grammatikmustern, Wortschatz, \_\_\_\_\_ und Inhalt. Die Kombination dieser Elemente, die für eine bestimmte Person \_\_\_\_\_ sind, ist der Idiolekt dieser Person.

Jeder \_\_\_\_\_ spricht \_\_\_\_\_ einen eigenen Idiolekt. Jeder \_\_\_\_\_ unterscheidet sich etwas von jedem anderen. Zum Beispiel: Da Anna in einer rätoromanisch sprachigen \_\_\_\_\_ in Zürich aufwuchs und heute in Basel lebt, hat sie einen \_\_\_\_\_ Idiolekt.

In der Eigensprache (= Idiolekt) kommt der einzelne Mensch in seiner Gesamtheit und in seiner \_\_\_\_\_ zum Ausdruck. Der Idiolekt gilt für die geschriebene \_\_\_\_\_ ebenso wie für die gesprochene und ist abhängig von Sozialisierung, \_\_\_\_\_ und Zugehörigkeit zu verschiedenen \_\_\_\_\_.

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# EINHEIT 2. Soziolinguistik im Kontext von Gesellschaft

## 2.1. Sprache und soziale Schicht

### Feinziele der Vorlesung:

Fz1 – den Begriff Gruppe definieren und die Arten der Gruppe unterscheiden können;

Fz2 - den Begriff Schicht bestimmen können;

Fz3 – Theorie von Basil Bernstein beschreiben und analysieren können;

Fz4 – Unterschiede zwischen Defizittheorie und Differenztheorie finden und erklären können;

Fz5 – frei zum Thema sprechen und eigene Meinung äußern können.

### 1. Gruppe und ihre Sprache

Unter dem Begriff Gruppe versteht man eine bestimmte Zahl von Mitgliedern, die in einem kontinuierlichen Kommunikations- und Interaktionsprozess stehen, um ein gemeinsames Ziel zu erreichen.

Es wird weiterhin zwischen **formellen und informellen Gruppen** unterschieden.

**Unter formellen Gruppen** verstehen wir Gruppen mit einem fest gefügten Normen- und Wertesystem, wie z. B.: Familie, Schulklasse, Berufsgruppe, in das ein Individuum sich einfügen muss.

**Informelle Gruppen** haben ebenfalls ein Normen- und Wertesystem, das das Individuum jedoch freiwillig annimmt, z. B. Cliques, Hobbyclubs, Parteien.

Wie oben bereits erwähnt, wird unter einer spezifischen Gruppe eine Sprachgemeinschaft verstanden, die aufgrund von einen oder mehreren sozialen Faktoren ausfindig gemacht



werden kann. Deshalb ist es wahrscheinlich, dass es Gemeinsamkeiten im Sprachgebrauch dieser Individuen gibt. Beispiele für diese außersprachlichen Gemeinsamkeiten können sein: sportliche Interessen (Fußballsprache, Volleyballsprache), religiöse Überzeugungen oder subkulturelle Lebensformen (Punksprache).

Die gruppensprachlichen Charakteristika können dabei unterschiedlich stark ausgeprägt sein. Die Zugehörigkeit des Einzelnen zur Gruppe wird durch den gemeinsamen Gebrauch bestimmter Sprach(verhaltens)formen ausgedrückt. Zugleich wird dadurch die Gruppenidentität gestärkt, d. h. für eine Gruppe ist die Sprache ein wichtiges Identitätsmerkmal. Gruppensprachen dienen auch der Verhüllung, um sich in bestimmten Situationen ungestörter verständigen zu können.

## **2. Schicht und ihre Sprache.**

Der Begriff **Schicht** lässt sich im allgemeinem folgendermaßen definieren: der Teil der Bevölkerung, der ungefähr gleich viel verdient und in ähnlichen Verhältnissen lebt.

In den 60er Jahren stellte Basil Bernstein die These auf, dass von der sozialen und ökonomischen Situation der Menschen das Sprachverhalten und der Sprachbesitz abhängig sind. Er wollte bewiesen, dass die Erziehung in der Familie auf das soziale und sprachliche Verhalten eine Wirkung hat. Die Gesellschaft wurde in drei Stufen eingeteilt, und zwar in die Ober-, Mittel- und Unterschicht. Bernstein differenzierte im Wesentlichen zwischen:

### **a) restringiertem Code,**

d. h. der Sprache ungebildeter Menschen aus der Unterschicht. Zu den Merkmalen des Codes gehören kurze, grammatisch einfache, häufig unvollständige Sätze, sowie eine begrenzte

Anzahl von Adjektiven und Adverbien. Außerdem werden häufig Sprichwörter verwendet. Hier sind einige Beispiele:

- Was guckst Du?
- Watt kuckse?
- Sach mich dat nochma!
- Aufe Fresse?
- Ey, Alter, was geht?
- Voll konkret!

### **b) elaboriertem Code,**

d. h. der Sprache gebildeten Ober- und Mittelschicht. Seine Merkmale sind der häufige Gebrauch von Fachwörtern und der häufige Gebrauch des Passivs. Weiter zeichnet sich der elaborierte Code durch eine hohe Explizitheit aus. Zudem ist er durch seine grammatische Korrektheit gekennzeichnet. Außerdem ist er logisch bzw. argumentativ strukturiert. Auch hier zwei Beispiele:

- Warum sehen Sie mich so sonderbar an?
- Würden Sie das eventuell vollinhaltlich zurücknehmen?

Diese Theorie heißt „Defizittheorie“. Defizittheorie deswegen, weil das Sprachverhalten, -fähigkeit und -besitz der Angehörigen in der Unterschicht ein Defizit gegenüber dem Sprachverhalten, -fähigkeit und -besitz der Menschen in der Oberschicht, bzw. Mittelschicht haben. In den 60er und 70er Jahren des 20. Jahrhunderts versuchte man, dieses Defizit möglichst viel aufzuheben. Es wurde ein Programm in den Schulen eingeführt, mit dessen Hilfe die Kinder aus der Unterschicht ihren Sprachverhalten und ihren Sprachbesitz verbessern sollten. Der restringierte Code heißt außer anderen auch den Dialekt

sprechen, deshalb wurden die Kinder gezwungen, mehr die Standardsprache zu verwenden.

Diese Defizittheorie wurde durch die sog. Differenztheorie ersetzt. Die Differenztheorie stammt von einem amerikanischen Sprachwissenschaftler William Labov. Diese Theorie erkennt die sprachlichen Unterschiede auch an, sie werden aber anders verstanden und erklärt. Die sprachlichen Verschiedenheiten werden nicht als Hindernisse interpretiert. Die Leute aus der Unterschicht verwenden einen anderen Wortschatz, sie drücken sich anders aus: *„Der restringierte Code kann ebenso viel ausdrücken wie der elaborierte, nur mit anderen Mitteln.“* Die Differenztheorie geht auch davon aus, dass man die Codes wechseln kann. Das heißt, abhängig von der Situation benutzt man einen anderen Code. Dieses Prinzip heißt „Codewechsel“.

#### ►►Fragen zum Thema:

1. Was versteht man unter dem Begriff „die Gruppe“?
2. Welche Gruppen gibt es?
3. Was ist eine Schicht?
4. Was versteht man unter dem restringierten Code? Nennen Sie ihre Merkmale
5. Was versteht man unter dem elaborierten Code? Nennen Sie ihre Merkmale
6. Warum heißt die Theorie von Basil Bernstein die „Defizittheorie“? Warum wurde sie später die Differenztheorie genannt?

#### ►►Aufgaben zum Thema:

**1.Schreiben Sie die Wörter in die richtigen Lücken! Erklären Sie den Begriff „Gruppe“ mit eigenen Worten!**

**Altersgruppe soziale Interessen Organisationsstruktur Bestandteil  
Regeln Organisation Gruppenmitglieder Mehrzahl  
Sympathiebeziehungen Interessenorientierung individueller  
Vordergrund**

### **Die Arten der Gruppe**

Eine Gruppe ist eine \_\_\_\_\_ von Personen, die besondere \_\_\_\_\_ Beziehungen untereinander und gegenüber Außenstehenden unterhalten.

Die formelle Gruppe ergibt sich aus der formellen \_\_\_\_\_ eines Unternehmens. Die Beziehungen der \_\_\_\_\_ untereinander werden durch aufbau- und ablauforganisatorische \_\_\_\_\_ vorgegeben, ihre Aufgaben durch die \_\_\_\_\_ verbindlich geregelt. Die Sachorientierung steht im \_\_\_\_\_.

Die informelle Gruppe bildet sich durch \_\_\_\_\_, beispielsweise aufgrund der gleichen Tätigkeit, gleichartiger \_\_\_\_\_ oder sonstiger Gemeinsamkeiten wie Mitgliedschaft in Vereinen, durch die gemeinsame \_\_\_\_\_, das Geschlecht, Freundschaften. Die Befriedigung \_\_\_\_\_ Bedürfnisse steht im Vordergrund. Die informelle Gruppe kann \_\_\_\_\_ innerhalb oder auch neben einer formellen Gruppe sein. Die \_\_\_\_\_ steht im Vordergrund.

**2. Beschreiben Sie, welche Merkmale zur Einteilung der sozialen Schichten herangezogen werden.**

**3. Nehmen Sie anhand der Texte und des „Bildungstrichters“ Stellung zu der Aussage „Gute Bildungschancen sind der Schlüssel für Aufstieg“. Stellen Sie einen Zusammenhang zwischen Bildung und Schichtzugehörigkeit her.**

### **Drei Schichten – ein Beispiel:**

Sarah ist 17, sie steckt mitten im Abitur. Ihre Mutter ist wissenschaftliche Mitarbeiterin an der Uni. Ihr Vater arbeitet als Betriebswirt im Marketing eines Unternehmens. Sie leben in einem

Reihenhaus am Stadtrand. Sarahs Familie ist eine klassische Familie aus der Mittelschicht.

In den 1970er und 1980er Jahren gehörten Arbeiter zur Unterschicht, Angestellte zur Mittelschicht sowie Führungskräfte oder Unternehmer zur Oberschicht. Heute sind die Grenzen zwischen den Schichten fließend. Manche Menschen mit Hochschulabschluss verdienen in einer Berufsbranche mit niedrigerem Status weniger, haben aber dennoch einen höheren Bildungsabschluss. Auf der anderen Seite können Fachkräfte ohne Hochschulabschluss in einer Branche mit hohem Status ein höheres Einkommen erzielen.

### **Schrumpfende Mittelschicht?**

*„Die Mittelschicht wird immer kleiner.“ „Die Schere zwischen Arm und Reich öffnet sich.“ „Wir haben schon fast amerikanische Verhältnisse.“* Sind solche Sorgen begründet? Laut Angaben des Instituts der deutschen Wirtschaft Köln gehört jeder zweite in Deutschland zur Mittelschicht. Die Wirtschaftswissenschaftler sehen drei Phasen der Entwicklung: Bis 1997 stieg der Anteil der Mittelschicht etwas an, vor allem durch den „ostdeutschen Aufholprozess“. Bis 2005 wurde er kleiner, vor allem durch die Globalisierung des Arbeitsmarktes und den Druck auf gering qualifizierte Beschäftigte. Seitdem ist der Anteil der Mittelschicht nach Einschätzung des Instituts stabil. (Quelle: Judith Niehues, Institut der deutschen Wirtschaft Köln, in: IWTrends vom 7. Februar 2017, [www.iwkoeln.de](http://www.iwkoeln.de); ZeitOnline vom 3. September 2017: Die Mittelschicht ist stabiler als ihr Ruf, [www.zeit.de](http://www.zeit.de) )

Andere Wissenschaftler schätzen die Lage schlechter ein. Nach ihren Berechnungen verändert sich die Einkommensverteilung: Gutverdienende verdienen immer mehr, aber etliche Menschen der unteren Mittelschicht verdienen immer weniger, zum Beispiel durch Leih- oder Zeitarbeit. Sie sehen ein Problem der „sozialen Vererbung“ und der zunehmenden Undurchlässigkeit der Schichten: *„Es liegt sicher nicht am fehlenden Aufstiegswillen. Es liegt ganz klar an fehlenden Aufstiegsmöglichkeiten, und das sieht man daran, dass die Bildungschancen sehr schlecht sind. Also Kinder aus armen Familien sind häufiger auf Hauptschulen und haben generell schlechtere*

*Bildungschancen, mit einem schlechten Schulabschluss kriegt man keine Ausbildung mehr [...].“* (Quellen: Olaf Grohsamberg, Professor für Soziologie an der Universität Bremen, in: Deutschlandfunk vom 27. August 2015: Sozialwissen schafftler vermessen die Gesellschaft, [www.deutschlandfunk.de](http://www.deutschlandfunk.de); Deutsches Institut für Wirtschaftsforschung Berlin: DIW Wochenbericht Nr. 27/2017 vom 6. Juli 2017, [www.diw.de](http://www.diw.de) )

#### **4. Zu welchem Code gehört dieser Text? Welche Merkmale können Sie nennen?**

a) Die spielen Fußball und er tritt dagegen und er fliegt da raus. Er macht das Fenster kaputt und die schauen und er kommt heraus und schreit sie an, weil sie es kaputt gemacht haben. Deswegen rennen sie weg und dann guckt sie raus und beschimpft sie.“

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b) „Drei Jungen spielen Fußball, einer tritt gegen den Ball. Der Ball fliegt durch die Fensterscheibe, die Jungen schauen dem nach. Ein Mann kommt heraus und schreit sie an, weil sie das Fenster zerbrochen haben. Auf Grund dessen rennen die Jungen wenige Meter weg. Eine Frau, aufgeschreckt durch den Lärm, schaut aus ihrem Fenster und schimpft die Jungen aus.“

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c) Mutter zum Kind: „Würdest du mir bitte den Gefallen tun und etwas lei er sein?“

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d) „Sei leise!“

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e) Auf der Straße: „Warum sehen Sie mich so sonderbar an?“

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f) „Is was?“ oder „Was guckst du?“

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g) „Würden Sie mir bitte den Gefallen erweisen mir zur Hand zu gehen?“

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h) Watt kuckse?

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i) Sach mich dat nochma!

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## 2.2. Sprache und Geschlecht

### Feinziele der Vorlesung:

Fz1 – feministische Linguistik charakterisieren können;

Fz2 - Themenschwerpunkte der „Feministische Sprachwissenschaft“ bestimmen und erklären können;

Fz3 – den Unterschied zwischen geschlechtsexklusiven Sprachen und geschlechtspräferentiellen Sprachen finden und erläutern können;

Fz4 - Asymmetrien im Sprachsystem beschreiben können.

### 1. Aus der Geschichte

Die Förderung nach einem geschlechtergerechten Sprachgebrauch entstand aus dem feministischen Linguistik in den 60er Jahren im englischsprachigen Raum. Speziell aus den USA stammten auch die ersten bemerkenswerten Arbeiten mit feministisch linguistischem Inhalt. Der amerikanische **Linguist William Labov**, einer der ersten, der sich mit Gender in Bezug auf Linguistik beschäftigte, stellte eine These auf, die die Grundlage für viele sprachwissenschaftliche Arbeiten werden sollte: **Die Sprache von Frauen sei der Standardsprache näher, als die Sprache der Männer.**

Einige Jahre später, 1973, veröffentlichte die **Professorin Robin Lakoff** ihren Aufsatz „**Language and Woman’s Place**“, in dem sie das Englisch von Frauen auf verschiedenen linguistischen Ebenen untersuchte.

Die Genderlinguistik verbreitete sich neben den USA vor allem auch in Deutschland. Hier war **Ingrid Guentherodt** die erste, die 1974 ein Seminar zum Verhalten der Frau in der Sprache hielt.

Die Professorinnen und Feministinnen **Senta Trömel-Plötz** und **Luise F. Putsch** sind als zwei der wichtigsten Autorinnen und Mitbegründerinnen der feministischen Linguistik in Deutschland zu nennen. Beide schrieben in ihren ersten



Aufsätzen über **die Missachtung und Unterdrückung der Frau in der Sprache.**

## **2. Die wichtigsten Themenschwerpunkte der „Feministische Sprachwissenschaft“**

Die wichtigsten Themenschwerpunkte der „Feministische Sprachwissenschaft“ sind:

- die Betrachtung des kommunikativen Sprachverhaltens von Männern und Frauen, vor allem auch in Hinblick auf die Unterschiede der verschiedenen Sprachverhalten
- die feministische Kritik an Sprachgebrauch und Sprachsystem.

Das Ziel der feministischen Sprachkritik ist primär ein geschlechtergerechtes Deutsch. Zusätzlich möchte die feministische Sprachkritik Frauen die Identifikation mit sich selbst ermöglichen.

## **3. Sprachverhaltens zwischen Frauen und Männern**

Bei der Betrachtung des kommunikativen Sprachverhaltens zwischen Frauen und Männern muss zuerst **die Unterscheidung zwischen geschlechtsexklusiven Sprachen und geschlechtspräferentiellen Sprachen** getroffen werden.

- Geschlechtsexklusive Sprachen sind Sprachen, welche unabhängig des Geschlechts gesprochen werden.
- Bei geschlechtspräferentiellen Sprachen werden je nach Geschlecht bestimmte stilistische Variationen bevorzugt.

Das Deutsche wird in der Forschung als eine geschlechtspräferentielle Sprache eingestuft was bedeutet, dass sich das kommunikative Sprachverhalten von Frauen und Männern hinsichtlich Stil, Syntax und Wortschatz unterscheiden

kann. In diesem Zusammenhang wird auch von »Frauen« – und „Männersprache“ gesprochen.

Während **Frauen** beispielsweise einen eher defensiven Sprachgebrauch verfolgen, sie entschuldigen sich oft und lassen sich unterbrechen, tendieren **Männer** zu einem etwas aggressiveren Sprachstil: Sie unterbrechen gerne ihre Gesprächspartner oder Gesprächspartnerin, entschuldigen sich wesentlich seltener und verteidigen ihre Standpunkte. Diese Unterschiede führen dazu, dass Frauen in der Regel in gemischtgeschlechtlichen Diskussionen ihren Standpunkt schlechter vertreten können als Männer.

Hier liegt einer der Hauptkritikpunkte einiger feministischer Linguistinnen, denn **die Sprache der Frauen** wird oftmals als **defizitär** betrachtet, während **die männliche Sprache als Norm** genommen wird, an der die Frauensprache gemessen werden muss.

Männer reden, um sich selbst darzustellen und sich zu profilieren, hierbei wollen sie ihre Gesprächspartner überzeugen.

Frauen hingegen leisten während ihres Sprechaktes viel interaktionale Arbeit indem sie ihre Gesprächspartner bestätigen und dominantes Verhalten vermeiden, das Ziel ist hier die Verständigung zwischen den Gesprächspartnern. Lediglich der Ausgangspunkt im männlichen Denken, eine Diskussion müsse dazu führen den Gesprächspartner zu überzeugen, lässt die Sprache der Frauen defizitär erscheinen.

Doch die Frauensprache ist keine exklusiv von Frauen gesprochene Sprache, denn auch Männer können in manchen Situationen ein ähnliches kommunikatives Sprachverhalten aufweisen. Diese Beobachtung weist darauf hin, dass das sprachliche Verhalten von Männern und Frauen mit bestimmten gesellschaftlichen Gesprächshierarchien verbunden zu sein scheint. Die Soziolinguistik verwendet in diesem Rahmen den

Begriff „Genderlect“, welcher die Vorstellung einer Frauen- und Männersprache ausgleicht.

Ein grundlegendes Problem bei der Beobachtung des kommunikativen Sprachverhaltens von Frauen und Männern liegt in der Erwartung, welche die Umwelt an die Sprechenden richtet: Frauen, die im »weiblichen Register« sprechen, so auch die Theorie des „Genderlect“, sprechen nicht auf Grund ihres Geschlechtes so, sondern weil sie damit die Erwartungen ihres Gesprächspartners erfüllen und somit dem sozialen Rollenverständnis einer Frau entsprechen. Sprächen sie in einem eher männlichen Stil, würden sie dem Gegenüber als unweiblich und aggressiv erscheinen. So aber werden sie auf Grund des »weiblichen Register« nicht ernst genommen und bleiben machtlos.

#### 4. Patriarchalische Sprachen

„Patriarchalische Sprachen“ sind Sprachen, bei denen eine Ungleichbehandlung von Frauen gegenüber Männern hervorgebracht wird. Diese Ungleichheiten können sowohl aus der Sprache bzw. dem Sprachsystem selbst resultieren, als auch von den Sprecherinnen und Sprechern eine Sprache verursacht werden und werden auch Asymmetrien genannt.

Das Deutsche gehört zu diesen „patriarchalischen Sprachen“. **Die Asymmetrien zeigen sich im Sprachsystem immer dort, wo das maskuline Genus zur Norm erhoben wird.** Besonders auffallend ist das bei **Personenbezeichnungen, Berufsbezeichnungen und Titel.**

Es gibt in der deutschen Sprache vier Möglichkeiten das Geschlecht von Personen zu kennzeichnen, auf die man sich bezieht:

- Erstens durch **lexeminhärente Personenbezeichnungen**, hier ist das Geschlecht

schon im Wort selbst festgelegt, bspw. Mutter, Vater, Bruder.

- Die zweite Möglichkeit besteht in **geschlechtsneutralen Personenbezeichnungen** z.B. das Kind, die Person.
- Drittens kann man anhand **des Differentialgenus das Geschlecht von Personenbezeichnungen kennzeichnen**, ausschlaggebend ist in diesem Fall der vorangehende Artikel wie z.B. in der oder die Angestellte.
- Die vierte und letzte Möglichkeit besteht in **Personenbezeichnungen deren Grundform maskulin** ist, die davon abgeleiteten Formen feminin, bspw. Einwohner- Einwohnerin.

#### »Fragen zum Thema:

1. Wann und wo entstand die feministische Linguistik?
2. Wann entstand die feministische Linguistik in Deutschland?
3. Wie sind die wichtigsten Themenschwerpunkte der feministischen Sprachwissenschaft?
4. Wie sind die Ziele der feministischen Sprachkritik?
5. Wie heißen die kommunikativen Sprachverhalten zwischen Frauen und Männern?
6. Welche Sprache ist das Deutsche nach diesen Kriterien? Warum?
7. Was versteht man unter den „Patriarchalischen Sprachen“?
8. Welche Sprache ist die deutsche Sprache? Warum?
9. Nennen Sie Möglichkeiten das Geschlecht von Personen zu kennzeichnen.

► **Aufgaben zum Thema:**

**1. Was untersuchten die folgenden Soziolinguisten?**

1. William Labov	
2. Robin Lakoff	
3. Ingrid Guentherodt	
4. Senta Trömel-Plötz Luise F. Putsch	

**2. Wodurch unterscheiden sich geschlechtsexklusive Sprachen von geschlechtspräferentiellen Sprachen?**

<b>geschlechtsexklusive Sprachen</b>	<b>geschlechtsexklusive Sprachen</b>

**Welche Sprachen gehören zu geschlechtsexklusiven Sprachen?  
Welche Sprachen gehören zu geschlechtspräferentiellen Sprachen?**

**3. Wodurch unterscheidet sich die Männersprache von der Frauensprache?**

<b>Männersprache</b>	<b>Frauensprache</b>

#### 4. Schreiben Sie die Wörter in die richtigen Lücken! Erklären Sie den Begriff „Gender“ mit eigenen Worten!

**Kindesalter kommunikativen Identitäten Gender Merkmale Einstellungen Körper Sex unterschiedliche geschlechtergerechte Kulturen Sprachgebrauch soziales Geschlecht Verhaltensweisen**

##### Was bedeutet Gender?

Der Begriff Gender kommt aus dem Englischen und bedeutet übersetzt „\_\_\_\_\_“. Im Gegensatz zu dem Wort \_\_\_\_\_, das im Englischen ebenfalls „Geschlecht“ bedeutet, meint \_\_\_\_\_ nicht das biologische Geschlecht einer Person, sondern ihr \_\_\_\_\_ Geschlecht. Während das biologische Geschlecht die anatomischen \_\_\_\_\_, die einen menschlichen \_\_\_\_\_ als männlich oder weiblich definieren, bezeichnet, bezieht sich das soziale Geschlecht auf geschlechtsbezogene \_\_\_\_\_ und \_\_\_\_\_ einer Person. Frauen und Männer leben in verschiedenen „\_\_\_\_\_“. Ihre Sprachen und \_\_\_\_\_ Verhaltensweisen unterscheiden sich fundamental. Frauen und Männer sprechen \_\_\_\_\_ „Genderlekte“. Die unterschiedlichen Sprachen von Frauen und Männern haben ihre Ursache schon im \_\_\_\_\_. Gender bedeutet \_\_\_\_\_ Sprache. Mit dem geschlechterbewussten \_\_\_\_\_ soll die Gleichbehandlung alle Geschlechter/\_\_\_\_\_ zum Ausdruck gebracht werden.

#### 5. Was ist diskriminierend an den Formen? Geben Sie eine geschlechtsneutrale Alternative für jede.

- a. Herr Meier mit Frau
- b. Fräulein Sell
- c. Bundespräsident Scheel und Ehefrau Mildred
- d. Sehr geehrte Herren
- e. der Glaube unserer Väter
- f. Weiblicher Kaufmann gesucht
- g. der Kontoinhaber
- h. An die Familie Peter Dörsch

**6. Schreiben Sie die folgenden Sätze um, damit sie geschlechtsneutral werden. Benutzen Sie möglichst viele Alternative für jeden Satz.**

1. *Wieviele Studenten leben in Heidelberg?*
2. *Der Bundeskanzler wird nicht direkt vom Volk gewählt, sondern von den Bundestagsabgeordneten.*
3. *Der Inhaber dieses Passes ist Deutscher.*
4. *Jeder Passagier möge seinen Platz nehmen.*

**7. Schreiben Sie die Sätze als Bitten neu, und verwenden Sie dazu den Infinitiv wie im Beispiel.**

1. Jeder Mitarbeiter sollte nach dem Mittagessen das Geschirr in den Geschirrspüler räumen.

**Bitte nach dem Mittagessen das Geschirr in den Geschirrspüler räumen.**

2. Jeder Mitarbeiter sollte neues Druckerpapier holen, wenn keines mehr da ist.

3. Jeder Mitarbeiter sollte seine Tassen nach der Arbeit in die Teeküche bringen.

4. Jeder Mitarbeiter muss das Formular für den Betriebsausflug bis Montag ausfüllen.

5. Jeder Mitarbeiter sollte in E-Mails und Briefen gendergerecht formulieren.

**8. Umformulierungen mit Infinitiv, Passiv und Verben:**

Die Mitarbeiter erhalten die Karte im Büro.

Jeder Student soll die Unterlagen abholen.

Es gab 20 Seminarteilnehmer.

Die Bibliothek steht den Benutzern zur Verfügung.

Die Unterlagen stehen den Teilnehmern zur Verfügung.

Antragsteller müssen das Formular unterschreiben.

Der Bewerber muss folgende Unterlagen einreichen.

Mitarbeiter erhalten das Weihnachtsgeld im November.

## 9. Umschreibungen mithilfe des Adjektivs oder Verben statt Substantive:

Der Verfasser

Die Kritiker

Betriebsarzt

Der Gutachter hieß...

Teilnehmer der Sitzung waren:

Es waren drei Referenten geladen.

## 10. Lesen Sie den Text und beantworten und argumentieren Sie die Frage:

### In welchem Verwandtschaftsverhältnis stehen der Chirurg und das Kind?"

Vater und Sohn fahren im Auto. Sie haben einen schweren Unfall, bei dem der Vater sofort stirbt. Der Junge wird mit schweren Kopfverletzungen in ein Krankenhaus gebracht, in dem ein Chef-Chirurg arbeitet, der eine bekannte Kapazität für Kopfverletzungen ist. Die Operation wird vorbereitet, alles ist fertig, als der Chef-Chirurg erscheint, blass wird und sagt: "Ich kann nicht operieren, das ist mein Sohn!"

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# EINHEIT 3. Soziolinguistik im Kontext von Kultur

## 3.1. Jugendsprache

### Feinziele der Vorlesung:

Fz1 – den Begriff „Jugend“ aus unterschiedlichen Perspektiven definieren können;

Fz2 - den Begriff „Jugendsprache“ bestimmen können;

Fz3 - morphosyntaktische Rahmenphänomene der Jugendsprache beschreiben können;

Fz4 - lexikalische Elemente der Jugendsprache unterscheiden können;

Fz5 – frei zum Thema sprechen und eigene Meinung äußern können;

### 1. Begriffsklärung – Jugend

Was mit dem Begriff „**Jugend**“ bezeichnet wird, ist oft unklar. Die meisten Menschen sind der Meinung, Jugend ist eine wichtige Phase der menschlichen Entwicklung und in dieser Phase zwischen Kindheit und Erwachsenensein sucht die Person ihre eigene Identität und individuelle Persönlichkeit. Jugend ist aber von unterschiedlichen Ausgangspunkten betrachtet und entsprechend definiert.

In der Soziologie sieht man Jugend als Zeitabschnitt im Leben eines Menschen, in welcher man von der Gesellschaft nicht mehr als ein Kind angesehen wird. Man hat aber zugleich nicht den entsprechenden Status und Rolle eines Erwachsenen.

Jugend umfasst die Lebensjahre zwischen dreizehn und fünfundzwanzig; innerhalb dieser Spanne kann die Jugendphase nach Altersgruppen, die dem entwicklungspsychologischen Stand entsprechen, unterteilt werden:

Jugendliche im engeren Sinn (13.-18. Lebensjahr),  
die Heranwachsenden (18.-21. Lebensjahr) und

die jungen Erwachsenen (21. – 25. Lebensjahr).

Den anderen Definitionsversuch stellen die Merkmale der Jugend dar. Man kann aus der Literatur noch folgende Merkmale der Jugend zusammenfassen:

- bei aller Konsumfreudigkeit sind Jugendliche heute bereit, sich gesellschaftlich zu engagieren. Doch sie prüfen genauer, ob sich die Mühe lohnt und ob es sich um politisches Engagement handelt.
- Hierarchien bilden sich kaum, eher spontan und informell. Die Rangfolgen sind flexibel.
- die Jugendlichen möchten auch bei ernsten Angelegenheiten Spaß erleben (Spaß-Kultur)
- Freundschaften – Andere Menschen kennen zu lernen und die Freundschaften aufzubauen
- Keine Taktik, keine Kompromisse – Die Jugendlichen engagieren sich in Gruppen, die ein Ziel erreichen will. Wenn das Ziel nicht erreicht wird, steigen sie aus der Gruppe aus, oder versuchen sie es auf anderen Wegen. Die Großorganisationen (z.B. politische Organisationen) sind ihnen eher fremd.
- die Ziele der Gruppen sind gegenwartsbezogen und ihre Realisierung steht in nächster Zukunft.
- Viel Energie wird investiert, nur so lange, wie sie es für sinnvoll halten.

In manchen soziologischen Auffassungen lässt sich Jugend als Subkultur bezeichnen. Die Jugendsprache gewinnt an Bedeutung. Diejenigen, die Mitglieder der Subkultur sind, können sich durch Sprachgebrauch von anderen noch klarer abgrenzen und die Jugendsprache gewinnt eine zusätzliche Funktion im Leben der Jugendlichen.

## 2. Definition der Jugendsprache

Die Thematik der Definition der **Jugendsprache** wird oft diskutiert, aber nicht geklärt. Bei der Definition von Jugendsprache nimmt neben der Unterscheidung sprachlicher Merkmale auch eine Differenzierung hinsichtlich des Gesprächsrahmens vor, wie etwa nach situativen Voraussetzungen (zu Hause, in der Schule usw.), nach den Interaktionsteilnehmern, nach Alter und persönlicher Stimmung. Die Jugendsprache ist durch extreme Wandlungsfähigkeit, sowie experimentelle und kreative Sprachproduktion gekennzeichnet.

„Jugendsprache ist ein Medium der Selbstdarstellung von Jugendlichen und einerseits dient der Identifikation und Kommunikation im Rahmen der Gruppe, andererseits dient der Abgrenzung von der als institutionalisiert und autoritätsbesetzt erfahrenen Welt der Erwachsenen und damit auch von einer Standardssprache mit normativem Anspruch.“

(Brockhaus Enzyklopädie, S. 263).

## 3. Aus der Geschichte der Jugendsprache

Erste Anfänge der Erforschung der deutschen Studentensprache sind mit Beginn des 16. Jahrhunderts datiert. Die Forschung ist bis zur Mitte des 18. Jahrhunderts nur auf seltene Quelle verwiesen. Erste wirklich wissenschaftliche Erforschung der Jugendsprache ist gegen Ende des 19. Jahrhunderts mit Meiers Untersuchungen der Hallischen Studentensprache und Kluges Deutscher Studentensprache zu datieren. Die sondersprachliche Erforschung der Studentensprache wurde dann verdrängt und erst Umfragungen in der Nachkriegszeit erarbeiteten wieder „Jugenddeutsch“, u.a. in Hochschulen, Kasernen und Jugendgruppen. In den 80er Jahren setzte sich nämlich die Vermarktung der Jugendsprache

mit voller Kraft. Damit hängt die Flut der Monographien zum Thema „Jugendsprache“ zusammen, die bis heute auffällig ist.

Die Jugendsubkulturen werden in heutiger Zeit als Objekt von PsychologInnen, SoziologInnen, PädagogInnen etc. betrachtet und es wurde bewiesen, dass die subkulturelle Zuständigkeit von z. B Sport-, Mode- und Musikstilen die Auswahl der Wörter stark beeinflussen kann. Soziale Bedingungen prägen daneben Struktur, Verteilung und sprachliche Realisation von sprachlicher Kommunikation.

Man kann heute die Untersuchungen der Jugendsprache in zwei große Richtungen aufteilen.

Die eine Richtung der Jugendsprachanalyse ist die wissenschaftlich-linguistische, die andere medienorientiert - populärwissenschaftliche. Beide Dimensionen unterscheiden sich in verschiedenen Aspekten signifikant voneinander. „Während die wissenschaftlich-linguistische Richtung heute versucht, möglichst authentische Jugendsprache zu untersuchen und die Kommunikationssituation sowie die Kommunikationspartner zu berücksichtigen, hat die medienorientiert - populärwissenschaftliche Richtung nicht die authentische Jugendsprache im Blick, sondern das Herausstellen der Besonderheiten der Jugendsprache“ (Ingler 1998, S. 3).

#### **4. Morphosyntaktische Rahmenphänomene**

Die Jugendsprache befindet sich in der heutigen Zeit in einem immer tiefsten Wandel. Um die heutige Situation zu skizzieren, muss man folgende sprachliche Phänomene nennen:

##### **1) Die verkürzte Akkusativform des Indefinitartikels**

z. B. einen ´nen; ein ´n; eine ´ne

## **2) Die verkürzte Form mit den Verbindungen**

z. B. ein bißchen ´n bißchen; ein Paar ´n Paar

## **3) Possessiver Dativ**

Z. B. Da kommt dem [Name] Zierfisch.; Mit´m [Name] seiner Band.

## **4) Definitartikel bei Personennamen**

Z. B. Tja, der [Name] ist echt doof; Ja, die [Name] hat nichts zu sagen.

## **5) Präpositionen wegen, während mit Dativreaktion**

z. B. Ich bin halt tagsüber unterwegs wegen dem Praktikum. Wegen der Yupa-Band gehe ich nicht hin.

## **6) Am+Infinitiv+sein**

Z. B. Wer kennt schon [Band], die auch schon seit 5 Jahren am Rumklapfen sind. [Name], der gerade am rumtelefonieren am nächsten Tag war.

## **7) Doppeltes Perfekt**

Z. B. Als du das gesagt hattest, hast du die Jungs immer noch nicht gesehen gehabt.

**8) Ellipse – Verblöse Sätze gehen fast immer auf den Wegfall des Kopula- oder Hilfsverb oder des unpersönlichen Verbs es gibt zurück**

Z. B. Ich hab das wirklich gereinigt. Danach noch einmal gekuckt. Gesehen, falsch gemacht.

## **9) Gebrauch unbestimmter Adverbien und Pronomen**

Z.B. so/dann/da/das kann mir das einer sagen?; da hat wer/einer nach dir gefragt

## **5. Lexikalische Elemente**

### **1) Bedeutungsverschiebungen bzw. –veränderungen**

Z.B. fähig = sehr gut, klasse (eigentlich: begabt, tüchtig, imstande); Melone = Kopf

(eigentlich Kürbisgewächs der Tropen)

## **2) Bedeutungserweiterungen**

Z.B. fett = 1. super, voll in Ordnung 2. fett sein/werden = reich sein/werden; hämmern = hart arbeiten; Message = (konkrete) Aussage/Philosophie

## **3) Bedeutungsumkehrungen (semantische Paradoxa), wobei Kontext von zentraler Bedeutung ist.**

Z.B. ätzend = 1. shit, beschissen (vulg.) 2. super, sehr gut; Trällerfisch = 1. Person, die viel redet. 2. Weibliche Person, die gut singt.

## **4) Neologismen**

Z.B. Toffel = Dummkopf; Härterpreis = weit überhöhter Preis; Proggi = Denk-Programm

## **5) Verbalisierung von Substantiven**

Z.B. müllen = quatschen, dummes Zeug reden; zoffen = streiten

## **6) Vereinfachungen**

Z.B. Poli = meist abwertend für „seinen Freund und Helfer“; Proggi = Denk-Programm

## **7) Kreative Wortspiele**

Z.B. labundig = lebendig, lebenslustig; hoppeldihop =flink, schnell

## **8) Idiome**

kalte Füße bekommen

## **9) Bildung neuer Lexeme**

I. Bei der Bildung neuer Lexeme ist das produktive Suffix ist -o.  
z.B. (du) capito

## **Das Basiswort intensivieren die Präfixe super- und hyper-.**

z. B. supergeil – Steigerungsform von geil; Superbirne – 1.Person mit hoher Denkkintelligenz (positiv) 2. Person mit wenig Denkkintelligenz (negativ); superlustig – besonders lustig; hyperhysterisch – besonders hysterisch, hyperclean – besonders drogenfrei

**Neue Lexeme werden durch Abkürzungen gebildet und durch Entlehnung, u.a. durch Derivation und Kürzungen**

z.B. Sponti – diejenigen, bei denen Spontaneität am wichtigsten ist; Zivi – 1.

Zivildienstleistende 2. V-Mann der Polizei bei Demonstrationen.

***Die Entlehnungen entstammen:***

***a) aus dem Englischen***

z. B. abgefickt – erschöpft (vulg.); anpowern –in Schwung bringen ; r Boss – 1. r Chef ,

2. r Vater; r Feeling, -s – s Gefühl; clean – 1. gut erzogen, sauber 2. „drogenfrei“ in der

Szene; cool – ruhig, gelassen, überlegen; flash – 1. blitzartige Wirkung von Heroin und

Opium 2. Anblick einer attraktiven Frau; killer- 1. Mörder 2. stark (wirksam) ; hard –

extrem;

***b) aus dem Lateinischen***

z.B. Acid – allgemeine Bezeichnung für Halluzinogene; Cannabis – Fachausdruck für

Marihuana

***c) aus dem Italienischen***

z.B. Ciao - Grußwort; Mafia-Torte - Pizza

***d) aus dem Arabischen***

z. B. Kaftan - Jackett; Mufti - derjenige, der sich gern als Anführer anspielt

***e) aus dem Französischen***

z.B.Liberté - Freiheit, Charrette - Auto; chlinguer - lügen; crapoter - rauchen; crouter - essen

## »Fragen zum Thema:

1. Was versteht man unter dem Begriff „Jugend“?
2. Welche Lebensjahre umfasst die Jugend?
3. Welche Merkmale der Jugend gibt es in der Literatur?
4. Wie kann man die Jugendsprache definieren?
5. Wann wurden die ersten Erforschungen der Jugendsprache in der Geschichte gemacht?
6. Welche zwei Richtungen gibt es bei der Erforschung der Jugendsprache?
7. Welche morphosyntaktischen Phänomene hat die Jugendsprache?
8. Welche lexikalischen Elemente hat die Jugendsprache?
9. Welche Beispiele der Jugendsprache können Sie nennen?

## »Aufgaben zum Thema:

**1. Schreiben Sie die Wörter in die richtigen Lücken! Erklären Sie den Begriff „Jugend“ mit eigenen Worten!**

**Selbstständigkeit   Lebensphasen   Wertvorstellungen   Pubertät  
Geschlechtsmerkmale   Kindheit   Austesten   Altersphase  
Kompetenzen   Entwicklungsphasen   Besuch   Menschen  
Erwachsenalter   Veränderung**

### Was bedeutet die Jugend?

Die Entwicklung des \_\_\_\_\_ besteht aus vier Phasen: der frühen \_\_\_\_\_, der Kindheit, der Jugend und dem \_\_\_\_\_. Die Jugend, als eine der vier \_\_\_\_\_, ist stark prägend für den Menschen.

Jugend ist eine \_\_\_\_\_ zwischen Kindheit und Erwachsensein, die mit dem Einsetzen der \_\_\_\_\_ um das 13. Lebensjahr beginnt. Die Jugend ist eine der wichtigsten \_\_\_\_\_ des Menschen. Jugendliche durchleben eine Phase, in der vorrangig \_\_\_\_\_ erlernt und Grenzen ausgetestet werden. Das \_\_\_\_\_ dient unter anderem dazu, sich selbst besser kennenzulernen. Die Jugend wird vor allem geprägt durch den



\_\_\_\_\_ von weiterführenden Schulen, durch Freund\*innen und deren Normen und \_\_\_\_\_.

In der Jugend findet aber auch eine starke körperliche und psychische \_\_\_\_\_ statt. In dieser Phase bilden sich nicht nur \_\_\_\_\_ aus, sondern auch die Persönlichkeit und die sozialen \_\_\_\_\_ entwickeln sich weiter.

## 2. Schreiben Sie die Wörter in die richtigen Lücken!

**Besonderheiten absichtlich Bedeutung Übertreibungen bewussten Vordergrund semantische Betonung Abgrenzung sprachlichen Gebrauch Wörter bestehenden Sprechweisen Altersstufen Zeiten Standardsprache Identifikation**

Jugendsprache beschreibt \_\_\_\_\_, die unterschiedliche Gruppen von Jugendlichen zu unterschiedlichen \_\_\_\_\_, in verschiedenen Situationen und in unterschiedlichen \_\_\_\_\_ verwenden. Jugendsprache entsteht durch bestimmte Wörter, \_\_\_\_\_, Grammatik und die kontextabhängige \_\_\_\_\_ von Begriffen.

Beim \_\_\_\_\_ von Jugendsprache geht es um die \_\_\_\_\_ mit der eigenen Peer-Group. Dadurch entsteht zwar auch eine \_\_\_\_\_ zu den Eltern, es handelt sich aber nicht um einen \_\_\_\_\_ Prozess oder gar ein Rebellionen. Vielmehr steht die Abgrenzung zu anderen Gruppen im \_\_\_\_\_.

Jugendsprache unterscheidet sich von der \_\_\_\_\_ in allen \_\_\_\_\_ Bereichen z. B. lexikalisch: Es gibt neue \_\_\_\_\_, sogenannte „Neologismen“, oder Komposita, also Kombinationen von \_\_\_\_\_ Wörtern. Es gibt auch morphologisch-grammatische \_\_\_\_\_ wie Abkürzungen („yolo“) und \_\_\_\_\_ Besonderheiten wie \_\_\_\_\_ und Provokation. Das kann auch bedeuten, dass Grammatik und Rechtschreibung \_\_\_\_\_ falsch eingesetzt werden.

**Schreiben Sie in die Tabelle, was für die Jugendsprache wichtig ist, und welche Funktionen und Merkmale diese Sprache hat.**

<b>wichtig für Jugendsprache</b>	<b>Funktion</b>	<b>Merkmale</b>

**3. Was versteht man unter folgenden Begriffen:**

<i>die wissenschaftlich-linguistische Richtung</i>	<i>die medienorientiert – populärwissenschaftliche Richtung</i>

**4. Unterstreichen Sie im folgenden Text alle Begriffe aus der Jugendsprache.**

#### **Wo Jambajaner beim Schottergott möpen**

Wenn ein Sechzehnjähriger sagt: „Ich bin echt total storno!“, redet er wahrscheinlich nicht von Buchhaltung, sondern meint damit, er sei betrunken. Vielleicht zieht er sich zum Nüchternwerden eine Phosphatstange (Bratwurst) mit Aknestäbchen (Pommes frites) rein oder er findet alles bloß noch voll lollig (lustig).

Im neuen Wörterbuch der Jugendsprache werden solche Wendungen erklärt, die die Lebenswelt von Jugendlichen spiegeln. Als Jambajaner wird zum Beispiel jemand bezeichnet, der ein Handy mit einem Klingelton hat, der möpt, d. h. nervt. Die Wendung ist abgeleitet von einem bekannten Dienst für Handyklingeltöne. Ein Zungenleichtathlet ist jemand, der gut küssst, ein Schottergott ein Geldautomat.

Die politischen Weltereignisse schlagen sich ebenfalls in der Sprache der Teenies nieder. So bezeichnet ein Bankster einen Banker, der zum Gangster wurde, d. h. mit seinen spekulativen Geschäften die Finanzkrise mitverantwortet hat. US-Präsident Barack Obama hat es dagegen zu besonderen Ehren gebracht. Ist etwas obama, dann ist es gut, innovativ und neu.

**a) Ordnen Sie die Wörter aus der Jugendsprache den passenden Erklärungen zu.**

1	Don Promillo	a	Person mit geringer Bildung	1
2	Edelratte	b	Betrunkener	2
3	hartzen	c	sehr dünn	3
4	Rudelgucken	d	gammeln, sinnlos rumhängen	4
5	untermoppelt	e	kleiner Hund eines Prominenten	5
6	Pisaopfer	f	öffentliche Liveübertragung auf Großbildwand	6

**5. Finden Sie die „Übersetzungen“ zu folgenden Begriffen. Tipp: Die Wörter im Kasten helfen dabei.**

Jugendsprache	Standardsprache
knutschen	
checken	
Knete	
Flop	
Bulle	
Toilette umarmen	
MoF	
galaktisch	
crazy	
Streberhaus	
labern	

Zoff	
ätzend	
Zicke	
motzen	

Mensch ohne Freunde, sich übergeben, reden, Polizist, verrückt (modern), Enttäuschung (Misserfolg), Geld, küssen, dummes Mädchen, schimpfen, Ärger, Schule, brilliant (toll), etwas verstehen, doof (langweilig; uninteressant)

**6. Was könnten diese Sätze bedeuten? Sprich mit deiner Arbeitsgruppe.**

- - Lass uns heute Nachmittag *chillen*.
- - Wir *chatten* später.
- - Er ist nur noch am *Zappen*.
- - Das kann ich *toppen!*
- - Du musst das Programm *updaten*

1	Ich küss dein Auge.	a	ein Mensch, der etwas Besonderes für dich tut	1
2	Ehrenmann/Ehrenfrau	b	süß	2
3	Lauch	c	Du zahlst!	3
4	Snackosaurus	d	Trottel, Dummkopf	4
5	glucose-haltig	f	„Ich hab dich gern!“ oder ein sehr starkes „Danke!“	5
6	Auf dein Nacken!	g	verfressener Mensch	6
7	verbuggt	h	voller Fehler	7

**7. Diese Inhaltsangabe zum Drama *Romeo und Julia* ist in Jugendsprache verfasst. Unterstreiche alle Wörter und Wendungen aus der Jugendsprache.**

In dem Drama „Romeo und Julia“ von William Shakespeare geht es um die voll traurige Liebesgeschichte zwischen einem Typen, Romeo, und einer Tusse, Julia. Die Familien der beiden, die Montagues und Capulets, sind voll auf Hass. Wenn sie sich auf der Straße begegnen, fangen sie an rumzustressen.

Der Alte von Julia will eine Party geben und schickt für die Einladungen einen Diener los. Der Diener hat allerdings einen Schuss und labert irgendeinen Typen an, damit der ihm die Liste vorliest. Das ist ausgerechnet Romeo. Der schaut sich die Liste an und liest die Namen von den ganzen Schickis – auch den von Rosalinde. Er findet die Braut echt scharf und will sie unbedingt auf der Party treffen. Er ist allerdings völlig down, weil die Tussi nicht auf ihn steht. Aber Romeos Kumpel Mercutio sagt zu ihm: „Geh hin und zieh es durch. Außerdem sind da doch bestimmt noch ein paar andere scharfe Schnecken.“ Romeo geht also hin. Er hat kein Problem reinzukommen, denn auf der Party sind alle maskiert. Als er die Mädels sieht, sieht er Julia und denkt: „Wer ist denn diese Schnitte?“ Und sie denkt: „Wer ist denn dieser Geilo?“ Romeo baggert sie an und küsst sie. ...

**a) Schreibe die Inhaltsangabe in Standardsprache um.**

In dem Drama „Romeo und Julia“ von William Shakespeare ...

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## 3.2. Körpersprache

### Feinziele der Vorlesung:

Fz1 – nonverbale Kommunikation definieren und charakterisieren können;

Fz2 – geschlechtsspezifische Körpersprache bestimmen und beschreiben können;

Fz3 - interkulturelle Unterschiede nennen und erklären können;

Fz4 - Bedeutung der Körpersprache betonen und analysieren können;

Fz5 – frei zum Thema sprechen und eigene Meinung äußern können;

Die nonverbale Kommunikation ist die älteste Form der zwischenmenschlichen Verständigung. Nonverbale Kommunikation ist die Kommunikation, die nicht die spezifischen Kennzeichen von Sprache (wie z.B. Grammatik) hat. Sie erfolgt nichtsprachlich. Unser Körper spricht - ob wir wollen oder nicht. Er hört nie auf, Signale zu geben. Die Körpersprache ist ein wichtiges Mittel der nonverbalen Kommunikation. Sie umfasst jede bewusste oder unbewusste Bewegung eines Körperteils oder des ganzen Körpers, die von einem Menschen dazu benutzt wird, der Außenwelt emotionale Botschaften zu übermitteln. Erst mit Gesten können wir uns richtig ausdrücken: Sie zeigen dem Gegenüber, was uns wichtig ist und wie wir empfinden. Mimik und Gestik können ganze Worte ersetzen.

Ohne Körpersprache sind die täglichen sozialen Beziehungen gar nicht denkbar. Die Körpersprache ist sehr wichtig für die Kommunikation auf der emotionalen Ebene. Die Körpersprache verrät die Gedanken, Ängste, Gefühle und Stimmungen. Auch Eigenschaften wie Körperfülle, Kleidung, Stimme, Frisur sind wichtige Informationsquellen. Es gibt aktive und passive Körpersprache.

## Aus der Geschichte

Die ersten systematischen Untersuchungen, nämlich zu interkulturell universell ausgedrückten Basisemotionen unternahm Charles Darwin. Charles Darwin folgerte, dass die Fähigkeit des Menschen zum Ausdruck von Gefühlen, Stimmungen und Einstellungen durch seine Körperhaltung und Gesten auf prähistorische Affen zurückgehe. Darwin veröffentlichte seine Erkenntnisse im Jahre 1872 in dem Buch „Der Ausdruck der Gemütsbewegungen bei dem Menschen und den Tieren. Diese akademische Studie gehört zu den einflussreichsten Arbeiten zum Thema Körpersprache vor dem 20. Jahrhundert und dient immer noch als Grundlage für moderne Forschungen zu Mimik und nonverbalem Verhalten. Beinahe 140 Jahre nach der Erstveröffentlichung werden Darwins Forschungsergebnisse zu Haltung, Gestik und Ausdruck immer wieder von den jeweiligen Experten bestätigt. Diese Experten sind Kinesik-Wissenschaftler. Amerikaner Friesen und Sorenson stellten im Laufe des 20. Jahrhunderts fest, dass auf der ganzen Welt die gleichen Grundgesten existieren.

Die Körpersprache wird durch den Stummfilm populär. Die Wissenschaft hat mehr als 1 Millionen unbewusster und bewusster Gesten gesammelt.

Kinesik ist eine Teildisziplin der Kommunikationswissenschaft und untersucht im Rahmen der Gesprächsanalyse nichtsprachliche (mimische, gestische etc.) Verständigung. Die Kinesik ist die Darstellung und wissenschaftliche Erforschung der Körpersprache. Kinesik ist also der Name der in den 60er Jahren entwickelten Wissenschaft von der Körpersprache, deren amerikanischen Pioniere E.T. Hall und Julius Fast sind. Die Kinesik deutet die Verhaltensmuster der nonverbalen Kommunikation und weist Widersprüche auf, die sich zu verbalen Äußerungen und Behauptungen ergeben.

Einer, der Gesten als sprachliches Phänomen beschrieb, war David McNell, ein Psycholinguist an der Universität von Chicago. In seinem Buch „Hand and Mind“ entwickelte er Anfang der neunziger Jahre die Idee, dass Gesten im Grunde nichts anderes seien als in Bewegung übertragene Gedanken.

Die Sprachwissenschaftler haben die Gesten lange nur am Rande untersucht. Heute aber steigert sich das Interesse für die Körpersprache. Die Wissenschaftler wollen eine Grammatik der Gesten schaffen, eine Sprachbeschreibung, die neben Lauten und Zeichen auch sichtbare Signale der Kommunikation einbezieht.

### **Geschlechtsspezifische Körpersprache**

Frauen und Männer sprechen nicht die gleiche Körpersprache. Männer und Frauen unterscheiden sich in einer Reihe von spezifischen körpersprachlichen Signalen, und zwar immer dann, wenn der biologische Unterschied relevant wird. Die sozialen Ordnungen verstärkten die Unterschiede. Gerade im Beruf unterscheidet sich die Körpersprache der Männer extrem von der Körpersprache der Frauen. Männer sind meist größer als Frauen, haben mehr Masse, verfügen über eine lautere Stimme. Frauen haben oft eingefallene Schulter, schüchterner Blick, leise Stimme. In dieser Haltung ist es schwierig, seine Argumente durchzusetzen. Die andere Gefahr ist, wenn Frauen die dominant-kraftvollen Gesten ihrer männlichen Kollegen nachahmen. Das wirkt negativ.

Typisch für männliches Auftreten ist ein Raum einnehmendes Sitzen und Stehen, ein gerader und fokussierter Blick oder ein selbstbewusst erhobener Kopf. Diese nonverbalen Muster stehen für Dominanz, Stärke, Macht und Selbstständigkeit. Frauen hingegen sitzen und stehen eher



Raum sparend und haben ein zurückhaltendes Auftreten – traditionelle weibliche Körpersprache signalisiert Unterordnung.

Generell nehmen Frauen in ihren Gesten weniger Raum ein. Während Männer breitbeinig dastehen, haben Frauen ihre Füße näher beieinander.

**männlich:** Füße auseinander, Armbewegungen aus der Schulter, Handgelenk fest und gerade, Hände in den Taschen ; Beine auseinander (breit übereinander, Knöchel auf Knie)

**weiblich:** Füße zusammen, Armbewegungen aus dem Ellenbogen, Handgelenk gebeugt, lebhaftere Handbewegungen; Beine zusammen (eng übereinandergeschlagen, Knie zusammen)

Die weibliche Körpersprache zeichnet sich durch

Emotionen aus und das ist gleichzeitig auch ihre Stärke. Frauen lächeln in der Tat häufiger als Männer. Das ist auch eine Komponente ihres sozialen Verhaltens. Und wenn sie lächeln, lächeln sie oft mit leicht geöffnetem Mund. Das ist ein Signal: Ich bin bereit zu sprechen. Männer lassen den Mund eher geschlossen.

Über Jahrhunderte hinweg wurden Frauen dazu angehalten, sich zurückhaltend zu geben. Heute sind sie selbstbewusst und emanzipiert. Doch in der Körpersprache gibt es noch klare Unterschiede. Es scheint in der Natur der Frauen zu liegen, dass sie sozialer sind, mehr an andere denken und ihnen mehr Raum lassen.

## **Interkulturelle Unterschiede**

Große Missverständnisse können entstehen, wenn man die Gesichtsausdrücke und Gesten der Einheimischen nicht richtig zu interpretieren weiß. So sollten Sie in Indien nicht irritiert reagieren, wenn Ihr Gesprächspartner permanent den Kopf

schüttelt. Das ist kein Zeichen der Ablehnung, sondern soll Aufmerksamkeit im Sinne von „ja, ich höre dir zu“ signalisieren.

In Thailand und Indien kann es nicht schaden, Zähne zu zeigen - Lächeln bedeutet dort Höflichkeit. In Japan dagegen dient das Lachen häufig als Reaktion auf offene Kritik oder peinliche Situationen. Direkter Augenkontakt wird in Japan vermieden.

Manche für uns harmlose Geste kann in anderen Ländern als Beleidigung verstanden werden. Zum Beispiel, in Thailand und Japan gilt es als unhöflich, mit dem (linken) Finger auf jemanden zu zeigen.

Gravierende Missverständnisse können mitunter entstehen, wenn man die Gesichtsausdrücke und Gesten der Einheimischen nicht richtig zu interpretieren weiß. So soll man in Indien nicht irritiert reagieren, wenn der Gesprächspartner permanent den Kopf schüttelt. Das leichte hin und her Wippen des Kopfes ist kein Zeichen der Ablehnung, sondern soll Aufmerksamkeit im Sinne von „ja, ich höre dir zu“ signalisieren. Möchte ein Inder ein „Nein“ andeuten, geschieht dies mit einer wesentlich kürzeren und abrupteren Kopfbewegung.

Was bei uns „super“, „okay“ oder „toll“ bedeutet, gilt in vielen anderen Ländern, beispielsweise im Nahen Osten, als obszöne Geste. In Frankreich bedeutet das Zeichen auch so viel wie „wertlos“. In einigen Teilen Japans wiederum steht dieses Handzeichen für Geld.

Streckt man bei geschlossener Hand nur Daumen und kleinen Finger aus, so ist das bei uns eine Aufforderung zum Telefonieren. In China steht diese Geste für die Zahl sechs und in Südeuropa, beispielsweise in Italien, versteht man sie als Zeichen fürs Trinken. Bei Surfern bedeutet die „Shaka“-Geste so viel wie „Sei locker!“.

Verkehrte Welt: Wer bei uns Nein sagen will, schüttelt mit dem Kopf. In Bulgarien dagegen bedeutet das „Ja“. Umkehrt

bedeutet ein leichtes Nicken hier „Nein“. Auch in Indien oder Sri Lanka interpretiert man ein Kopfschütteln als Negation.

Wer sich bei uns mit dem Zeigefinger an die Stirn tippt, zeigt jemandem den Vogel. In den USA beispielsweise kann die Geste auch bedeuten, dass jemand besonders schlau war. Hierbei spielt die Mimik ebenfalls eine große Rolle.

Indem man den Daumen nach oben streckt, bekundet man bei uns Zustimmung. Ganz anders fasst man diese Geste im Nahen Osten auf, dort steht sie für „Du kannst mich mal!“ In Japan verbindet man mit einem erhobenen Daumen den Geliebten und wenn man mit dieser Geste in China ein Bier bestellen will, kriegt man statt einer Flasche gleich fünf. In Brasilien wiederum bedeutet die Geste „Danke“.

## **Bedeutung der Körpersprache**

Der Eindruck, den eine unbekannte Person macht, hängt nur zu 7 % von dem ab, was sie sagt; d.h. der Eindruck hängt zu 93 % von dem ab, was sie ohne Sprache durch Mimik, Gestik, Sprechgeschwindigkeit, Aussehen, Haltung, Kleidung, Parfüm etc. vermittelt. Selbst wenn die Person besser bekannt ist, bestimmen die nonverbalen Signale immer noch 60 % des Eindrucks.

- \* 55 % nonverbale Elemente
- \* 38 % paraverbale Elemente (Stimmlage)
- \* 7 % verbale Elemente (der eigentliche Inhalt des Vortrages)

Körpersprache, nämlich Gesten, sind uns angeboren, können aber auch erlernt werden. Mit Training können Mimik, Gestik, Auftreten und die gesamte Rhetorik geschult werden. Überzeugendes Lügen ist in der nonverbalen Kommunikation auch mit viel Training kaum zu lernen. Wer aber die Grundregeln nonverbaler Kommunikation beherrscht, erkennt eigene

Schwächen rechtzeitig und kann ihnen mit entsprechender Übung dann durchaus entgegenwirken. Dies gilt es auch zu berücksichtigen bei Fachgesprächen, Vorstellungen eines Projekts, Wortmeldungen, Diskursen, Seminaren, Konferenzen etc.

Die Körpersprache eines Menschen verrät in der Regel mehr über ihn, als das reine Gespräch mit seinem Gegenüber. Auf seine Mimik, Gesten und unbewussten Körpersignale sollte man darum vor allem in Jobs achten, die eine *repräsentative Funktion* haben. Politiker, Pressesprecher und Firmenchefs, aber auch Lehrer und Erzieher, die eine *Vorbildfunktion* für Kinder und Jugendliche erfüllen müssen, sollten darum stets bewusst auf die Signale achten, die sie mit ihrer Körperhaltung, ihrer Sprache und sogar mit ihrer Kleidung an Andere aussenden.

Nichtverbale Signale dienen folgenden Zwecken:

**Ausdruck von Gefühlen:** durch Gesichtsausdruck, Augen, Gestik, Körperhaltung, Tonfall, Kleidung usw. Der Gefühlsausdruck scheint unbewusst auch als Signal dafür, wie gefährlich eine Situation ist.

**Mitteilung von Einstellungen zum Mitmenschen (bzw. Mitlebewesen):** freundlich - feindlich, dominant - unterwürfig, unnachgiebig - nachgiebig usw.

**Mitteilung über die eigene Persönlichkeit,** vor allem als was man sich darstellen will (durch Auftreten, Manipulation des Aussehens usw.)

**Unterstützung, Klärung, Modifikation usw. beim Sprechen:** z.B. durch Blickkontakt zur Regelung, wer wann sprechen darf, als Metainformation bei Ironie (Augenzwinkern, ironischer Tonfall).

**Einflussnahme und Manipulation:** Flirten, Augenaufschlag, Kopfhaltung, alle die vielen Tricks, die in Werbung und Politik angewandt werden usw.

## ► Fragen zum Thema:

1. Was versteht man unter Körpersprache?
2. Wozu dient die Körpersprache?
3. Nennen Sie die Untersuchungsschwerpunkte der Forscher der nonverbalen Kommunikation (Charles Darwin, Friesen und Sorenson, E.T. Hall und Julius Fast, David McNeill)
4. Charakterisieren Sie die Körpersprache der Männer und Frauen. Zeigen Sie die Unterschiede.
5. Charakterisieren Sie die Körpersprache aus der interkulturellen Perspektive. Zeigen Sie die Unterschiede.
6. Welche Bedeutung hat die nonverbale Kommunikation? Wodurch unterscheidet sie von der verbalen Kommunikation?

## ► Aufgaben zum Thema:

1. Schreiben Sie die Wörter in die richtigen Lücken! Erklären Sie den Begriff „Körpersprache“ mit eigenen Worten!

**Mimik, schwerer, Körpersprache, empfinden, Bewegung, Signale, Sprache, unbewusst, Haltung, Absichten, Äußerungen, Lügen, Ausdrucksform, bewusste, Kommunikation, deuten, Handgesten Gesichtsausdruck, Sache**

### Was ist Körpersprache?

\_\_\_\_\_ ist trügerisch. Ein Mensch kann eine \_\_\_\_\_ sagen und eine ganz andere meinen oder seine Gesprächspartner durch \_\_\_\_\_ bewusst täuschen. Jemanden durch die \_\_\_\_\_ zu täuschen ist dagegen wesentlich \_\_\_\_\_, denn ein großer Teil davon geschieht \_\_\_\_\_. An Gesten, am \_\_\_\_\_ und auch an der gesamten \_\_\_\_\_ kann man bei vielen Menschen deutlich ablesen, was sie gerade \_\_\_\_\_. Man muss die Zeichen nur \_\_\_\_\_ können. Körpersprache umfasst alle \_\_\_\_\_ bewussten \_\_\_\_\_ und \_\_\_\_\_ unbewussten \_\_\_\_\_ des Körpers, die Aufschluss über den Gefühlszustand

oder die \_\_\_\_\_ eines Menschen geben. Dazu zählen sämtliche nonverbale \_\_\_\_\_ der Gestik, Mimik, Körperhaltung und \_\_\_\_\_. Gebärdensprache zählt nicht dazu, da sie nur eine andere \_\_\_\_\_ unseres (erlernten) Sprachsystems ist.

Es gibt jedoch auch \_\_\_\_\_ Körpersignale, die gezielt zur \_\_\_\_\_ eingesetzt werden können. Mit \_\_\_\_\_ lassen sich Argumente unterstreichen, die \_\_\_\_\_ kann Bereitschaft zum Gespräch oder das Bedürfnis nach Ruhe signalisieren.

## 2. Was untersuchten die folgenden Wissenschaftler?

1. Charles Darwin	
2. Friesen und Sorenson	
3. E.T. Hall und Julius Fast	
4. David McNeill	

## 3. Nicht-Sprachliche Ausdrucksmöglichkeiten: Welche angenehmen Gefühle können ausgedrückt werden? Ordnen Sie die Wörter den passenden Erklärungen zu.

1	geballte Faust zeigen	a	Zärtlichkeit, Liebe, Freude	1
2	Augenzwinkern, lächeln, anlachen	b	Furcht, Hass	2
3	,aufrecht, erhoben	c	Ärger, Wut, Zorn,	3
4	offener Mund, weit aufgerissene Augen	d	Begeisterung, Freude	4
5	in die Hände klatschen	e	Wut, Hass	5
6	umarmen, küssen	f	Verliebtsein, Sympathie, Freude, Fröhlichkeit	6

7	mit dem Zeigefinger auf den anderen zeigen	g	Trauer, Furcht	7
8	winken, lächeln	h	Wut, Hass, Ärger	8
9.	gebückt, gekrümmt, eingesunken	i	Freude	9
10	mit der Faust auf den Tisch schlagen, mit Gegenständen um sich werfen	j	Stolz, Freude	10

**4. Lesen Sie den Text und teilen Sie Ihre Meinung mit, welche Rolle Kleidung und Schmuck bei der nonverbalen Kommunikation spielen.**

### **Kleider machen Leute – Kleidung und Schmuck**

Im Karneval sieht man ganze Gruppen von verkleideten Marsmenschen, Clowns, Hexen – oder auch Cola-Dosen. Durch das gleiche Kostüm zeigen die Menschen ihre Zugehörigkeit zu einem Verein.

Im Alltag ist dies nicht anders. Jede Gemeinschaft oder Gesellschaft hat einen Kleidungs-Code. Vor einem Vorstellungsgespräch überlegen wir sorgfältig, was wir anziehen. Wir wissen, wie wir Trauer durch unsere Kleidung zeigen oder wie wir durch ausgefallene Accessoires im Freundeskreis beeindrucken können.

Auch wer sich den gängigen Kleidernormen nicht anpassen will, sendet eine deutliche Botschaft. Täglich entscheiden wir bewusst oder unbewusst darüber, wie wir durch unsere äußere Erscheinung wirken wollen: indem wir uns schminken, Rock oder Hose anziehen, durch die Wahl der Krawatten-Farbe und den Schmuck, den wir anlegen.

Die Kleidungs-Codes unterscheiden sich stark in den verschiedenen Kulturen – besonders die Ansichten darüber, wie viel nackte Haut in der Öffentlichkeit präsentiert werden darf. Auch werden unterschiedliche Teile des Körpers tabuisiert. In vielen europäischen

Ländern zeigen sich Frauen mit unverhüllten Haaren in der Öffentlichkeit, was in islamisch geprägten Ländern undenkbar ist.

Dagegen ist es bei einigen afrikanischen und südamerikanischen Völkern bis heute üblich, dass weder Frauen noch Männer im Alltagsleben ihren Oberkörper bedecken – zum Beispiel bei den Himba in Namibia, den Nyangatom und den Hamar in Äthiopien und den Huaorani in Ecuador –, was wiederum in westlichen Ländern einen Skandal verursachen würde.

Kleidung und Schmuck sind also Ausdrucksformen der Körpersprache, die wie kein anderes Mittel den kulturellen Gepflogenheiten folgen.

### **5.Körpersprache entschlüsseln**

Schauen Sie einen Filmausschnitt aus einem Spielfilm ohne Ton. Beobachten Sie Mimik, Gestik, Verhalten, Handlungen und Körperhaltung. Finden Sie heraus:

- Worum geht es in diesem Filmausschnitt inhaltlich?
- Wie fühlen sich die beteiligten Personen, in welcher Stimmung sind sie?
- In welcher Beziehung stehen die Personen zueinander?
- Woran kann man dies auch ohne Sprache erkennen?

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# LUCRUL INDIVIDUAL

## **MINI-Projekt: Ein Kurzreferat zum Thema Jugendkultur**

Es gibt die unterschiedlichsten Jugendkulturen, z.B. Hippies, Rocker, Skinheads, Emos, Skater, Gothics, Ökos, Punker, Hooligans, Breakdancer, Hip-Hopper, Rapper, Raver, Hipster, Graffiti-Sprayer, Surfer, Backpacker, YouTuber, Gamer, Cosplayer

**Entscheide dich für eine der Jugendkulturen und stelle sie durch ein fünfminütiges Referat vor.**

**Einleitung:** Im ersten Teil deines Referats sollst du deine Zuhörer begrüßen und ihr Interesse wecken. Dazu passen folgende Redemittel:

- Guten Tag / Herzlich willkommen, ...
- Liebe Mitschülerinnen und Mitschüler, ...
- Ich spreche heute über das Thema ...
- Wusstet ihr schon, dass ...

**Hauptteil:** Hier gibst du wichtige Informationen. Interessant für deine Zuhörer sind zum Beispiel:

- eine Beschreibung deiner Jugendkultur. Dazu gehören die Kleidung, das Styling, wichtige Gegenstände, vielleicht sogar eine typische Körperhaltung oder Geste.
- die Vorlieben und Abneigungen deiner Jugendkultur. Dazu gehören Musikgeschmack, Gewohnheiten, Hobbies, politisches Interesse.
- konkrete Beispiele wie Fotos, Gegenstände oder Musikausschnitte

- Vor- und Nachteile deiner Jugendkultur
- Ein Vergleich mit Jugendkulturen in deinem Land

**Schluss:** Hier bedankst du dich bei deinem Publikum und verabschiedest dich. Dazu passen folgende Redemittel:

- Vielen Dank für eure Aufmerksamkeit!
- Gibt es noch Fragen?

## MODEL DE TEST

### **1. La nivel de cunoaștere și înțelegere: (32 P.)**

#### **Varietätenlinguistik**

**1. Definieren Sie die Begriffe „Varietätenlinguistik“ und „Varietät“. Beschreiben Sie die Varietäten im Standarddeutsch? (9P.)**

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**2. Erläutern Sie das Forschungsgebiet der Varietätenlinguistik? (10P.)**

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**3. Erklären Sie die Bedeutung des soziolinguistischen Varietätenmodells und nennen Sie die Merkmale des soziolinguistischen Varietätenmodells?(13P.)**

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### **2. La nivel de aplicare: (34 P.)**

#### **Jugendsprache**

**1. Formulieren Sie den Begriff Jugend. Welche Lebensjahre umfasst die Jugend? (9P.)**

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**2. Bestimmen Sie die Merkmale der Jugend, die es in der Literatur gibt. (12P.)**

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**3. Charakterisieren Sie zwei Richtungen der Erforschung der Jugendsprache. Wodurch unterscheiden sie sich? (13 P.)**

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**3. La nivel de integrare: (34 P.)**

**1. Analysieren Sie diesen Text. Finden Sie die Jugendlexik. Was ist für die Jugendsprache typisch und welche Beispiele der Jugendsprache finden Sie in diesem Text (16P.)**

Es war einmal 1 nice Mädchen, was Rotkäppchen genannt wurde, weil sie immer mit ner sytlischen roten Samtmütze rumlief, die ihre Großmutter ihr mal verpasst hatte. Als sie gerade in ihrem Zimmer chillte, sagt ihre Muddern: „ Yo Rotkäppchen, geh mal bitte zu Omma, hab jetzt echt kein Bock zu der ollen rüber zu fahren. Ein Sixpack und ein Big Mac sind im Korb, die soll vor ihrem Abgang nochmal was gutes kriegen.“ Nett wie Rotkäppchen war, holte sie sich ihr Fahrrad und cruiste los, mit dem Satz ihrer Mutter im Ohr: „ Lass dich bloß nicht

dumm von der Seite anquatschen!“ Da stand auf einmal der Wolf vor ihr. „Ey yo schnegge, ganz allein unterwegs?“ Rotkäppchen verdrehte nur die Augen, aber er stellte sich ihr in den Weg.

„Wo willst du hin?“

„Zu meiner Großmutter.“

Ohne lang zu warten lief der Wolf los in Richtung Großmutter, die er kurzerhand verschlang und sich ihre Klamotten anzog.

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**2. Schreiben Sie diesen Text in Standardsprache um. (18P.)**

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## ENGLISH SOCIOLINGUISTICS

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## UNIT ONE: **POWER, SOCIAL DIVERSITY AND LANGUAGE**

### **Objectives:**

- *To determine the subject and the aims of sociolinguistics;*
- *to formulate definitions related to sociolinguistics;*
- *to show the connection of sociolinguistics with other branches of science;*
- *to suggest methods used in sociolinguistic studies and to apply them in a proper analysis of a given text.*

**I. The text below is written by John Baugh in Mesthrie, Rajend, *The Cambridge Handbook of Sociolinguistics*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2011 and is adapted by the authors of this book. Read it and answer the questions that follow the text:**

From childhood we acquire language under social circumstances unique to each of us and when we grow we think of using the type of communication typical to the very speech community we belong to (our culture, society) or the community of practice we take part of. Speakers of a single language vary in many ways; they differ in class, sex, ethnicity, voice quality, and other idiosyncratic traits that reflect their unique personal experience with language.

In 1971 Bernstein evaluated class differences in language based on distinctions between elaborated codes and restricted codes of the same language. He identified upper class children with expanded linguistic repertoires and working class children with a more limited use of language. Speakers who held power used the elaborated code, while less affluent speakers were portrayed as socially constrained.



In 1970 studies of sociolinguistic diversity in the USA were explicit in their racial demarcation. Based on racial comparisons of standardized test scores A. Jensen asserted that black children were cognitively and educationally inferior to white children (their language was found incoherent, ungrammatical and illogic) while W. Labov provided definite evidence that Afro-American Vernacular English (AAVE) is a logical and coherent grammatical system. This case is relevant to any socially stratified speech community.

Moreover Hymes' account of who holds power over whom in any given conversation owes much to Jakobson's influence and research. A person who is considered eloquent in one culture can also seem cognitively deficient when s/he lacks the necessary knowledge or fluency to carry on normal conversations with native speakers of another language or speech community especially if the conversation takes place between people who are not coequal (employer vs. employee).

E. Haugen (1972, 1987) a native speaker of Norwegian spoke English with a strong foreign accent. He wanted scholars to see the ways in which language studies related to the ecological contexts wherein linguistic behavior thrives: he demonstrated that strong social forces in dialect communities frequently reflect differences in social power, wealth and unequal access to education. He showed the significance of the social standing and the corresponding linguistic skills of an interlocutor in any given speech event.

Similar to Haugen, Goffman's (1959) formulation of "players" on different "teams" during day-to-day interactions in public and private settings demonstrated that employers and their workers have a shared "team" mentality. (Arguments among workers take

place in private settings) Goffman also noted that situational criteria are frequently overlooked in language studies because “situations” are difficult to define empirically with precision.

Hymes (1974) affirmed that communicative events (CE) demand a high degree of communicative competence (oral and written) as related to language usage all over the world. Hymes noted that every CE demands employment of one or more codes and that knowledge of the codes is essential to effective communication. Moreover, communication will take place in a setting which will be employed for the duration of the event as human communicative exchange. Every CE will contain one or more topics. It must also simultaneously employ a channel of communication (face-to-face, telephone, etc.) Face-to-face communication is the most basic of human CE where the channel of communication takes place during spoken conversation.

For the sake of the discussion we place speakers in two broad residential categories: urban vs. rural dwellers. This is done as well because of the recent significant trend of urban linguistic dominance norms throughout the world. Labov’s (1966) extensive study of the social stratification of English speakers in New York City is illustrative of urban linguistic stratification. In contrast, Kurath (1972), McDavid (1979), and Cassidy (1983) have taken great pains to identify American English usage in rural settings, far from the influence of the urban perceptions of language usage in regards to power and prestige.

Throughout the world, there is a pattern of linguistic dominance that has strong economic and political relevance. Dominant dialects of dominant languages usually reflect political circumstances that have nothing to do with language per se.

Immigrants in diverse speech communities are subject to discrimination as they speak the official language with a strong accent of their native tongue.

Mesthrie's (2002) sociolinguistic research in South Africa (SA) identifies diverse instances of political power juxtaposed with linguistic dislocation for SA's non-white citizens. SA is a nation with 11 official languages, including the languages spoken by most white South Africans: Afrikaans and English. Africa's extensive multilingual language policy has become symbolic of a new sociopolitical philosophy, one that strives for fuller cultural inclusion of all South Africans, free of racial taint.

The US still wrestles with the historical and linguistic consequences of slavery and the impact of various historical military excursions that have inspired and appalled people all over the world. Attention to linguistic heritage further illustrates the nature of cultural diversity among African-Americans (AA). B. Obama's political ascendancy has made it clear that not all AA trace their ancestry to former slaves, while Michelle Obama is a slave descendant with linguistic and cultural roots in that tradition.

Many language policies throughout the world are ill conceived because they tend to be distorted by well intended linguistic stereotypes. For the past six years, J. Baugh (2015) has examined various forms of bias against black speakers in US, Brazil, France and SA. Each country has a history of racial bias against black people and each country has adopted different political strategies that have had significant linguistic repercussions.

In the context of the current global economy, the nature of trade and employment prospects can be enhanced through ease of

communication. Whinnom (1971) observed that a combination of “ethological” and “ecological” barriers frequently inhibited communication during language contact situations. *Ethological barriers* frequently were associated with attitudes among members of different groups. Those who dislike each other tend to be more intolerant, linguistically and otherwise, than is the case among groups that are either neutral or favorable in their attitudes towards each other. *Ecological barriers* refer to structures within languages, their degree of similarity (the example with Chinese where there is no distinction between /r/ or /l/). Other ecological barriers exist between dialects within a single language and often trigger a recognition of differences in education, class, sex, and age, among other demographic traits.

To promote and enhance opportunities in our society we have to consider that two simultaneous efforts will reinforce these prospects: increasing the greater access to dominant linguistic norms policymakers will enhance the economic prospects of those people who lack fluency in the language. Those who hold reins of linguistic power must acknowledge their inherent linguistic advantages, accrued in well educated residential neighborhoods where the parents and teachers are already the fluent speakers of the dominant dialect by the mere accident of birth.

1. *How do we acquire language and which way do the speakers of a certain language construct their communication?*
2. *Which are the distinctions between the elaborated codes and restricted codes of the same language, who suggested them and how are they applied in a sociolinguistic analysis?*
3. *Explain the connection of language and power in communication.*

4. *What is Hymes' (1974) argument as related to language usage all over the world?*
5. *Which are the theories used to study the recent significant trend of urban linguistic dominance norms throughout the world? Name some sociolinguists who applied their theories and conducted studies in this direction.*
6. *What is a language policy and how is it applied in different societies?*
7. *Which are the two barriers that frequently inhibited communication during language contact situations? Explain how they function.*
8. *What shall we do to promote and enhance opportunities in our society?*

## **II. Fill in the gaps in the texts below with the given words:**

***Contexts, functions, identity, information, language, meaning, people, relationships, society***

Sociolinguists study the relationship between \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_. They are interested in explaining why we speak differently in different social \_\_\_\_\_, and they are concerned with identifying the social \_\_\_\_\_ of language and the ways it is used to convey social \_\_\_\_\_. Examining the way \_\_\_\_\_ use language in different social contexts provides a wealth of \_\_\_\_\_ about the way language works, as well as about the social \_\_\_\_\_ in a community, and the way people convey and construct aspects of their social \_\_\_\_\_ through their language.

***analysis, choice, dialects, expression, factors, languages, levels, styles, variation***

Sociolinguists are also interested in the different types of linguistic \_\_\_\_\_ used to express and reflect social \_\_\_\_\_. Vocabulary or word \_\_\_\_\_ is one area of linguistic variation. But this occurs at other levels of linguistic \_\_\_\_\_ too: sounds, word-structure (or morphology), and grammar (or syntax) as well as vocabulary. Within each of these linguistic \_\_\_\_\_, there is variation which offers the speaker a choice of ways of \_\_\_\_\_. They provide us with different linguistic \_\_\_\_\_ for use in different social contexts. Choices may even involve different \_\_\_\_\_ of a language, or quite different \_\_\_\_\_.

**III. State whether the following statements about sociolinguistics are True (T) or False (F):**

1. Sociolinguistics focuses on language as a static, i.e. invariant, phenomenon.
2. Sociolinguistics is concerned with language as a social phenomenon.
3. Sociolinguistics can be described as the study of language in society.
4. Sociolinguistics investigates linguistic variation within speech communities.
5. Linguistic variation is typically restricted to pronunciation features.
6. The core area of sociolinguistics is regional dialectology.

**IV. Match the terms with their definitions:**

- |                                 |  |
|---------------------------------|--|
| 1. Variety/code                 | a) the use of two or more varieties, or codes, in an interaction |
| 2. Linguistic/verbal repertoire | b) a set of linguistic forms used under specific                 |

- 3. codeswitching
  - 4. communicative event
  - 5. speech community
  - 6. style
  - 7. social identity
- c) a group of people who share linguistic norms
  - d) the linguistic construction of membership in one or more social groups or categories
  - e) the level of formality in the way of speaking
  - f) the distinguishable varieties or codes which are available for use in different social contexts
  - g) a sequence of related turns in communication

**V. Compare and contrast the following pairs of terms/concepts:**

grammatical competence / communicative competence  
 macro-sociolinguistics/ micro-sociolinguistics

**VI. Name the main focus of the scientific studies of the following linguists:**

Baugh J.	
Bernstein	
Goffman	
Hymes	
Labov W.	
Whinnom	

**VII. Below are some examples of so-called Politically correct (PC) language. Why have these terms been suggested? What beliefs about the relationship between language and culture are reflected in the suggestion and adoption of or resistance to PC language?**

1. Chalk board (formerly 'blackboard');
2. Banned (formerly 'blacklisted');
3. Differently-abled (formerly 'disabled');
4. Custody suite (instead of 'prison cell');
5. Happy Holidays (instead of 'Merry Christmas');
6. Flight attendant (formerly 'steward/stewardess' or 'air host/air hostess');
7. Mastress (instead of 'master/ mistress');
8. Humanity (instead of 'mankind');
9. Synthetic or artificial (instead of 'man- made');
10. Developing Nations (instead of 'Third World').

**VIII. Look at the following joke about British sayings and guess what they really mean. Discuss how this depiction of cross-cultural miscommunication illustrates the concept of communicative competence.**

WHAT THE BRITISH SAY	WHAT FOREIGNERS UNDERSTAND	WHAT THE BRITISH MEAN
I hear what you say	He accepts my point of view	
With the greatest respect	He is listening to me	
I am happy to see you	I am <b>really</b> happy to see you	
That's not bad	That's poor	
I would suggest	Think about the idea, but do what you like	



I almost agree	He's not far from agreement	
You must come for dinner	I will get an invitation soon	

(source:

<http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/newsttopics/howaboutthat/10280244/Translation-table-explaining-the-truth-behind-British-politeness-becomes-internet-hit.html>)

**IX. Case study: Robert Harris lives in an English-speaking western monolingual community. Make a list of names he might be called by:**

- *his grandparents at home or in their letters;*
- *teachers at school;*
- *doctors in a surgery at a hospital;*
- *his parents most of the time;*
- *his parents when annoyed;*
- *his mother when she is annoyed;*
- *his mother when feeling affectionate;*
- *his brother most of the time*
- *by his friends to annoy him;*
- *by strangers in letters or in the shop.*

**X. Comment on the use of names in your culture. How is it different from the UK or US cultural tradition?**

**XI. Search the internet and tell how people address and refer to their mothers in England depending on their social class.**

## UNIT TWO: INTERACTION, STYLE AND DISCOURSE

### Objectives:

- To define the peculiarities of sociolinguistic concepts;
- to determine the tendencies in contemporary Sociolinguistics;
- to analyse the discourse structure;
- to provide arguments on various approaches of discourse analysis;
- to suggest an assessment of a sociolinguistic research quality.

**I. The text below is written by Cynthia Gordon in Mesthrie, Rajend, *The Cambridge Handbook of Sociolinguistics*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2011 and is adapted by the authors of this book. Read it and answer the questions that follow the text:**

**Conversational discourse** is a topic of great interest to scholars in fields as varied as linguistics, sociology, anthropology, communication studies, and psychology. This multi-disciplinary interest explains the methodological and theoretical diversity of published studies. Primary among these research traditions are *conversation analysis*, *the ethnography of communication*, and *interactional sociolinguistics*. These “approaches to discourse” (Schiffrin 1994) have diverse disciplinary origins and feature some differences in methods and theoretical orientations, but all involve collection and careful analysis of actual talk-in-interaction (see Schiffrin 1994 for a detailed discussion).

*Conversation analysis* (CA) grew out of the sociological perspective of *ethnomethodology*, which developed from the work of H. Garfinkel. H.Sacks, E.Schegloff, and their colleagues (1974) brought Goffman and Garfinkel’s research notions to the study of conversational discourse. CA investigates conversational structure and takes an interest in exploring how

unfolding conversational structure (re)creates social organization because it focuses on how social order is actually lived and recreated moment-by-moment in talk.

Researchers have investigated a range of issues related to conversational structure. For instance, Goffman's (1981) concept of participation framework, or the idea that different interlocutors have different statuses with reference to any given utterance, has been extended by researchers in the CA tradition examining issues such as the collaborative production of talk that is subordinate to the primary communicative activity (Goodwin 1997), how the structure of talk shapes its audience and reciprocally how the audience influences unfolding talk (Goodwin 1996), and the structure of triadic exchanges (Kang 1998). CA researchers tend to claim "the independence of the turn-taking system from various aspects of the socio-cultural context of speech" such as the speakers' ethnicity, gender, or socioeconomic class (Duranti 2005: 26), instead focusing on the unfolding interaction itself as the locus of context.

The *ethnography of communication*, which finds its roots in anthropology and linguistics, contrasts with CA in a number of ways. It views language as "constitutive of some portion of social and cultural life" (Schiffrin 1994: 347) and its interest in uncovering and seeking to understand diversity across cultures and communities in terms of language use and the nature of what Hymes (1972a) calls "speech events." Thus, contributors explore a variety of speech events in "foreign" cultures. For example, Irvine (1974) investigates greetings in Wolof. Ochs (Keenan 1974) explores gendered speech among the Malagasy-speaking community (in Madagascar). Philips (1974) considers "Indian time" as it affects a range of speech events among the Warm Springs Indians (of Oregon).

Whereas CA researchers tend to be oriented to sociology, scholars using *the ethnography of communication* are often anthropologists. While conversation analysts tend to have a strict understanding of context as limited to discourse context, researchers utilizing the *ethnography of communication* consider much wider definitions of context to include information captured in Hymes' SPEAKING framework. SPEAKING (an acronym) encourages analysts to pay attention to the setting and scene of the interaction (S), the participants involved (P), the interactional ends (E), act sequences (A), the key or tone (K), instrumentalities (or forms and channels of communication; I), norms of interpretation (N), and genres (G).

An important idea in research in the *ethnography of communication* is the idea of communicative competence, a notion introduced by Hymes (1972b) to make the point that in order to use a language, knowledge beyond grammatical rules is required. Research in this tradition has demonstrated how as children learn grammatical constructions, they also learn how to use language appropriately in their community, across various contexts. This fact points to an understanding of communication as a means of (re)affirming one's membership to a particular cultural group, and of (re)creating the group itself through everyday communicative practices.

Contemporary research on *conversational discourse* owes much to Goffman's theorizing about social interaction. As the scholar (1967: 33–34) points out, "whenever the physical possibility of spoken interaction arises, it seems that a system of practices, conventions, and procedural rules comes into play which functions as a means of guiding and organizing the flow of messages."

A number of researchers, primary among them Tannen (2007) and Johnstone (1991, 1994a, 1994b), identify repetition and intertextuality as important means of organizing discourse. Even small words and phrases, like *oh*, *okay*, and *I mean* – called “discourse markers” – contribute to interactional organization on multiple levels (Schiffrin 1987).

One of the most fundamental structural aspects of talk is the complexity and systematicity of turn-taking. In a seminal article within CA, Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (1974) lay out what they call a “simplest systematics” of turn-taking organization. Studies of turn-taking have taken a broader view, questioning the idea that “one person at a time” is the conversational norm. For instance, whereas some speakers, such as Tannen’s (2005) conversational participants from California, see simultaneous talk as “interruption,” others, like Tannen’s New York Jewish speakers, tend to perceive it positively, as a means of showing enthusiasm and interest.

CA has also focused on the sequentiality of talk: conversation consists of sequences, i.e. “little pairings,” “dialogic units,” and “two-part exchanges” that are best studied by formal linguistic analysis (Goffman 1981: 6). The CA notion of “adjacency pair” (Schegloff & Sacks 1973) has been widely influential and is akin to Goffman’s noticing of “two part exchanges.” *Adjacency pairs* are sequences that consist of two utterances that are adjacent to one another and that are produced by conversation and interaction; typical examples include greeting-greeting, compliment-acknowledgment, and question-answer.

Another element of human interaction is the social ritual. Goffman (1981: 19) defines a social encounter as “a coming together that ritually regularizes the risks and opportunities face-

to-face talk provides, enforcing the standards of modesty regarding self and considerateness for others generally enjoined in the community.” He uses the term ritual because talk – especially the everyday talk of simple exchanges like compliments, apologies, and so on – “represents a way in which the individual must guard and design the symbolic implications of his [or her] acts while in the immediate presence of an object that has a special value for him [or her]” (Goffman 1967:57).

An important component of this line of thinking is Goffman’s (1967: 5) notion of “face,” “the positive social value a person effectively claims” in interaction. In interaction, we make efforts to “save face” – for instance to engage in “impression management” (Goffman 1959) if one makes a social gaffe. As Goffman (1967: 12) remarks, “To study face-saving is to study the traffic rules of social interaction”; the social component of interaction is a key part of its structure. Goffman’s thinking on “face” paved the way for Brown and Levinson’s (1987) theorizing of face in the context of linguistic politeness theory and Lakoff’s (1973b, 1975) rules of politeness, both of which are fundamental theories for research in interactional sociolinguistics and ethnography of communication, among other approaches to discourse analysis, like pragmatics. Politeness theory offers an explanation of why conversation includes indirectness and seems at times to develop quite inefficiently: interlocutors make efforts to show that they are honoring two universal human desires – to not be impeded (negative face needs) and to be approved of and accepted (positive face needs). Thus, face and politeness are concepts that link the social nature of talk to the cultural context in which it is embedded.

1. *What fields of science is Conversational Discourse of interest to and why?*

2. *How is conversation analysis connected to the Conversational Discourse?*
3. *Which are the main perspectives of studying a conversation? State the ideas given by various scholars.*
4. *How does ethnography of communication contrasts with conversation analysis?*
5. *Explain Hymes' SPEAKING framework.*
6. *What is a communicative competence according to ethnography of communication?*
7. *Which researcher contributed most to conversation analysis and what is his theory about it?*
8. *Who studied the idea of systematical turn-taking?*
9. *What is the social ritual in discourse analysis and how do the concepts of "face" and "politeness" include into it?*

**II. Fill in the gaps in the text below with the following words or word combinations:**

*communicative competence, dense social network, diffuse communities, focused communities, group identities, linguistic behavior, linguistic norms, loose social network, multiplex social network, social networks, sociolinguistics, speech community*

One approach to defining a \_\_\_\_\_ often taken in \_\_\_\_\_ is to say that the speakers in such a community share some kind of common feeling about \_\_\_\_\_ in that community, that is, they observe certain \_\_\_\_\_. The speakers within a speech community also share a sense of social norms in discourse and know when they are being followed or when the values of the community are being ignored. In other words they have \_\_\_\_\_ and social \_\_\_\_\_. Le Page and Tabouret-Keller (1985) and Trudgill (1986) distinguish between \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_, the main

difference being the degree to which people agree about the shared features of the community.

Another way of viewing how an individual relates to other individuals in society is to ask what \_\_\_\_\_ he or she participates in. You are said to be involved in a \_\_\_\_\_ if the people you know and interact with also know and interact with one another, otherwise it is a \_\_\_\_\_. You are also said to be involved in a \_\_\_\_\_ if the people within it are tied together in more than one way, that is, not just through work but also through other social activities.

### III. Match the terms with the definitions:

- |                               |  |
|-------------------------------|--|
| 1. conversation analysis (CA) | a) an approach to the study of how people organize and understand the social world around them, focusing on the phenomena of everyday activities |
| 2. discourse(s)               | b) a particular method of discourse analysis which studies conversational structure and coherence, based on ethnomethodology                     |
| 3. discourse analysis         | c) an approach to research which is an attempt to describe a culture and its practices from an insider's point of view                           |
| 4. ethnomethodology           | d) an approach to discourse analysis which   |



- 5. ethnography
  - incorporates the analysis of conversations with attention to broader macro-societal norms, values, and ideologies
  - e) language use combined with other social practices which produce and reproduce social categories and their values
- 6. interactional sociolinguistics
  - f) a term used to describe a wide range of approaches to the study of texts and conversation, some of which are sociolinguistic in nature

**IV. Refer the basic features to the conversation analysis or the ethnography of communication:**

is oriented to sociology; roots in anthropology and linguistics; explores a variety of speech events in “foreign” cultures; limits context to a discourse; considers wider definitions of context; bases its research on the idea of communicative competence

conversation analysis	ethnography of communication

**V. In small groups discuss the following statements and say whether they are true or false. Comment your answer.**

1. A man is free from rules of using language agreed by speech communities in which he lives;
2. Speech communities are large regions like an urban area with a common, distinct accent;
3. It is possible for speakers to share certain norms for language when they do not share linguistic systems;
4. The use of multilingual discourse may be part of the speech community norms;
5. The turn-taking system is independent from various aspects of the socio-cultural context of speech;
6. The social networks of particular speakers are fixed and do not change over their lifetimes;
7. People belong to different networks of different strengths.

**VI. Explain in what respects the following pairs of people belong to the same speech communities or to different ones:**

Presidents J. F. Kennedy and Margaret Thatcher; the Pope and the Archbishop of Canterbury; Professor Henry Higgins and Eliza Doolittle; Elizabeth II and John Lennon; Geoffrey Chaucer and George Bernard Shaw.

**VII. Using Hymes' SPEAKING categories define the communicative events of:**

- gossiping;
- advertising a new tool for onion chopping;
- priest service;
- new company president's greeting speech.

**VIII. Explain how the structure of talk shapes its audience and reciprocally how the audience influences unfolding talk. Give examples.**

**IX. Compare cultural and linguistic knowledge essential for a foreigner to perform the following tasks in the UK and Moldova:**

1. Meeting new people at work;
2. Getting acquainted at a bar or a club;
3. Asking for a day off work because you are sick;
4. Asking someone you are romantically interested in to go on a date;
5. Asking someone you are not romantically interested in if they want to have dinner;
6. Calling a business to find out if they are hiring;
7. Attending a funeral.

**X. Summarize in 2 sentences the essential differences between the Discourse Analysis and Grammar Analysis of a speech event.**

**XI. Compare and contrast the Roman Jakobson's model of communication and Hymes' SPEAKING framework.**

## UNIT THREE: LANGUAGE, SOCIAL CLASS AND STATUS

### Objectives:

- *To define the concepts of social class, style and register;*
- *to analyse the registers and the domains of gender and style in Sociolinguistics;*
- *to provide theories on various approaches in the interaction between the class and the style;*
- *to suggest examples of situations in different slangs and jargons.*

**I. The text below is written by Gregory R. Guy in Mesthrie, Rajend, *The Cambridge Handbook of Sociolinguistics*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2011 and adapted by the authors of this book. Read it, answer the questions that follow the text and do the other tasks:**

In all human societies, individuals will differ from one another in the way they speak. These differences are associated with sex and developmental level: women speak differently from men, and children from adults. These two dimensions of social variation in language are in part biologically determined (e.g. differences in laryngeal size producing different pitch levels for adult men and women), but in most societies they go beyond this to become conventional and socially symbolic. Such socio-symbolic aspects of language use serve an emblematic function: they identify the speaker as belonging to a particular group, or having a particular social identity.

In many societies some of the most important of these sociolinguistic divisions are associated with differences in social prestige, wealth, and power. Bankers clearly do not talk the same as busboys, and professors don't sound like plumbers. They signal the social differences between them by features of

their phonology, grammar, and lexical choice, just as they do extra-linguistically by their choices in clothing, cars, and so on.

Differences of status and power are the essence of social class distinctions, and it is these that we will have to examine in order to understand class differences in the use of language.

In a capitalist economy, the principal class division is between those who own productive capital and those who do not. The Marxist definition of class focuses on conflicting interests and differences in power, and not on status. Beyond the fundamental class division in Marxist thought other important distinctions are made which will be relevant in interpreting sociolinguistic differentiation. One is that people's conditions of work deeply affect their ideology and social outlook. "Conditions of work" refers to such things as whether one works in isolation or as part of a group, whether one is relatively autonomous or closely supervised, and whether one's daily work routine is fixed and regimented or varied and flexible.

Other groups who are neither capitalists nor industrial workers: managers, professionals, clerical workers – the groups that are commonly called the "middle class" benefit more from the system as it is, have more autonomy and flexibility at work, and work in relative isolation. Hence they value an ideology of individualism and are politically more conservative.

According to the Western Sociology Approach class conflicts are minimized, individual competition is emphasized. The distribution of socially symbolic characteristics such as socio-linguistic variables should, from this standpoint, be relatively gradient, finely stratified. This approach is common in Western sociology and has been a major influence in Sociolinguistics. Methodologically it has one clear attraction: it facilitates the

development of objective, quantifiable measures class and allows us to rank everyone in an empirical study on such a scale. Such methods were first introduced in linguistics by Labov in his classic study entitled *The Social Stratification of English in New York City* (SSENYC, 1966b).

SEC (socio-economic class) is quantified by Labov on the MFY (mobilization for Youth) scale by “a ten-point socio-economic index” which combines “three objective characteristics – occupation, education, and family income – into a single linear scale” (1966b: 171). Each individual studied was classified into one of four ranks on each of the three dimensions mentioned. Thus, on the education scale a person is at step 0 if he or she completed only primary school, step 1 for part of high school, step 2 for completing high school, and step 3 for any college-level education. SEC can thus range from a low of 0 to 9, for those with the highest rankings in occupation, education, and income. The most common groupings used are: 0–1, sometimes labeled “lower class”; 2–5, labeled “working class”; 6–8, labeled “lower-middle class”; and 9, the “upper middle class.” Furthermore, he also uses another 4-point scale called “social scale” (SC, contrasting with the 10-point SEC), based only on education and occupation, and not income.

In his quantitative analysis of the New York City data, Labov finds both kinds of stratification: post-vocalic /r/, and the vocalic variables (eh) and (oh) show relatively fine stratification, while the interdental fricatives are fairly sharply stratified: stop articulations are overwhelmingly confined to the lower and lower-working classes. The interesting social difference between the two types of cases is that (r) and the vowel variables show evidence of being changes in progress, while the variation

between stop and fricative articulations of (th) and (dh) is a long-standing one found in many English dialects.

Another challenge that confronts us in defining class is the interaction between this and other social dimensions, such as race, ethnicity, and sex. Just assigning a class ranking may require different procedures for men and women. The criteria used in an index scale – occupation, income, education, etc. – would often assign very different class levels to husband and wife in the same family, if applied individually. It would not be the least unusual to find a male doctor at the top of all three scales whose wife had only a moderate level of education and no occupation or income outside of the home. The normal solution to this problem is to assign the class ranking of the head of the family to all members of the family, including spouse and children.

Similar problems arise in connection with race and ethnicity. Where racism and prejudice exist, the power and status of an individual may depend more on color or nationality than on personal achievements, in fact one's occupational and educational prospects may be greatly circumscribed by race. In the United States, as in many Western countries, the class distribution of races is markedly skewed: blacks are far more likely to be found at the bottom of the scale. And linguistically, many African Americans are set clearly apart from surrounding white communities by the way they talk.

One of the principal concerns of Sociolinguistics over the past decades has been describing language in use. The study of sociolinguistic variation is essentially the description of the differential use of language by different social groups – particularly social classes. One of the most fundamental is the

concept of the speech community. This is the basic unit or object of study for a linguistics that is cognizant of the social setting of language. The other, equally important, criterion – shared norms – refers to a common set of evaluative judgments, a community-wide knowledge of what is considered good or bad and what is appropriate for what kind of (socially defined) occasion. Such norms may exist for all aspects of social behavior, but our interest of course is in linguistic norms.

One reason that shared norms form part of the definition of the speech community is that they are required to account for one of the principal sociolinguistic findings regarding variation by class and style, namely that the same linguistic variables are involved in the differentiation of social classes and speech styles. Study after study has shown that variables stratified by class are also the object of style-shifting: a variant favored by high-status speakers is used more by everyone in the community in their careful styles.

For example in the pronunciation of /r/ as a norm the norm assigns high status to consonantal pronunciations of /r/. This has consequences in two dimensions at once: high-status people talk this way all the time, and all strive to talk this way when they are on their “best linguistic behavior.”

A linguistic norm is a unifying feature of a community: everyone knows it and knowing it sets insiders apart from outsiders. But even though everyone may know what the high-status variants are, it is not necessarily true that all would want to adopt them in their everyday speech. For working-class people with no expectation of achieving higher social status, the use of such variants may be considered snobbish, effete, and an act of hostility to one’s family, friends, and neighbors.



1. *Why do individuals in different societies differ in the way they speak?*
2. *How is the speech of an individual connected with his/her social status and class belonging?*
3. *Give Marx's definition of "class" and explain it.*
4. *Explain the Western Sociology approach to language and class and state its contribution to the development of Sociolinguistics.*
5. *How is the Socio-economic class explained in terms of a ten point index and the three objective characteristics (education, occupation and family income)?*
6. *How can race, ethnicity and sex be included as objective characteristics into the study of linguistic products of individuals?*
7. *Give the term for the differential use of language by different social groups – particularly social classes in Sociolinguistics.*
8. *Explain the concept of Speech community.*
9. *What is a linguistic norm and why should it be respected? Give examples to illustrate.*

## **II. Say whether the statements are right or wrong:**

- 1) The social variation of the speech is totally conventional and does not depend on biological factors.
- 2) Language is the leading indicator of a person's social position.
- 3) The Marxist definition of class focuses on conflicting interests, differences in power, and status.
- 4) People's conditions of work are crucially important for forming their views and social position.

- 5) According to the Marxist theory middle class workers support emphasis on traditions and rely on the individual to maintain society.
- 6) Labov's research showed that those with higher socioeconomic status pronounced /r/ more frequently than those with lower socioeconomic status.
- 7) Within all social classes the use of standard forms of speech (prestige-varieties) increases with the formality of the speech style.

**III. List 3 major variables of social class in most of the modern societies.**

**IV. Name four factors that determine the social class according to the Labov's theory.**

**V. Explain the meaning and the essence of the following abbreviations used in the text:**

Abbreviation	Meaning	Essence
SEC		
MFY		
SSENYC		
SC		

**VI. Rate the linguistic and extra linguistic factors below in order of their importance for ascribing a person to a certain class at the first meeting (1 – the most important ... 10 the least important). Justify your choice:**

- behavior (confidence, posture)

- car
- clothes ( neat, tidy, fashionable, brandy, so on)
- education
- grammar accuracy
- jewelry
- other possessions
- place of dwelling (house, neighbourhood)
- pronunciation
- vocabulary

**VII. Using some evidence of your own explain how class determines language use in societies.**

Class	Phonological features	Grammar distinctions	Vocabulary features
Upper			
Middle			
Lower			

**VIII. Fill in the gaps in the text below with the following words and word combinations:**

*Convergence, distance, divergence, middle (x2), social class, style, upper (x2)*

It is notable that people are acutely aware of the differences in speech patterns that mark their (1)\_\_\_\_\_ and are often able to adjust their (2)\_\_\_\_\_ to the interlocutor. It is especially true for the members of the (3)\_\_\_\_\_ class who seem eager to use forms associated with (4)\_\_\_\_\_ class; however, in such efforts, the forms characteristic of (5)\_\_\_\_\_ class are often overused by the (6)\_\_\_\_\_ class members. The above mentioned process of adapting own speech to reduce social distance is called (7)\_\_\_\_\_ .

Sometimes, however, when people want to emphasize the social  
(8) \_\_\_\_\_ , they make use of the process called  
(9) \_\_\_\_\_ , purposefully using idiosyncratic forms.

**IX. Explain why assumptions based on sociolinguistic evidence are sometimes problematic.**

**X. Applying the theoretical material from the unit analyze the society in which you are and figure out 3 examples of social groups. Describe their linguistic features.**

## UNIT FOUR: LANGUAGE, SOCIAL CLASS AND STATUS (Part II: Class and Language Change)

### Objectives:

- *To define the concept of linguistic change;*
- *to analyse and compare the existing theories on the linguistic change topic;*
- *to suggest the contents of grammar books in two varieties of English.*

**I. The text below is written by Gregory R. Guy in Mesthrie, Rajend, *The Cambridge Handbook of Sociolinguistics*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2011 and adapted by the authors of this book. Read it, answer the questions that follow the text and do the other tasks:**

One of the most important areas in class and language studies is the description and explanation of linguistic change. The history of English cannot be understood without reference to the Norman Conquest, nor the genesis of creoles without reference to slavery. Thus, insofar as class is an issue in social change, it is an issue for historical linguistics. But the details of this historical interplay between language and society are not fully understood.

Who is the originator of the language change? Members of the dominant class originate innovations, motivated by an elitist desire to set themselves apart from the masses. Such changes would spread because people with the highest status are the ones others are most likely to emulate. This theory may account for some historical changes, such as the spread of innovations from dominant social centers in medieval European languages (e.g. the spread of Parisian French – the language of the French court – across France).

But in modern sociolinguistic work one striking fact emerges: not a single case has been recorded of untargeted innovation originating in the highest social class! An example of a targeted change introduced from the top is the consonantal pronunciation of post-vocalic /r/ of New York City (NYC), which is being imported into NYC English from the socially dominant “General American” dialect. The agents of this change are the upper classes. The important thing to notice is that this “innovation” does not bring anything new into the language but just involves dialectal redistribution of variants.

Modern studies of change in progress appeal mainly to social class dynamics as the driving force of Language, social class, and status. In this context two main theories have been proposed: one focusing on active innovation and the other on resistance to change. The first of these theories is Labov’s, developed in a number of works. He calls this “change of the level of conscious awareness,” and in a series of studies of changes in progress has found a social class distribution that he believes characterizes this type of innovation. These interior groups are the innovators, and in Labov’s view they have a positive social motivation to innovate, which is group solidarity or “local identity.” As a socio-symbolic device, a marker of belonging to their locality, their community, perhaps their class, emerging distinctive characteristics of their local dialect are favorably evaluated and adopted and extended by these groups. The changes serve a positive function of contrastive self-identification: members of the group have them, and outsiders are marked by their absence.

The other principal theory of class and language change has been articulated by Anthony Kroch (1978). Whereas Labov

focuses on the question of why some people are motivated to innovate, Kroch asks why others resist innovation. He suggests that change is the natural condition of language, but that some social groups avoid or suppress innovation. The motivation for this linguistic conservatism is the same as for political conservatism: a favorable position in the existing status quo.

The one substantial difference in these theories is in their predictions about what should happen at the lower end of the class hierarchy. In Labov's view the lower class lags in sound change, but according to Kroch these people have the least investment in the status quo and should innovate freely, probably even more so than the working class.

Class differentiation of language is ultimately of great importance for linguistic theory. Noam Chomsky claims: "linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a complement homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly". But if we wish to achieve even a minimal level of adequacy for our theories, it is necessary to move beyond this imaginary mono-stylistic idiolect and confront the problem of sociolinguistic variation.

There are three principal areas where this will be an issue for linguistic theory. Firstly, there is the form of the grammar, which should be designed so as to accommodate systematic lectal (a social or regional variety of speech) differences. Secondly, there is the problem of variation in meaning. And finally, there is the fundamental distinction between *langue* and *parole*, or competence and performance, which is called into question by some of the basic findings of sociolinguistics.

One of the basic concerns of modern linguistics is writing grammars. A grammar is supposed to be a formal account of the

structure and workings of some language. An adequate grammar must address the question of the scope of its object of description, the language, in that it will have to define the limits of the language community it is attempting to account for, and to accommodate, at least some kinds of social differences in language. We cannot write a grammar of English unless we are prepared to say what is and is not English, or perhaps what is only partly English, and to account for the linguistic differences which this great abstraction encompasses.

Studies of language and social class help us to do this in several ways. Firstly, they help delimit the language by identifying speech communities, dialects, and socio-lects. An instance is the behavior of different social classes within one speech community that we have considered above. While these classes may differ linguistically in many respects, they do so in an orderly, systematic fashion, all sharing the same norms for language use, and all shifting the same way in more formal contexts. Furthermore, the very form of the grammar should be partly determined by the nature of such variation. As an example, suppose that we had two competing theories of the syntax and semantics of negation in English, both of which adequately account for the common intuitions of their upper-middle-class authors, who only use single negation. Suppose further that one of these theories fails completely if applied to structures involving multiple negation, while the other theory, via some simple alternative setting of a parameter or feature, provides a straightforward account of multiple negation. Given our knowledge of class dialects of English, which tells us that multiple negation is used every day by most working-class speakers of English, the latter theory is obviously to be preferred, although a linguist who postulates a fictional homogeneous



speech community might easily choose the inadequate alternative.

The second problem for linguistic theory is variation in the meaning systems of language. Studies have shown class differences in syntax (Lavandera 1975, 1978), lexical choice (Sankoff, Thibault & Bérubé 1978), discourse (Horvath 1986), and intonation (Guy & Vonwiller 1984) which could all affect the meaning of a text. This presents a challenge for our theories of semantics and communication.

Finally, there is the problem of langue and parole, recast by Chomsky as competence and performance. Langue and competence are supposed to incorporate the features of a language common to all speakers, the knowledge they must share in order to use the language appropriately.

But as we have seen, speakers share more than mere grammaticality judgments. They also have a passive knowledge which allows them to recognize and interpret other social class varieties of the language, and an active knowledge which allows them to adapt their own syntax, phonology, and lexicon to different situations, audiences, topics, etc. In other words they have a communicative competence, common to all members of a speech community, which encompasses sociolinguistic variability.

- 1. Which is the connection between class and language studies and linguistic change?*
- 2. How can we explain the phenomenon of linguistic change?*
- 3. Name the two theories of linguistic change given in the text above and compare them.*

4. *Comment upon Noam Chomsky's quotation about the linguistic theory in terms of class differentiation of language.*
5. *Which are the three principal areas that are considered an issue for linguistic theory in terms of linguistic variation?*
6. *What are the conditions of writing a good grammar of English?*
7. *How is grammar connected to social class variation? (Comment upon the case of double negation.)*
8. *Recall any literary work you have read in your English literature course and try to identify the cases of double negation used by various characters. What is their status in the society?*
9. *Which way the variation of the meaning systems of language causes a problem for language theory?*
10. *Explain the difference in terminology: language (En), lang & parole (Fr.).*
11. *How is the linguistic competence of an individual manifested in speech?*

**II. Mark the following statements as True (T) or False (F).**

**Correct the false ones.**

1. Linguistic innovations appear spontaneously across society and follow unchanging patterns in their adoption
2. Social variation inevitably accompanies any linguistic change.
3. All members of the speech community are using the same forms (either old or new ones) at a given moment in the course of a change.

4. There is no diachronic proof for the idea that upper class can successfully implement a linguistic change in order to set themselves apart from the masses.
5. The highest social class creates no serious untargeted innovation in modern times.
6. The consonantal pronunciation of post-vocalic /r/ originates from the NYC English.
7. Labov's research demonstrates that linguistic variation is pervasive and highly structured, revealing regular patterns of co-occurrence between language forms and social classes.
8. Anthony Kroch denies that change is the natural condition of language, and suggests that some social groups reject innovation.
9. According to Kroch the lower people' class is the more freely they innovate.
10. Standard English is the 'official' way of speaking that has standardized grammar rules.

**III. Fill in the gaps in the text below using the following words and word combinations:**

*euphemisms; fancy; fashionable; middle classes (x2); neologisms; not upper class (x2); plain; posh; social classes ; traditional; upper class; working classes.*

British linguist Alan Ross, Professor of Linguistics at Birmingham University, coined the terms 'U' and 'non-U' to refer to the differences in English language usage between \_\_\_\_\_. 'U' indicated \_\_\_\_\_, and 'non-U', \_\_\_\_\_, though it focused on the aspiring \_\_\_\_\_. Ross considered that the \_\_\_\_\_ preferred to use \_\_\_\_\_ or \_\_\_\_\_ words, even \_\_\_\_\_ and often \_\_\_\_\_, in their attempts to make themselves

sound more refined. The \_\_\_\_\_ according to Ross often stuck to the \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_ words, since being conscious of their status they had no need to make themselves sound more refined. The speech of the \_\_\_\_\_. was not dealt with. Nancy Mitford, an English journalist and novelist, popularized the ideas of Ross and wrote about \_\_\_\_\_ people in the 1950s. Though society is always changing, awareness of class and the language associated with class is still very important in England.

**IV. Explain the meaning of some favourite words of posh people (the words are underlined):**

1. Pass me those bins so I can have a good look at that Hooded Warbler.
2. You're jolly well going to write your thank-you letters whether you like it or not.
3. Darling, please stop being beastly to your sister.
4. There's no need to fly into a bate just because I confiscated your horse.
5. It's been yonks since I wore my tiara.
6. I've been feeling seedy all morning.
7. Has anyone seen my gigs? I'm squinting at the Times crossword without them.
8. I know it's a bind, but you may have to sell one of your castles.
9. The dog has gnawed a hole in my jersey, may I borrow one of yours?
10. I have to go and watch Archie play rugger on Saturday.

**V. Rewrite the following sentence in the Standard English:**

Has it been yonks since you got your bins out to stare at the ravishing games mistress?

**VI. Choose the "non-U" word from the list:**

- a)
  - drawing room
  - sitting room
  - lounge
- b)
  - toilet
  - lavatory
  - loo
- c)
  - sick
  - rich
  - bike
  - cycle

**VII. Choose the "U" word from the list:**

- a)
  - dentures
  - couch
  - ill
  - looking glass
- b)
  - spectacles
  - glasses
  - serviette
  - settee
- c)
  - glasses
  - dessert
  - napkin
  - toilet

**VIII. Match the posh word on the left with the less posh version on the right:**

- |                |              |
|----------------|--------------|
| 1. Alcohol     | a) Banter    |
| 2. Antique/Old | b) Booze     |
| 3. Hello       | c) Deliveroo |
| 4. Napkin      | d) Hey       |

- |                         |                         |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 5. Pudding              | e) Lounge               |
| 6. Repartee             | f) Serviette            |
| 7. Sitting/Drawing Room | g) Settee/Couch         |
| 8. Sofa                 | h) Sweet/Dessert/Afters |
| 9. Takeaway             | i) Uni                  |
| 10. University          | j) Vintage              |

**IX. Group the following phrases into Upper Class and Non-Upper Class equivalents in the table below:**

*(Do you) get (me)?/ (I'm) done./ Can I get..?/ (Do you) understand (me)?/ Full English/ What?/ (I'm) finished ./ Cooked breakfast / May I have.. ?/ Pardon?*

Upper Class phrases	Non-Upper Class equivalents
•	•
•	•
•	•
•	•
•	•

**X. Explain the difference between a dialect and a socio-lect.**

**XI. Search the Internet and say how the representatives of different social groups would name such phenomena listed below in English and in your native language:**

*death /lavatory /something really good/being under the influence of alcohol*

**XII. Elaborate on the challenges the class variations may create in dubbing/translating movies or cartoons.**

## UNIT FIVE: BILINGUALS AND BILINGVISM

### Objectives:

- *To define the concepts of bilingualism and multilingualism;*
- *to determine the competences of bilinguals;*
- *to ground the importance of Sociolinguistics in studying a foreign language;*
- *to suggest strategies of Sociolinguistic research on different levels.*

**I. The text below is entitled “Bilingualism and Bilinguals”. It is written by members of Linguistic Society of America and is adapted by the authors of this book. Read it and answer the questions that follow the text:**

A bilingual person is someone who speaks two languages. A person who speaks more than two languages is called 'multilingual' (although the term 'bilingualism' can be used for both situations). Multilingualism is not unusual; in fact, it is the norm for most of the world's societies. It's possible for a person to know and use three, four, or even more languages fluently.

Many bilingual people grow up speaking two languages. Often in America such people are the children of immigrants; these children grow up speaking their parents' native language in their childhood home while speaking English at school. Many bilinguals, however, are not immigrants; it is not uncommon for people born in the U.S. to speak English at school or at work and to use another language at home.

Children can also become bilingual if their parents speak more than one language to them, or if some other significant person in their life (such as a grandparent or caretaker) speaks to them consistently in another language. Sometimes a child will grow up

in a household in which each parent speaks a different language; in that case, the child may learn to speak to each parent in that parent's language. In such a way, a young child who is regularly exposed to two languages from an early age will most likely become a fluent native speaker of both languages. The exposure must involve interaction; a child growing up in an English-speaking household who is exposed to Spanish only through Spanish-language television will not become a Spanish-English bilingual, but a child who is regularly spoken to in both English and Spanish will.

It is also possible to learn a second language sometime after early childhood, but the older you get the harder it is to learn to speak a new language as well as a native speaker. Many linguists believe there is a 'critical period' (lasting roughly from birth until puberty) during which a child can easily acquire any language that he or she is regularly exposed to. Under this view, the structure of the brain changes at puberty, and after that it becomes harder to learn a new language.

In some countries, nearly everybody is bilingual or multilingual. In parts of India, for example, a small child usually knows several languages. In many European countries, children are encouraged to learn a second language - typically English. In fact, the U.S. is quite unusual among the countries of the world in that many of its citizens speak only English, and they are rarely encouraged to become fluent in any other language.

There is no evidence to suggest that it is any harder for a child to acquire two languages than it is for the child to acquire one language. As long as people are regularly speaking with the child in both languages, the child will acquire them both easily. A child does not have to be exceptional or have any special language



ability to become bilingual; as long as the child is exposed to two languages throughout early childhood, he or she will acquire them both.

There are a lot of advantages to knowing more than one language. Firstly, many linguists feel that knowing a second language actually benefits a child's cognitive development. Secondly, if the child comes from a family that has recently immigrated to the U.S., the family may speak a language other than English at home and may still have strong ties to their ethnic roots. In this case, being able to speak the language of the family's ethnic heritage may be important for the child's sense of cultural identity. To be unable to speak the family's language could make a child feel like an outsider within his or her own family; speaking the family's language gives the child a sense of identity and belonging. Thirdly, in an increasingly global marketplace, it's an advantage for anyone to know more than one language - regardless of whether one's family is new to the U.S. And finally, for people of any age or profession, knowing a second language encourages cross-cultural awareness and understanding.

English is in no danger of disappearing any time soon; it is firmly established both in America and in countries throughout the world. In fact, no language has ever held as strong a position in the world as English does today. Some people worry when they see Spanish showing up on billboards and pay phones, but in a neighborhood with a high Spanish-speaking population, it makes perfectly good sense for public information and instructions to be printed in both English and Spanish. The truth is that there will probably always be immigrants in the U.S., coming from a wide variety of countries, who cannot speak English but whose grandchildren and great-grandchildren will end up being native

English speakers. The reason for this is the fact that it is much easier for children to learn another language than it is for adults. Adults who immigrate to the U.S., especially later in life, may never really become fluent in English. It's not that they don't want to speak English; it's simply much more difficult for them to learn it well. Their children, however, will be able to pick up English easily from their friends and the society around them.

These second-generation immigrants, the children of the adult immigrants, are likely to be bilingual, speaking their parents' language at home and English at school and in the English-speaking community. When they grow up and have children of their own, those children - the third generation - will most likely speak only English, both at home with their bilingual parents and in the English-speaking community. This three-generation pattern has been repeating itself for many years, through wave after wave of immigrants.

Many adults today who speak only English can remember grandparents and great-grandparents who spoke very little English, who instead spoke mostly Polish, Italian, German, or Swedish - the language of the country they grew up in. On the contrary, there are many advantages to bilingualism, both for the individual and for the society as a whole. English enjoys tremendous dominance in the U.S. and in the world. But if history is any indication, there will always be people in the U.S. who cannot speak English - and they will have grandchildren who do.

- 1) *What is to be bilingual?*
- 2) *Which is the way we become bilingual?*
- 3) *Which way is the child exposed to more languages?*
- 4) *When do children acquire the second language? Why?*
- 5) *What is English as a second language?*

- 6) *What are the advantages of acquiring two languages at once?*
- 7) *How is bilingualism manifested in America?*
- 8) *What problems do immigrants have in acquiring American English?*
- 9) *Which is the attitude to English from the immigrants of different generations? Why?*
- 10) *Will any other language substitute English on the global level in the nearest future?*

**II. In the table below write the definitions to the following terms:**

bilingual	
multilingual	
critical period	
cognitive development	
ethnic heritage	
cross-cultural awareness	

**III. Mark the following statements as true (T) or false (F):**

- a) Anyone can become bilingual
- b) Most people in the world are bilingual.
- c) Bilinguals may mix their languages, inserting words from one language when speaking another.
- d) Bilinguals are able to quickly transition from one language to another.
- e) Bilinguals may be stronger in one language than the other.
- f) That it is harder for a child to acquire two languages than one language.
- g) Knowing a second language actually benefits a child's cognitive development.

**IV. Select the correct options to complete the following text:**

Bilingualism can be acquired in (1) *various/ specific/ limited* ways and at different stages of life. Simultaneous early bilingualism refers to the situation of a child who learns two languages at the same time, from (2) *birth/ infancy/ adolescence*. Early successive bilingualism refers to the situation of a child who has already acquired a first language in part and who then learns a second language during (3) *childhood/ adulthood/ old age*. Early successive bilingualism is also called “compound bilingualism”, because the child's two languages are combined to form a (4) *linguistic/ dialectal/ hybrid* system. Late bilingualism refers to the situation of a person who learns a second language in (5) *adulthood/ old age/ infancy*.

Additionally, there are two main ways of using both languages, which are additive bilingualism and (6) *subtractive/ passive/ concurrent* bilingualism. The term “additive bilingualism” refers to the situation where a person has acquired both languages in a balanced way. This is strong (7) *bilingualism/ monolingualism/ trilingualism*. Subtractive bilingualism refers to the situation where a person learns a second language at the expense of the first language, especially if the first language is a (8) *minority/ majority/ national* language. In this case of subtractive bilingualism, fluency in the first language (9) *decreases/ increases/ remains the same*, while fluency in the other language increases.

Furthermore, there is passive bilingualism, which involves understanding second languages without being able to (10) *speak/ read/ write* it.

**V. Name the type of bilingualism a person is most likely to acquire in the following circumstances:**

a speaker who uses both French and English in his/her daily life	
a child moves with his family to another country, where the dominant language is not his mother tongue	
a child born into a family with two parents who speak two different languages	
a speaker whose mother tongue is French but who has very few opportunities to speak it, being in an English-speaking country with a mainly English-speaking environment	

**VI. In small groups do the following tasks:**

- a) Provide examples and elaborate on the process of how children attain proficiency in two languages.
- b) Explain how the critical period influences the process of acquiring language.
- c) Explain the three-generation pattern of language acquisition among immigrants and provide examples.
- d) Identify the circumstances in which the term 'bilingualism' is applied and explain the distinction between bilingualism and multilingualism.
- e) Enumerate the ways for children to achieve bilingualism and explore the possibility of adults becoming bilingual as well.

- f) Provide a detailed justification for the reasons why adults find it more challenging to acquire a new language than children do.
- g) Evaluate the significance of children from immigrant families obtaining their familial language.
- h) Elaborate on the benefits of knowing multiple languages for both individuals and society, using examples to support your points.

**VII. Discussion questions:**

- a) Is it harder for a child to acquire two languages than one language? What is your experience with learning a second language? Do you agree that it is easier to learn a language when you are young?
- b) Do you think it is important for people to learn languages other than their native language? Why or why not?
- c) In your opinion, should the United States encourage more people to become bilingual or multilingual? Why or why not?
- d) Do you think it would be beneficial for education in your country to place a greater emphasis on teaching multiple languages to children? Why or why not?

**VIII. Write a short essay discussing your thoughts on the importance of bilingualism or multilingualism. Include reasons why you believe it is important and any personal experiences you have had with learning another language.**

**IX. Design an education plan to teach multilingualism in a school of your choosing. In three to four paragraphs, write a plan of how you conceptualize an effective multilingual program being implemented, taking into consideration:**

- the age the program should begin;
- the number of languages the children would learn;
- the frequency of the language classes;
- whether the classes would be immersion classes or not;
- for how many years your program would ideally run.

**X. Project work: Research and analyze the lives and careers of three multilingual celebrities of your choice.**

- Identify three well-known celebrities who are multilingual and have demonstrated proficiency in more than one language.
- Research the background of each celebrity, including their language learning experiences and how they became proficient in multiple languages.
- Analyze how being multilingual has impacted their careers and contributed to their success.
- Compare and contrast the language learning experiences and linguistic abilities of the three celebrities you have chosen.
- Present your findings in an organized and creative way, such as a written report, a video presentation, or a visual infographic.
- Provide references for your sources and ensure that all information is properly cited.

## UNIT SIX: LANGUAGE VARIATION

### Objectives:

- *To define the concept of a dialect;*
- *to characterize the linguistic community;*
- *to compare the regional and social dialects;*
- *to analyse discourse in terms of language variation.*

**I. The text below is taken from “An Introduction to Sociolinguistics”, published at Oxford, UK in 2015, pp. 141-151, written by Ronald Wardhaugh & Jannet M. Fullern and summarized by the authors of the given book. Read it and answer the questions that follow the text:**

Sociolinguists today are generally more concerned with **social variation** in language than with **regional variation**. However, if we are to gain a sound understanding of the various procedures used in studies of social variation, we should look at least briefly at previous work in regional dialectology.

**The mapping of regional dialects** has had a long history in **linguistics** (see Petyt 1980, Chambers and Trudgill 1998, and Wakelin 1977). In fact, it is a well-established part of the study of how languages change over time, that is, of diachronic or historical linguistics.

Traditionally, **dialect geography** has employed assumptions and methods drawn from historical linguistics, and many of its results have been used to confirm findings drawn from other historical sources, for example, archeological findings, population studies, and written records. In this view, languages differentiate internally as speakers distance themselves from one another over time and space; the changes result in the creation of



dialects of the languages. Over sufficient time, the resulting dialects might become new languages as speakers of the resulting varieties become unintelligible to one another. (Latin>French, Italian, Spanish, Romanian)

In the historical comparative model of language change and dialect differentiation, it should always be possible to relate any variation found within a language to the two factors of time and distance alone; for example, the British and American varieties, or dialects, of English are separated by well over two centuries of political independence and by the Atlantic Ocean; Northumbrian and Cockney English are nearly 300 miles and many centuries apart.

In each case, linguists try to explain any differences they find with models familiar to the historical linguist, models which incorporate such concepts as the 'family tree', phonemic 'split' (English /f/ and /v/ are now distinctive phonemes whereas once they were phonetic variants, or allophones, of a single phoneme) or phonemic 'coalescence' (English *ea* and *ee* spellings, as in *beat* and *beet*, were once designated different pronunciations but they have now coalesced into the same sound), the 'comparative method' of reconstruction (English *knave* and German *Knabe* come from the same source).

**The regional variation** began being recorded. Dialect geographers have traditionally attempted to reproduce their findings on maps in what they call **dialect atlases**. They try to show the geographical boundaries of the distribution of a particular linguistic feature by drawing a line on a map. Such a line is called **an isogloss**: on one side of the line people say something one way, e.g.: pronounce *bath* with the first vowel of *father*, and on the other side they use some other pronunciation,

for example, the vowel of *cat*. Quite often, when the boundaries for different linguistic features are mapped in this way the isoglosses show a considerable amount of criss-crossing. At the same time quite often, the dialect boundary coincides with some geographical or political factor, for example, a mountain ridge, a river, or the boundary of an old principality. Isoglosses can also show that a particular set of linguistic features appears to be spreading from one location into neighboring locations. In the 1930s and 1940s, Boston and Charleston were the two focal areas for the temporary spread of r-lessness in the eastern United States.

Speaking about **focal and relic areas** one can say that places like London and Boston are obviously focal areas; places like Martha's Vineyard in New England – it remained r-pronouncing in the 1930s and 1940s even as Boston dropped the pronunciation – and Devon in the extreme southwest of England are relic areas. Wolfram (2004) calls the dialect of such an area a **remnant dialect** and, in doing so, reminds us that not everything in such a dialect is a relic of the past for such areas also have their own innovations.

The **Rhenish Fan** is one of the best-known sets of isoglosses in Europe, setting off Low German to the north from High German to the south. The set comprises the modern reflexes (i.e., results) of the pre-Germanic stop consonants /p/, /t/, and /k/. These have remained stops [p, t, k] in Low German but have become the fricatives [f, s, x] in High German (i.e., Modern Standard German), giving variant forms for 'make' [makən], [maxən]; 'that' [dat], [das]; 'village' [dorp], [dorf]; and 'I' [ik], [ix]. Across most of Germany these **isoglosses** run virtually together from just north of Berlin in an east–west direction until they reach the Rhine. At that point they 'fan'. Each area within the fan has a different

incidence of stops and fricatives in these words. The change of stops to fricatives, called the **Second German Consonant Shift**, appears to have spread along the Rhine from the south of Germany to the north. Political and ecclesiastical frontiers along the Rhine were important in that spread as were centers like Cologne and Trier. The area covered by the fan itself is sometimes called a transition area (in this case, between Low and High German) through which a change is progressing, in contrast to either a **focal or relic area**.

There have been some recent developments in **linguistic atlas** work which hold promise for future discoveries. One, for example, is Kretzschmar's work on the Linguistic Atlas of the Middle and South Atlantic States (LAMSAS). He shows (1996) how it is possible to use quantitative methods to demonstrate the probability of occurrence of specific words or sounds in specific areas. Another quantitative survey (Labov et al. 2005) used a very simple sampling technique to survey the whole of North American English in order to produce the Atlas of North American English (ANAE), a study of all the cities on the continent with populations of over fifty thousand. Still another example is Labov's atlas. This study showed that 'regional dialects are getting stronger and more diverse as language change is continuing and that the structural divisions between them are very sharp, with very tight bundling of the isoglosses' (Labov et al. 2005, 348).

In a different approach to dialects, this one focusing on how a specific dialect emerged, Lane (2000) used a variety of economic, demographic, and social data from 3,797 residents of Thyborøn, Denmark, covering the years 1890–1996, to reveal how the local dialect 'is the result of a constant situation that led to the formation of a new dialect as a result of massive immigration . . . a new system created largely out of materials

selected from competing systems in contact and from innovations that indexed the new local linguistic community' (Lane 2000, 287). It was clearly another triumph for an aspiration to achieve a local identity.

We can see a similar emphasis on using traditional dialect materials to help us account for current language varieties in recent writings on new Englishes (see Gordon et al. 2004, Hickey 2004, and Trudgill 2004). This discussion of dialect geography raises a number of issues which are important to our concerns. One is the kind of variation that we should try to account for in language. Another has to do with sampling the population among which we believe there is variation. Still another is the collection, analysis, and treatment of the data that we consider relevant. And, finally, there are the overriding issues of what implications there are in our findings for theoretical matters concerning the nature of language, variation in language, the language learning and language-using abilities of human beings, and the processes involved in language change.

- 1) *Which are the two types of variation?*
- 2) *What is mapping of regional dialects?*
- 3) *Which way is dialect geography connected to historical linguistics?*
- 4) *State the two factors in terms of which it is possible to relate any variation. Give examples.*
- 5) *Explain the phonemic split of the English /f/ and /v/ as well as other cases.*
- 6) *What is a dialect atlas? Give examples of various atlases.*
- 7) *Explain the term "isogloss" by providing examples.*
- 8) *What is the difference between a focal and a relic area?*
- 9) *Explain the phenomenon of the Rhenish Fan.*

- 10) *How is the change of stops to fricatives called?*
- 11) *What is Lane's approach to dialects?*
- 12) *Which are the ways of accounting for current language varieties in recent writings on new Englishes?*

**II. Mark the following statements as true (T) or false (F):**

- a) Dialect geography is a relatively new area in linguistics.
- b) To understand studies of social variation, it is not necessary to look at previous work in regional dialectology.
- c) Mapping regional dialects is a recent development in linguistics.
- d) Dialect geography traditionally employs methods and assumptions from sociolinguistics.
- e) Linguists can explain any variation found within a language with time and distance alone.
- f) Isoglosses can show the geographical boundaries of the distribution of a particular linguistic feature.
- g) Focal areas are places that remain r-pronouncing in the 1930s and 1940s, even as other areas drop the pronunciation.
- h) The Rhenish Fan is one of the best-known sets of isoglosses in North America.
- i) The change of stops to fricatives in the Second German Consonant Shift appears to have spread along the Rhine from the north of Germany to the south.
- j) There have been recent developments in linguistic atlas work that hold promise for future discoveries, such as Kretzschmar's work on the Linguistic Atlas of the Middle and South Atlantic States (LAMSAS)

### III. Choose the best answer to the following questions:

1. *What is the focus of sociolinguists today?*
  - a) Regional variation in language
  - b) Social variation in language
  - c) Historical linguistics
  - d) Dialect geography
  
2. *Which field of linguistics traditionally employed assumptions and methods from historical linguistics?*
  - a) Sociolinguistics
  - b) Dialect geography
  - c) Syntax
  - d) Phonology
  
3. *What is a remnant dialect?*
  - a) A dialect that is no longer spoken
  - b) A dialect that preserves linguistic features that have been lost in other dialects
  - c) A dialect that has not undergone any linguistic changes
  - d) A dialect that is spoken by a small number of people
  
4. *What are isoglosses?*
  - a) Boundaries of the distribution of a particular linguistic feature
  - b) Maps that show the distribution of a particular linguistic feature
  - c) Linguistic features that are shared across different dialects
  - d) A type of linguistic change that affects the pronunciation of consonants

5. *What is the Rhenish Fan?*
- a) A set of isoglosses that separates Low German from High German
  - b) A type of dialect spoken in the Middle and South Atlantic States of the US
  - c) A type of linguistic innovation that originated in Germany
  - d) A type of dialect that has remained unchanged for centuries
6. *What is the Second German Consonant Shift?*
- a) A type of dialect boundary that coincides with a geographical or political factor
  - b) A type of linguistic innovation that originated in Germany
  - c) A type of linguistic change that affects the pronunciation of consonants
  - d) A type of dialect that is spreading from one location to neighboring locations
7. *What is the historical comparative model of language change and dialect differentiation based on?*
- a) Social variation in language
  - b) Phonological features of dialects
  - c) Time and distance factors
  - d) Written records of languages
8. *What is the purpose of dialect atlases?*
- a) To show the geographical boundaries of the distribution of a particular linguistic feature
  - b) To explain the differences found between different dialects

- c) To confirm findings drawn from other historical sources
- d) To map out the spread of linguistic innovations

9. *What is the difference between a focal area and a relic area?*

- a) A focal area is a place where a dialect is spreading, while a relic area is a place where a dialect is dying out.
- b) A focal area is a place where a dialect is more innovative, while a relic area is a place where a dialect is more conservative.
- c) A focal area is a place where a dialect is spoken by more people, while a relic area is a place where a dialect is spoken by fewer people.
- d) A focal area is a place where a dialect is spoken by younger people, while a relic area is a place where a dialect is spoken by older people.

10. *What recent development in linguistic atlas work is mentioned in the text?*

- a) A new method for identifying dialect boundaries
- b) A new way of mapping out the spread of linguistic innovations
- c) A new type of dialect that has emerged in the Middle and South Atlantic States of the US
- d) A new type of phonological feature that has been discovered in German dialects

**IV. Match the following terms from the text (1-10) with their corresponding definitions (A-J):**

- 1. Dialect geography \_\_\_\_\_
- 2. Isogloss \_\_\_\_\_



3. Remnant dialect \_\_\_\_\_
4. High German \_\_\_\_\_
5. Low German \_\_\_\_\_
6. Historical comparative model \_\_\_\_\_
7. Linguistic atlas \_\_\_\_\_
8. Rhenish Fan \_\_\_\_\_
9. Focal area \_\_\_\_\_
10. Relic area \_\_\_\_\_

- A. The traditional attempt to map regional dialects on a map.
- B. A dialect that has retained some features that have been lost in other varieties of the same language.
- C. A model that attempts to relate any variation found within a language to the factors of time and distance.
- D. A set of isoglosses in Europe that separates Low German from High German.
- E. A line on a map that shows the geographical boundaries of a particular linguistic feature.
- F. A collection of maps that show the distribution of linguistic features in a particular region.
- G. The modern standard variety of the German language that developed from the High German dialects.
- H. An area that has retained many features of an earlier stage of the language.
- I. The dialects of German spoken in the lowlands of northern Germany.
- J. An area that is characterized by a high degree of linguistic innovation and change.

**V. Describe the difference between social variation and regional variation in language, as studied by sociolinguists.**

**VI. Explain the meaning of the words and phrases from regional dialects of British English:**

- a) snowblossom
- b) time for our snap
- c) mask the tea
- d) the place was all frousted
- e) clinker bells
- f) a great mawther
- g) I'm really stalled
- h) a bairn
- i) an effet
- j) I'll fill up your piggy, it's time for bed.

**VII. Analyze the provided texts and comment on variations in language use depending on location, social group, and age range. Rewrite the texts in a more formal language.**

- "Hey y'all, what's up? Howdy partner, everything's good, just hanging out with some folks."
- "Yo, what's crackin'? Chillin' with the homies, you know how it is."
- "Hey guys, what's happening? Not much, just catching up with some friends."
- "Sup peeps? Just kickin' it with the squad, nothing special."

**VIII. Match the informal greetings with their formal equivalents:**

- |                          |                                    |
|--------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. Hey y'all, what's up? | a) What is happening with you all? |
| 2. Sup peeps?            | b) What are you up to?             |
| 3. Yo, what's crackin'?  | c) How are you doing,              |

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| 4. Hey guys, what's happening?   | my friend?<br>d) What's going on, people? |
| 5. Howdy partner, everything's good, just hanging out with some folks. | e) What's up, everyone                    |

**IX. Identify the differences in language use between the informal greetings: a) Hey guys b) Sup peeps c) Howdy partner d) Yo e) Hey y'all.** Which greetings are more commonly used in certain regions or among certain groups of people? How might the use of these greetings affect social dynamics and relationships between speakers?

**X. Explain the historical background and methods used in dialect geography to map regional dialects and differentiate internal languages over time.**

**XI. Use the historical comparative model of language change and dialect differentiation to relate any variation found within a language to time and distance alone.**

**XII. Analyze the Rhenish Fan as a well-known set of isoglosses in Europe that distinguishes Low German from High German, and describe the Second German Consonant Shift.**

**XIII. Evaluate recent developments in linguistic atlas work, such as Kretzschmar's work on the Linguistic Atlas of the Middle and South Atlantic States (LAMSAS), and their potential for future discoveries.**

**XIV. In small groups do the following tasks:** a) Conduct a comparative analysis of two different dialects spoken in the same

region, and discuss their similarities and differences in terms of pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary; b) Choose a social dialect (e.g., a dialect spoken by a particular social group) and a regional dialect (e.g., a dialect spoken in a particular region) and compare and contrast their features. Present the results of your study to the rest of the group; c) Compare and contrast AAVE with other non-standard varieties of English, such as Cockney or Appalachian English, and explore the similarities and differences in their linguistic and cultural contexts; d) Discuss how the use of African American Vernacular English can be a form of resistance against linguistic and cultural oppression. Analyze how language is intertwined with social, political, and economic power dynamics.

**XV. Analyze the use of African American Vernacular English (AAVE) in the following dialogue and identify specific linguistic features that distinguish it from Standard American English:**

Jamal: "Yo, what's good, my man?"

Tyrone: "Ain't nothin' much, just chillin'. How 'bout you?"

Jamal: "Same, same. Just tryna stay cool in this heat, you feel me?"

Tyrone: "Yeah, I hear you. It's hot as hell out here."

Jamal: "For real. Hey, you heard about that new spot downtown? They say they got the best soul food in the city."

Tyrone: "Nah, I ain't heard about it. You tryna go check it out?"

Jamal: "Yeah, I'm down. Maybe we can hit up the barbershop first, though. My fade is lookin' a little rough."

Tyrone: "Ha, I feel you. Let's do it then."

**XVI. Case study: Read the conversation between two friends in Cockney English that takes place in the park and complete the tasks that come after it.**

*Bob: "Alright mate, 'ow ya doin'?"*

*Rob: "I'm just 'angin' around in the East End, tryin' to keep meself outta trouble."*

*Bob: "Cor blimey, it's been a right pig's ear of a day, ain't it?"*

*Rob: "Yeah, it has been. I fancy a nice cuppa Rosie Lee, maybe with a bit of jam roly-poly on the side."*

*Bob: "Sounds good to me. Anyways, I'm off to see me old china plate down the rub-a-dub-dub for a few pints. You comin'?"*

*Rob: "Nah, I think I'll pass this time. Maybe next time. Ta-ra for now!"*

1. Match the Cockney words/slang used in the text with their Standard English equivalent.

<b>Cockney Words/Slang</b>	<b>Standard English Equivalent</b>
1. tryin'	a) a mess
2. 'angin' around	b) a type of pudding
3. anyways	c) an area in London
4. Cor blimey	d) an expression of surprise
5. cuppa	e) anyway
6. down the rub-a-dub-dub	f) cup of
7. keep meself outta	g) drinks
8. fancy	h) friend
9. few pints	i) going to
10. jam roly-poly	j) Goodbye for now!
11. East End	k) hanging around
12. mate	l) how are you?
13. off to	m) keep myself out of
14. old china plate	n) mate (Cockney rhyming slang)

- |                    |                |
|--------------------|----------------|
| 15. on the side    | o) pub         |
| 16. 'ow ya doin'?  | p) served with |
| 17. pig's ear      | q) tea         |
| 18. Rosie Lee      | r) trouble     |
| 19. see            | s) trying      |
| 20. Ta-ra for now! | t) visit       |
| 21. trouble        | u) want        |

2. Answer the following questions based on the text:

- What is the speaker doing in the East End?
- How has the speaker's day been so far?
- What does the speaker fancy?
- Where is the speaker going to see his friend?
- What is the speaker going to do with his friend?

3. Translate the following Standard English sentences into Cockney English.

- "Hello, how are you today?"
- "I'm going to the shops to buy some bread and milk."
- "It's a beautiful day outside."
- "I'm really tired and need to go to bed."
- "Do you want to come with me to the cinema?"

**XVII. Write a short story or dialogue in which characters from different regions or social groups interact. Use appropriate dialects and slang terms to reflect their background and personality.**

**XVIII. Write an essay about the linguistic diversity in a particular region or country, and describe the social and cultural factors that contribute to this diversity.**

**XIX. Project work:** A. Research the history and evolution of a particular dialect or language variety, such as African American Vernacular English or Cockney English. Analyze the factors that have influenced its development and the ways in which it reflects social and cultural identity. B. Examine the use of AAVE or other non-standard varieties of English in popular culture, including music, film, and television, and analyze its representation and appropriation by mainstream media.

## UNIT SEVEN: MULTILINGUALISM AND LANGUAGE CONTACT

### Objectives:

- *To define the concepts diglossia and multilingualism;*
- *to distinguish between individual and societal multilingualism;*
- *to explain the correlation between Sociolinguistics and other linguistic and non-linguistic sciences;*
- *to assess the role of the sociolinguist personality;*

**I. The text below is written by Ana Deumert in Mesthrie, Rajend, *The Cambridge Handbook of Sociolinguistics*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2011 and is adapted by the authors of this book. Read it and answer the questions that follow the text:**

Linguists have always understood the notion of “language” as inherently problematic, and the question of whether a particular form of speech should be classified as a separate language cannot be answered easily.

According to the most recent edition of the *Ethnologue* (Lewis 2009) there are 6,909 languages spoken in the world. While the exact figure remains open to debate, linguists generally agree that a number of approximately 6,000 to 7,000 languages captures global linguistic diversity (Nettle & Romaine 2000). Almost all countries seem to be multilingual. Even in a country such as Iceland – which has been described as monolingual (Skutnabb-Kangas 1995) – three different languages are regularly used: Icelandic, Danish, and Icelandic Sign Language.

The highest levels of linguistic diversity (number of languages per square mile) are found around the equator in countries such



as Papua New Guinea or Nigeria (820 and 516 languages, respectively). Nettle and Romaine (2000: 32) identify two geographical areas which stand out because of their high level of linguistic diversity: “There are two great belts of high density: one running from the West African coast through the Congo basin and to East Africa, and another running from South India and peninsula South-east Asia into the Islands of Indonesia, New Guinea, and the Pacific.”

Since the beginning of the 20th century, the increasing pace of international migration and human mobility has further contributed to within-country multilingualism across the world. In the United States, for example, over 50 percent of languages spoken are recent migrant languages and multilingualism is widespread.

Linguists tend to see multilingualism as a gradient phenomenon, and frequently focus on the endpoints of what is essentially a continuum, juxtaposing individuals with full competency in more than one language against those whose ability does not go beyond the articulation of a limited set of single utterances (the “I love you” in 10 languages). In addition, there are those who are able to understand more than one language, even though they might not be able to produce utterances (passive multilingualism), and those who, in addition to speaking a language, also have literacy skills (reading/writing). And finally, proficiency might not be the same across the linguistic system. Speakers can have good command of a language’s grammar and poor pronunciation. Alternatively, they may make use of a reduced grammatical structure and a limited lexicon with a near-native pronunciation.

As a result, multilingualism is best understood as “a series of continua [comprising skills such as listening/ reading/ speaking/writing and the different aspects of the linguistic system, i.e. phonetics/grammar/lexis/semantics/stylistics – A.D.] which may vary for each individual” (Romaine 1995).

A frequently mentioned example – illustrating how competence can vary across the different aspects of the linguistic system as well as the spoken/written divide – is that of the Polish-born novelist Joseph Conrad (1857–1924) who learnt English as a young adult. Today his written work forms part of the English literary canon. Yet, his spoken language use, while certainly fluent, was reportedly never native-like. Ford Maddox Ford, a British novelist, who had known Conrad well, mentions his heavily Polish pronunciation and his non-native use of especially adverbs (1924: 34–35).

Inter-Scandinavian communication is an example of what has been called “receptive multilingualism with productive monolingualism”. Although Danes, Swedes, and Norwegians speak different languages, they retain a strong sense of a common history and culture. This ideological and attitudinal stance has important consequences for communication on the Scandinavian mainland.

When Danes, Swedes, and Norwegians communicate with one another, they do not use a lingua franca (such as English). Instead, they continue to speak their own languages, knowing that their interlocutors will have sufficient passive competence to follow the conversation. However, as noted by Haugen (1966a), communication under these conditions is not always perfect, and can sometimes involve a “trickle of messages through a rather high level of ‘code noise’ ”. This appears to be the case

especially for Danish where the pronunciation has changed significantly since the Middle Ages, and which can be quite difficult to understand for Swedes and Norwegians.

Multilingual speakers often choose between languages depending on the situation and language competency of the interlocutor, as well as to mark identities or group affiliations, to negotiate social roles and status, and to establish interpersonal solidarity or distance. In Kenya, for example, speakers might choose to distance themselves from the interlocutor by speaking in English, thus emphasizing their high educational status.

Australia, on the other hand, is an example of a society which is characterized by extensive societal but not necessarily individual multilingualism. Historically, Australia is a British settler-colony established on the basis of the expropriation of land from Aboriginal people. While initial settlement was predominantly British, twentieth-century migrants came increasingly from non-English-speaking countries. The most recent Australian census (2006) lists 388 languages which are spoken in the homes of 16.8 percent of the population. About two hundred of these languages are Australian Aboriginal languages, many of them with very small numbers of speakers. The remaining languages are migrant languages, with Italian, Greek, Cantonese, and Arabic having the largest speech communities (between 300,000 to 250,000 speakers each). Yet, this remarkable diversity notwithstanding, Australia has been said to have a “monolingual mindset” (Clyne 2005).

*Diglossia* is a term which was introduced by Ferguson (1959) to describe multilingual speech communities which show a strict functional specialization of languages. That is, a specific language is firmly assigned to a context or domain, and other

social and situational variables (as discussed above) do not affect the domain-specific distribution of languages.

In the sociolinguistic literature, a distinction is made between “narrow” (or “classic”) and “broad” diglossia (see Hudson 2002). In speech communities characterized by narrow diglossia two related varieties of one language (e.g. Standard German and Swiss German in Switzerland) are believed to exist in strict functional complementarity. One variety is called the L(ow) variety. It is the language which is learnt as a first language by all members of the speech community and which is always used in informal spoken communication (Swiss German).

The other variety is called the H(igh) variety. The H variety is typically acquired in an institutional setting and is never used in informal (spoken) conversations. In broad diglossia two or more varieties or languages exist as stable elements in the speech community’s repertoire. And although different codes are preferred in different domains, there is no strict complementarity of usage and the H variety can occur in informal conversations. Moreover, the acquisition of the L variety as the sole first language is not at issue.

In some countries, the hierarchy of languages has more layers than the H/L dichotomy and includes an intermediate variety or language. In the early 1970s, the Tanzanian linguist Abdulaziz-Mkilifi (1972) introduced the term triglossia to describe the Tanzanian language situation. In Tanzania (and also Kenya), we find a trichotomy of (a) English (H variety), (b) Kiswahili (intermediate variety, a local lingua franca which is used alongside English in the education system, mass media, and in government administration), and (c) local languages “whose basic role is in oral intra-group communication”.

Another issue of multilingualism is lexical borrowing that is, the incorporation of words from another language into the native lexicon which happens in the context of limited (individual/societal) multilingualism. An example of this is the spread of English words in the context of globalization. Languages across the world have borrowed heavily from English, irrespective of the level of the speech communities' proficiency in English (see, e.g., Görlach's [2005] Dictionary of European Anglicisms).

The emergence of a pseudo-English lexicon, that is, words that "look" English but aren't actually English took place in globalization period. In Japanese these are considered to be a separate category of words and are called *wasei eigo*, 'English made in Japan.' Examples include: *baby car* for *pram*, *push phone* to refer to *a touch-tone phone*, and *walkman* for *a portable tape player*, a term which is now also used in native varieties of English (Stanlaw 2004).

Modern Greek as spoken in Asia Minor has been shaped by a situation of long-standing community multilingualism involving Greek and Turkish. As a result speakers have borrowed Turkish suffixes into the local variety of Greek. Crossing is the playful use of languages in which one has only limited proficiency. Thus, Rampton (1995) found that Anglo youth in London occasionally made use of Caribbean Creole in their speech. They had picked up some phrases and expressions within their multiethnic friendship groups and employed this knowledge for language play as well as to establish solidarity across ethnic boundaries.

- 1) *How many languages are there in the world?*
- 2) *Why is it difficult to identify the exact number of languages?*

- 3) *Which country has the highest number of languages, and which country has the lowest number?*
- 4) *Is linguistic diversity distributed evenly across the world?*
- 5) *What is a linguistic competence?*
- 6) *Speak about the case of the Scandinavians.*
- 7) *Is Australia a country of societal or individual multilingualism? Comment upon the case.*
- 8) *How are multilingual speech communities called? Who introduced the term?*
- 9) *What varieties of diglossia do you know?*
- 10) *Which language is explained in terms of triglossia?*
- 11) *What is lexical borrowing in multilingualism?*
- 12) *Explain the term "English made in Japan".*
- 13) *What is language play? Give examples.*

**II. Choose the correct answer based on the information in the text.**

- a. According to the Ethnologue, approximately how many languages are spoken in the world?
  - a) 600
  - b) 6,000
  - c) 60,000
  
- b. Where are the highest levels of linguistic diversity found?
  - a) Europe
  - b) South America
  - c) Equatorial regions such as Papua New Guinea and Nigeria
  
- c. What is diglossia?
  - a) The phenomenon of borrowing words from another language

- b) The strict functional specialization of languages in a speech community
  - c) The use of multiple languages within a country
- d. What is an example of lexical borrowing?
- a) The spread of English words in globalization
  - b) The use of multiple languages within a speech community
  - c) The influence of Turkish on Modern Greek
  - d) The incorporation of Caribbean Creole phrases in English speech
- e. What is the term for words that "look" English but are not actually English?
- a) Pseudo-English
  - b) Diglossia
  - c) Lexical borrowing
  - d) Triglossia
- f. How do Danes, Swedes, and Norwegians communicate with each other?
- a) In a lingua franca
  - b) Using their own languages
  - c) In English
  - d) Using a combination of English and their own languages
- g. How did Joseph Conrad's spoken language use differ from his written work?
- a) His spoken language was native-like.
  - b) His spoken language had heavily Polish pronunciation.
  - c) His spoken language was influenced by Danish and Norwegian.
  - d) His spoken language was more fluent than his writing.

**II. Based on the information in the text, complete the following sentences:**

1. The countries with the highest number of languages per square mile are...
2. According to linguists, the estimated number of languages spoken worldwide is...
3. There is a country that regularly uses three different languages, namely...
4. The viewpoint of linguists regarding multilingualism is...
5. Romaine (1995) suggests that multilingualism should be understood as...
6. An example illustrating the variation in competence across different aspects of the linguistic system and the spoken/written divide is...
7. "Receptive multilingualism with productive monolingualism" refers to...
8. Some reasons that influence the language choice of multilingual speakers include...
9. The country characterized by a "monolingual mindset" is...
10. The most recent Australian census lists a total of...

**III. Determine whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F) according to the information in the text.**

- a. Multilingualism is a phenomenon that only occurs in countries with diverse immigrant populations.
- b. The term "wasei eigo" refers to English words that have been borrowed into other languages.
- c. Modern Greek spoken in Asia Minor has been influenced by community multilingualism involving Greek and Turkish.



**IV. Define diglossia and provide an example of a language that exhibits diglossia.**

**V. Differentiate between narrow diglossia and broad diglossia by categorizing their features accordingly. Compare and contrast the features of narrow and broad diglossia, highlighting the key differences between these two language situations.**

Features of Narrow Diglossia:	Features of Broad Diglossia:
• • • • • • • • •	• • • • • • • • •

1. Two closely related varieties of the same language exist in the speech community.
2. There may be variations in the domains where different varieties or languages are used.
3. Two or more varieties or languages coexist in the speech community.
4. The L (low) variety is the language learned as the first language by all members of the community.
5. Different varieties or languages may be preferred in different domains, but there is no strict complementarity of usage.
6. The L variety is used in informal spoken communication.

7. The acquisition of the L variety as the sole first language is not necessary.
8. The H (high) variety is typically acquired in institutional settings and is not used in informal conversations.
9. There is a strict functional complementarity between the L and H varieties, with specific domains assigned to each variety.
10. The H variety may still be associated with prestige and formality in certain domains.
11. The speech community has a more flexible language repertoire, allowing for variation and adaptation in different social and situational contexts.
12. The H variety is associated with prestige, formality, and specific domains such as education, literature, and formal speeches.
13. The L variety is associated with everyday informal interactions within the community.
14. The H variety can occur in informal conversations as well as formal contexts.
15. Code-switching or code-mixing between varieties or languages is more common.
16. The acquisition of the L variety as the sole first language is expected.

**VI. Explain the difference between diglossia and multilingualism.**

**VII. Describe multilingualism and provide an example of a multilingual society.**

**VIII. Compare and contrast individual and societal multilingualism.**

**IX. Discuss the following questions:**

- a. What factors contribute to the linguistic diversity observed around the equator?
- b. How has international migration contributed to within-country multilingualism?
- c. Why do some multilingual speakers choose to use a different language in certain social situations? Provide examples.

**X. Complete the following sentences by filling in the gaps with the appropriate words:**

*simplified/ grammar/ vocabulary/ Creole/ cultural/ identity/ different/ complex/ expanded/ developed*

Pidgin and Creole languages are fascinating linguistic phenomena that emerge as a result of contact between (1) \_\_\_\_\_ language groups. Pidgin languages develop as (2) \_\_\_\_\_ forms of communication when speakers with different native languages come into contact and need a basic means of understanding each other. These languages often have simplified (3)\_\_\_\_\_ and a limited (4)\_\_\_\_\_, and a blend of lexical items from various source languages. Over time, if a pidgin language becomes the native language of a community, it evolves into a (5)\_\_\_\_\_ language. Creoles develop more (6)\_\_\_\_\_ grammatical structures, (7)\_\_\_\_\_ vocabulary, and become fully (8)\_\_\_\_\_ languages with their own unique linguistic features. Pidgin and Creole languages not only reflect the (9)\_\_\_\_\_ and linguistic diversity of the communities that use them but also serve as powerful symbols of (10)\_\_\_\_\_ and solidarity among their speakers.

**XI. In small groups do the following tasks and report your findings to the group:**

A. Discuss the significance of lingua francas in today's interconnected world: a) Identify and explain at least three reasons why lingua francas are essential for facilitating communication, fostering cultural exchange, and promoting global understanding. b) Consider both the benefits and challenges associated with the use of lingua francas in diverse contexts. c) Provide three examples of lingua francas that have been historically or currently used in different regions or contexts. Explain why these languages have become widely adopted as lingua francas and describe the impact they have had on global communication

B. Discuss the implications of multilingualism in today's globalized world: a) Investigate the impact of language choice on identity, communication patterns, and societal dynamics in multilingual contexts; b) Explore the characteristics of multilingual individuals and communities, considering factors such as language proficiency, language preference, and language use in different domains of life; c) Focus specifically on Moldova as a multilingual country and analyze how language choice influences identity formation, communication practices, and societal dynamics within its diverse linguistic context.

## **XII. Project work:**

A. Research about different communities or regions in Moldova where multiple languages are spoken and examine how the languages have influenced each other. Present your findings to the class and facilitate a discussion on the topic.

B. Multilingual surveys: create and distribute surveys in multiple languages to your friends, family, or community members. Analyze and present the data, comparing the results across different languages and cultures.

C. Language mapping: research and create a language map of a city or region in Moldova or an English speaking country, identifying the different languages spoken and the patterns of language use in different areas.

## UNIT EIGHT: WORLD ENGLISHES

### Objectives:

- *To determine the role of socio-linguistic context in various communication contexts;*
- *to distinguish between such varieties as Chinglish, Hinglish, Denglish, Spanglish;*
- *to explain the correlation between a sociolinguistic context and language varieties;*
- *to produce texts including varieties of Chinglish, Hinglish, Denglish, Spanglish.*

**I. The text below is taken from the book “Global Englishes” written by Jennifer Jenkins in 2015, published by Routledge, New York and it is summarized by the authors of the given book. Read it and answer the questions that follow the text:**

In the period between the end of the reign of Queen Elizabeth I in 1603 and the later years of the reign of Queen Elizabeth II in the early part of the 21st century, the number of speakers of English increased from a mere five to seven million to possibly as many as two billion. Whereas the English language was spoken in the mid-16th century only by a relatively small group of mother tongue speakers born and bred within the shores of the British Isles, it is now spoken in almost every country of the world.

Currently, there are approximately 75 territories where English is spoken either as a first language (L1), or as an official (i.e. institutionalized) second language (L2) in fields such as government, law, and education. The total numbers of L1 and L2 English speakers amount here to 329,140,800 and 430,614,500 respectively, and together these speakers constitute almost a

third of the total population of the above territories (2,236,730,000 in total).

The negative attitudes which persist today towards certain varieties of English have their roots in the past and, especially, in the two dispersals of English. The British establishment still harbours the view of the superiority of British over American English. For example, in launching the British Council's English 2000 project in March 1995, Prince Charles was famously reported in the British press as follows: The Prince of Wales highlighted the threat to "proper" English from the spread of American vernacular yesterday as he launched a campaign to preserve the language as world leader. He described American English as "very corrupting" and emphasized the need to maintain the quality of language . . . Speaking after the launch of the project, Prince Charles (now King Charles the III-rd of Britain) elaborated on his view of the American influence. "People tend to invent all sorts of nouns and verbs, and make words that shouldn't be. I think we have to be a bit careful, otherwise the whole thing can get rather a mess." (The Times, 24 March 1995)

And while the younger members of the UK royal family, like many other young people, may not share King Charles's III-rd perspective on American English, negative attitudes towards it undoubtedly persist in the UK, e.g. among some university faculty.

It should already be clear that there is scope for substantial disagreement as to whether the metamorphosis of English into **Global Englishes** is a positive or negative phenomenon. We can speak of the two **dispersals, or diasporas**, of English. **The first diaspora**, initially involving the migration of around 25,000 people from **the south and east of England** primarily to **North**

**America and Australia**, resulted in new mother tongue varieties of English. **The second diaspora**, involving **the colonisation of Asia and Africa**, led, on the other hand, to the development of a number of second language varieties, often referred to as **'New Englishes'**.

Today English has many statuses as a language. It is spoken as **a native language (ENL)** or the first language; it is acquired as **a second language (ESL)** in the colonized countries; it is studied as **a foreign language (EFL)** in the countries where English is necessary to know to interact with people from the United Kingdom of Great Britain or the USA and it is used as **a lingua franca (ELF)** by those involved in intercultural communication globally.

In the context of so many statuses of the English Language it is important to know the **standard language ideology in the Anglophone world**. **Standard language** is the term used for the variety of a language that is considered to be the norm. It is the variety held up as the optimum for educational purposes and used as a yardstick against which other varieties of the language are measured. Being a prestige variety, a standard language is spoken by a minority of people within a society, typically those occupying positions of power.

The dialect of educated people throughout the British Isles is normally used in writing, for teaching in schools and universities, and heard on the radio and television (Hughes and Trudgill 1979, repeated in the second edition, 1996). It is the variety of the English language which is normally employed in writing and normally spoken by 'educated' speakers of the language. It is also the variety of the language that students of English as a Foreign or Second Language (EFL/ESL) are taught when



receiving formal instruction. The term **Standard English** refers to grammar and vocabulary (dialect) but not to pronunciation (accent). (Trudgill and Hannah 1982, and repeated in the fourth edition, 2002). **Standard English** is traditionally the medium of the upper and (especially professional) middle class. Although not limited to one accent it has been associated since at least the 19-th century with the accent that, since the 1920s, has been called Received Pronunciation (RP), and with the phrases the Queen's English, the King's English, Oxford English, and BBC English (McArthur 2002). **Standard English** is the kind of English in which all native speakers learn to read and write although most do not actually speak it (Trudgill and Hannah fifth edition, 2008).

Even **educated Australian English** belonged until recently to this category, only joining the ranks of **Standard English** in the 1970s. Up to then, **Australian English** was evaluated in terms of its closeness to **Standard British English** (known locally as 'colonial cringe'), with any distinctively Australian forms being regarded as 'bad' English. The first dictionary of **Australian English** to be edited within Australia's shores rather than in Britain was only published in 1976. Since then, educated Australians have developed a new confidence in their own identity which has translated linguistically into the celebration of their own ways of speaking.

It is supposed that native speakers of a certain language make use of idioms in their daily speech while learners of a language as a foreign one encounter difficulties with these elements of vocabulary as they render the cultural specific mentality of the people speaking this language. Platt et al. (1984) distinguish between learners' unsuccessful attempts to use the idioms of native speakers of English, and stabilized postcolonial idioms.

They discount the first kind altogether, a policy with which you might or might not agree. However, they cite examples such as Singapore English 'gift of the gap' (for British English 'gift of the gab') and 'in lips and bounce' (for 'in leaps and bounds'), where the variation from the native speaker version is regular on account of pronunciation differences. Some postcolonial idioms are direct translations from indigenous idioms. For example, Singapore and Malaysian English 'to shake legs' comes from the Malay idiom 'goyang kaki', meaning 'to be idle'. Some are based on native speaker English, e.g. the East African idiom 'to be on the tarmac', meaning 'to be in the process of seeking a new job'. Others combine elements from English with indigenous forms, e.g. the Nigerian 'to put sand in someone's gari', means 'to threaten someone's livelihood' ('gari' being a type of flour). Still other idioms are variations on native speaker ones. For example, the British English idiom 'to have your cake and eat it' becomes, in Singapore English, rather more effectively I would argue, 'to eat your cake and have it'. Presumably this began life as an unsuccessful attempt at the 'correct' British version and gradually became common Singapore usage. Another example from Singapore English is 'to be in hot soup', which has the same meaning as, and blends, the two British English idioms, 'to be in hot water' and 'to be in the soup' (i.e. to be in trouble). This highlights the difficulty in distinguishing between creativity and incorrectness. But it is important to bear in mind that most linguistic innovation begins life as something that is considered an error in the standard form in whichever Circle of English.

- 1) *What happened to the English Language since the reign of Queen Elizabeth I in 1603 till nowadays?*
- 2) *How many speakers of English are there on the globe at present?*

- 3) *Which is the attitude of native speakers of English toward different variants of English?*
- 4) *Quote King Charles' III idea about the American influence on the English?*
- 5) *Which way is the metamorphosis of English into Global English treated?*
- 6) *Which statuses does the English language have today?*
- 7) *What is standard language? What is the standard language ideology in the Anglophone world?*
- 8) *When did Australian English become a separate variant of English?*
- 9) *How do learners/speakers of English adapt the language to their convenience in postcolonial countries?*
- 10) *Consider the postcolonial idioms and give examples.*

**II. Say whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F):**

1. The number of English speakers has increased from five to seven million between the reigns of Queen Elizabeth I and Queen Elizabeth II.
2. English is now spoken in almost every country in the world.
3. There are approximately 100 territories where English is spoken as a first language or as an official second language.
4. Prince Charles expressed positive views about the influence of American English in his speech.
5. Negative attitudes towards certain varieties of English are solely a recent phenomenon.
6. The first diaspora of English resulted in the development of new mother tongue varieties of English.
7. English is used as a lingua franca in intercultural communication globally.

8. Standard English refers to grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation.
9. Educated Australian English was evaluated based on its distinctiveness from Standard British English.
10. Postcolonial idioms often have a direct translation from indigenous idioms.

**III. Identify the time period mentioned in the text when the number of English speakers increased significantly. What was the estimated increase in the number of English speakers during this time?**

**IV. List the different statuses of the English language mentioned in the text. Explain each status and provide examples of where and how it is used.**

**V. Define the concept of World Englishes based on the information provided in the text. How does the spread of English around the world contribute to the development of different varieties and dialects?**

**VI. Analyze the negative attitudes towards certain varieties of English mentioned in the text. Identify the historical roots of these attitudes and discuss their persistence in contemporary society.**

**VII. Explain the term "standard language ideology" and its significance in the Anglophone world. Discuss why a standard language is considered the norm and how it influences education, communication, and social hierarchies.**

**VIII. Explore the concept of Standard English and its association with Received Pronunciation (RP) and other**

**accents. Discuss its role in formal instruction, writing, and the perception of social class.**

**IX. Investigate the development of Australian English and its transition from being evaluated against Standard British English to becoming recognized as a distinct variety. Discuss the factors that contributed to this change and its impact on the Australian identity.**

**X. Examine the use of idioms in English language varieties mentioned in the text. Differentiate between learners' attempts to use idioms and postcolonial idioms. Provide examples of postcolonial idioms and their origins, including direct translations, combinations of indigenous and English forms, and variations on native speaker idioms.**

**XI. Pair work:** a) Discuss the challenges faced by learners of English as a foreign language in understanding idioms and cultural-specific expressions. Evaluate the authors' position on learners' unsuccessful attempts to use idioms and express your own opinion on the matter. b) Discuss the historical reasons for the spread of English, such as colonization, globalization, and the influence of technology and media. c) Reflect on the overall transformation of English into Global Englishes. Consider the positive and negative aspects of this phenomenon and form your own opinion on its impact on language diversity, cultural exchange, and communication globally.

**XII. In small groups discuss the impact and significance of World Englishes in various domains:** a) Literature and creative expressions in English from different cultures. b) Business and international communication. c) Education and language teaching. d) Identity and cultural preservation.

### **XIII. Case Study: Singaporean English. Read the dialogue and do the tasks below:**

Shan: Eh bro, how's it going ah?

Ahmad: Wah, not bad lah. How 'bout you?

Shan: Sibe! stress leh, got so much work to do sia.

Ahmad: Aiyo, like that how to relax? Go out and chill la.

Shan: Ya man, you know any good makan places nearby?

Ahmad: Eh, you can try this new hawker centre near my place. Cheap and good food.

Shan: Wah, sounds good leh. Maybe we can go there for dinner tonight?

Ahmad: Sure bro, let's go after work.

1. **Explain the meaning of the following words from the text:** "sibe!", "makan", and "hawker centre". Use the words in the sentences of your own.
2. **Answer the questions:** What is Shan's current state of mind? What does Shan say about his workload? How does Ahmad suggest Shan should relax? What does Ahmad say about the food at the hawker centre? When do Shan and Ahmad plan to go to the hawker centre?
3. Examine the use of different particles and intonation patterns in the dialogue, such as "lah," "leh," and rising intonation. Explore how these linguistic features are used in Singaporean English and what they convey about the speakers' attitudes and social identities.
4. Describe the pronunciation of specific sounds or intonation patterns used in Singaporean English.
5. Search the Internet for the recordings or videos of native speakers of Singaporean English and analyze their pronunciation and intonation patterns. Imitate at least 5 utterances of different grammatical structures.

6. In pairs create up your own dialogues in Singaporean English and role-play them with a partner. Use the appropriate pronunciation and intonation patterns.
7. Analyze the use of code-switching in the dialogue, identifying when the speakers switch between Singaporean English and Mandarin or Chinese dialects. Discuss why code-switching occurs in multilingual contexts and how it can affect communication.
8. Research the history and cultural influences on Singaporean English, including the role of Chinese and Malay languages and British colonialism. Discuss how language reflects and shapes cultural identity in Singapore and other multilingual societies.
9. Write an essay on the topic: “The Influence of Socio-Linguistic Context on Language Variation and Language Choices”.

#### **IV. Project work:**

A. Analyzing Socio-Linguistic Context: a) Choose three different communication contexts, such as formal business meetings, casual conversations among friends, and academic lectures. b) For each context, identify and describe the socio-linguistic factors that influence communication, such as social status, power dynamics, cultural norms, and language variation. c) Explain how these socio-linguistic factors shape the language choices, register, and speech patterns in each communication context. d) Provide examples and analyze the impact of socio-linguistic context on communication effectiveness and understanding in each situation.

B. Varieties of Language: a) Research and familiarize yourself with Chinglish, Hinglish, Denglish, and Spanglish, their characteristics, and their contexts of usage. b) Create a table

with four columns, one for each variety. In each column, list at least five distinct features or examples that differentiate the respective variety from others. c) Provide a brief explanation or definition for each feature or example listed. d) Compare and contrast the varieties, highlighting the specific linguistic elements, language mixing, and cultural influences that distinguish them from each other.

C. Socio-Linguistic Context and Language Varieties: a) Choose two specific language varieties, such as regional dialects, sociolects, or ethnolects. b) Describe the socio-linguistic contexts in which these language varieties are typically used, including factors such as social class, ethnicity, age, and geographical location. c) Analyze and explain the correlation between the socio-linguistic context and the development and maintenance of these language varieties. d) Provide examples or case studies to support your explanation and illustrate the relationship between socio-linguistic context and language varieties.

#### **XIV. Research Project**

Conduct research on a specific "New English" variety mentioned in the text, such as Singapore English, Malaysian English, or Nigerian English. Explore its historical development, linguistic features, cultural influences, and the attitudes and perceptions associated with it. Present your findings in a research paper or presentation.



## UNIT NINE: SOCIOLINGUISTICS AND SOCIAL JUSTICE

### Objectives:

- *To determine the connection between gender and sexuality as socially constructed;*
- *to distinguish between such varieties as male and female speech;*
- *to explain the power issues in gendered language use;*
- *to produce discourses containing gender/sexuality ideology.*

**I. The text below is taken from “An Introduction to sociolinguistics” written by Ronald Wardhaugh & Jannet M. Fuller, published at Oxford, UK in 2015 (pp. 309-338) and is summarized by the authors of the given book. Read it and answer the questions that follow the text:**

The topic of gender language has been an issue for many decades in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century and the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> one. There are many issues to be answered in terms of the language use. Further, what began as a focus on the sex of the speaker has shifted to looking at how speakers do gender, and the role of sexuality in language performances has also emerged as an important and interrelated topic. The literature on these issues is now vast; it has been one of the biggest ‘growth’ areas within sociolinguistics in recent years.

**Sex categories** are based on the biological distinction – not always completely clear – between ‘male’ and ‘female.’ There may also be additional culturally specific categories that define people who do not fall easily into these first two categories. Native American cultures have a tradition of what has been called ‘two spirit’ people (Jacobs et al. 1997), and in India there are hijras and kotis, which are different groups of people who exhibit physical and/or behavioral characteristics of both sex

categories; in Indian society, they have a societal role and the linguistic means of constructing such a role in society (Hall 1997, 2005).

The term **transgender** is often used in the US to talk about people who are transitioning or have transitioned from one sex category to another, or have biological attributes of a sex category which does not match their gender or of both sexes; the term **cisgender** is used to talk about people whose sex category matches their gender. The term **transgender** may also be used for individuals with biological attributes of both sexes. Thus, while sex categories make references to biological characteristics, and are often perceived as binary and mutually exclusive, they are not entirely in synch /sink/ with the reality of human diversity and some societies have more than two categories in sex categories.

On the other hand, **gender**, although based on sex categories, is **culturally constructed**. *What is considered to be masculine or feminine differs from one society to another.* It is also usually conceived of as being on a continuum of masculine and feminine, that is, you can be more or less masculine or feminine, while sex categories are generally thought of as being discrete groups so that individuals must firmly and permanently belong to either one or the other category.

**Within contemporary social theory, gender identities, like other aspects of identity, may change over time, and vary according to the setting, topic, or interlocutors.** West and Zimmerman (1987) talk about 'doing gender,' that is, the idea that gender is not something we have, but something we do. In performances of **gender**, speakers draw on ideologies about what it means to be **a man** or **a woman**; for instance, **women** may give each other **compliments on their appearance**, while

**men exchange ritual insults**, speech acts which draw on stereotypes of **women seeking solidarity** and **men constructing hierarchy in conversation**. However, performing **masculinity or femininity** 'appropriately' cannot mean giving exactly the same performance regardless of the circumstances.

Can language itself be sexist? Work in the 1980s on this topic addressed issues such as the so-called generic 'he' and the use of 'man' or 'mankind' to refer to all people. Penelope (1988) gives examples which illustrate how this leads to even gender-neutral words being used to refer to men, for example, a line from Star Trek: *'Our people are the best gamblers in the galaxy. We compete for power, fame, women'* (Penelope 1988, 135).

Another of the issues involved in answering this question has to do with **words** that encode **sex categories**, most commonly **sex category–marked names of people in specific occupations**, for example, ***fireman, stewardess, and waitress***. While it is not inherently sexist to make reference to the sex category of a person, the problem with such words is that they could influence what professions we see as being appropriate for (only) men or (only) women. If the unmarked form is 'fireman,' it is possible to be a 'firewoman' but this is linguistically marked and suggests that the norm is for a person in this occupation to be a man. This problem has been addressed by the introduction of gender-neutral terms such as ***firefighter*** and ***flight attendant***, common usages in North America. Today, there is a growing awareness, at least in some circles, that subtle, and sometimes not so subtle, distinctions are made in the vocabulary choice used to describe men and women. Consequently, we can understand why there is a frequent insistence that neutral words be used as much as possible, as in describing occupations, for example, ***chair (person), letter carrier, salesclerk, and police officer***.

At the same time we must note that **grammatical gender marking** is more extensive in some languages than it is in English, and presents different problems in attempts to make language more gender neutral. As Mills (2008) notes, the word for 'minister' in French is masculine (le ministre), so it is difficult to refer to a female minister. Further, the norm in languages such as French and Spanish is to use the masculine plural for groups containing both men and women. While this is traditionally also true in German, some changes have occurred, including more use of the feminine plural ending -innen (instead of the masculine plural -en) for groups of men and women, and in some cases the introduction of words that do not mark gender for plurals. For example, the plural for 'students,' traditionally **Studenten**, using the masculine -en plural ending, was in some cases during the 1980s and 1990s replaced by **StudentInnen**, using the feminine plural suffix -innen, but has now been replaced by **Studierende** (literally, 'those who study,' from the verb studieren 'to study').

In English such connections (grammatical gender systems (masculine, feminine, neuter) and sex categories (male, female, neither) sometimes create problems for us in finding the right pronoun: compare the neutral 'Everybody should hand in their papers in five minutes' to the apparently biased 'No person in his right mind would do that.' Although the singular 'they' in English has come under attack from some prescriptivists, it is now in wide usage, with such sentences as 'I saw someone enter the building, but I didn't know who they were' being common in youth speech in North America.

If there is a relationship between language and worldview than we would expect that language would reflect the changing of

gender roles. We can see this in some asymmetries of pairs of words. While **actor** and **actress** or **waiter** and **waitress** have few differences in connotation aside from sex, pairs of terms such as **master–mistress**, **governor–governess**, and **bachelor–spinster** are different in more ways than simply indicating male and female. While **a master** is the man in charge, the word **mistress** is commonly used to refer to the female lover of a married man. Being **a governor** is an important political position; **a governess** is someone who takes care of children. While **bachelor** has connotations of fun and independence, **spinster** is an undeniably negative term, calling up the image of an elderly woman living alone with lots of cats. (See Lakoff 1973) In another example, we see a clearer asymmetry in the difference between the meaning of ‘mothering’ a child, which implies nurturing, and ‘fathering’ a child, which simply implies contributing to the child’s conception. However, even here we see some changes, as the term ‘parenting’ is now used in some contexts in which ‘mothering’ was used earlier. (Parent one, parent two)

Spender writes (1985, 3): ‘Language helps form the limits of our reality. It is our means of ordering and manipulating the world. It is through language that we become members of a human community, that the world becomes comprehensible and meaningful, that we bring into existence the world in which we live.’ She further asserts (1985, 12) that ‘the English language has been literally man-made and . . . is still primarily under male control’ and that males, as the dominant group, have produced language, thought, and reality.

We should also note that some small changes in heterosexual language practices can also be seen. One example is in reference to partners; some heterosexual married couples will

refer to their spouses as 'partners' to avoid indexing the heterosexual privilege of legal marriage. At the same time, as marriage equality is achieved in some regions, the use of the terms 'husband' and 'wife' for same-sex partners is not uncommon, so these terms are no longer reserved for heterosexuals only.

Discourse can be described as ways of representing facets of the world, that is, the processes, relations, and structures of the world, as well as feelings, thoughts, and beliefs about the social world (Fairclough 2003). Among Discourses of gender and sexuality that we can identify, the discourse of heteronormativity is one of the most pervasive (Cameron and Kulick 2003, 2006, Coates 2013, Motschenbacher 2011, Kitzinger 2005). This Discourse requires an assumption of heterosexuality and the stigmatizing of gay and lesbian identities.

One study showing how heteronormativity begins in primary school is Renold (2000), which addresses how Discourses about girls needing to be attractive to boys, but not 'tarty,' is pervasive, and contrasts with boys' constructions of heterosexuality through fighting, football, homophobia, and misogyny (not aspects of behavior that are aimed at being attractive to girls). Cameron and Kulick (2003) discuss how Discourses of heteronormativity produce what they call the heteronormative hierarchy, which favors monogamous and reproductive heterosexuality in which both partners adhere to normative gender roles. Thus, heteronormativity encompasses many Discourses about gender roles in heterosexual relationships (see Sunderland 2004).

Sunderland (2006) looks at parenting magazines and shows that despite the gender-neutral depiction evoked by the term 'parenting,' the magazines construct a world in which mothers

are the main caretakers of children. Another common gendered Discourse has to do with the value of women being linked to their physical appearance, noted in the study of primary school children above. In some cases, the Discourses involve ideologies about other aspects of culture, or language ideologies more broadly. An example of this is given in Cameron (2008), in which she addresses some broader ideas about language, arguing that it is increasingly discussed as a set of skills. She looks at varied texts from the UK about women and men as communicators. (an Am. woman & an Englishman)

Traditional stereotypes about women as being more emotional and men being rational are followed by the idea that men who are good communicators by this definition are given extra credit, while women's achievements as communicators are downgraded to being simply part of their 'nature' and thus not an achievement at all.

- 1) *Why did gender language become a topic for discussion among researchers in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century?*
- 2) *What are the sex categories based on? Which cultures suggest some other categorization?*
- 3) *Explain the terms 'transgender' and 'cisgender'.*
- 4) *What is gender as a cultural construct?*
- 5) *Reflect on the gender identity in comparison with other identities.*
- 6) *How are masculinity and femininity connected with gender language?*
- 7) *Give an example of a sexist language discourse.*
- 8) *How are names of occupations from one language connected with the issue of sexism in language?*
- 9) *What new terms are introduced to avoid the usage of sexist vocabulary?*

- 10) *What is grammatical gender and how is it manifested in different languages?*
- 11) *Comment on the usage of 'they' in English instead of 'he/she'.*
- 12) *How does the change of gender roles reflect in the language?*
- 13) *Comment upon Spender's definition of language.*
- 14) *Comment upon Fairclough's definition of discourse.*
- 15) *What is a discourse of heteronormativity?*
- 16) *How do parenting magazines construct an ideological world about the roles of men and women in growing children?*
- 17) *Which are the traditional stereotypes about men and women linguistic behavior in a certain society?*

**II. Choose the correct option to answer the following questions:**

1. *How have gender identities been understood in contemporary social theory?*
  - a) They are fixed and unchanging over time.
  - b) They vary according to the setting, topic, or interlocutors.
  - c) They are determined solely by biological characteristics.
  - d) They are based on cultural constructs that do not change.
2. *What is the difference between sex categories and gender?*
  - a) Sex categories are culturally constructed, while gender is based on biological characteristics.



- b) Sex categories are binary and fixed, while gender is a continuum.
- c) Sex categories refer to biological distinctions, while gender is based on linguistic performances.
- d) Sex categories are mutually exclusive, while gender is culturally specific.

3. *How does language contribute to the reinforcement of gender roles?*

- a) By using gender-neutral terms to describe occupations.
- b) By maintaining asymmetries and connotations between gendered terms.
- c) By encouraging gender fluidity and non-binary expressions.
- d) By avoiding the use of generic terms like "he" and "mankind."

4. *In what way does language reflect changing gender roles?*

- a) Through the use of gender-neutral pronouns like "they."
- b) By eliminating gendered terms for occupations.
- c) By introducing gender-specific terms for same-sex partnerships.
- d) Through the transformation of language ideologies.

5. *What does the term "heteronormativity" refer to?*

- a) The assumption of heterosexuality as the norm and the marginalization of non-heterosexual identities.
- b) The discourse of gender roles in heterosexual relationships.

- c) The depiction of mothers as the main caretakers of children.
  - d) The stigmatization of gay and lesbian identities.
6. *How are girls and boys socialized differently in relation to heterosexuality?*
- a) Girls are encouraged to be attractive to boys, while boys engage in fighting and homophobia.
  - b) Girls and boys are socialized in the same way, without gender distinctions.
  - c) Girls and boys engage in the same behaviors to be attractive to each other.
  - d) Girls are encouraged to be assertive, while boys focus on physical appearance.
7. *What is the relationship between language and gender?*
- a) Language is a neutral tool that does not affect gender roles.
  - b) Language reinforces traditional gender roles and inequalities.
  - c) Language is gradually becoming more inclusive and gender-neutral.
  - d) Language reflects changing gender roles but has limited influence.

**III. Read the following statements based on the information provided in the text and say whether they are true (T) or false (F):**

1. The topic of gender language has only become an issue in recent years.
2. Gender is based solely on biological characteristics.
3. Sex categories are always binary and fixed.

4. The term transgender is used to refer to individuals who have transitioned from one sex category to another.
5. Gender identities can change over time and vary according to the setting and interlocutors.
6. Language itself cannot be sexist.
7. Gender-neutral terms have been introduced to address the issue of sex category–marked names in specific occupations.
8. Grammatical gender marking presents the same problems in all languages as it does in English.
9. The singular "they" is widely used in English, despite some criticism.
10. Language reflects the changing of gender roles and can be seen in the asymmetries of pairs of words. - True
11. Language is primarily under male control.
12. Heteronormativity requires an assumption of heterosexuality and stigmatizes gay and lesbian identities.
13. Parenting magazines construct a world in which fathers are the main caretakers of children.
14. Traditional stereotypes devalue women's achievements as communicators.

**IV. Discuss the concept of "doing gender" as proposed by West and Zimmerman (1987), and explain how gender identities can vary based on context and interlocutors.**

**V. Analyze the question of whether language itself can be sexist, considering examples and arguments presented in the text.**

**VI. Explore the impact of gendered language on occupations and professions, and discuss the importance of gender-neutral terms in addressing societal biases.**

**VII. Match the gender-specific term with its gender-neutral alternative:**

- |                |                     |
|----------------|---------------------|
| 1. Mailman     | a) Actor            |
| 2. Businessman | b) Businessperson   |
| 3. Policeman   | c) Chairperson      |
| 4. Fireman     | d) Firefighter      |
| 5. Stewardess  | e) Flight attendant |
| 6. Salesman    | f) Mail carrier     |
| 7. Actress     | g) Police officer   |
| 8. Chairman    | h) Salesperson      |
| 9. Waiter      | i) Waitstaff        |

**VIII. Compare the challenges of making language more gender neutral in different languages, considering examples from French, Spanish, and German.**

**IX. Analyze the sociolinguistic aspects of using the singular "they" in different contexts in the sentences below. Identify the reasons behind the usage of the singular "they" in each example (e.g., gender neutrality, inclusivity, respecting individuals' preferred pronouns):**

1. "Someone left their umbrella behind. I hope they come back for it."
2. "A student approached the professor with a question, but they seemed unsure about the answer."
3. "I met a new coworker today. They are really friendly and easy to get along with."
4. "If anyone needs help, they can reach out to me. I'm here to assist."
5. "The driver of the car in front of us is going too fast. I hope they slow down."
6. "My friend is non-binary, and they prefer to be addressed using they/them pronouns."

7. "I'm meeting someone for lunch, but they haven't arrived yet."
8. "The author just released their latest book, and they are receiving rave reviews."
9. "I saw a stranger drop their wallet, so I picked it up and returned it to them."
10. "The doctor will see you now. They will explain the procedure and answer any questions you have."

**X. Discuss the potential impact of using the singular "they" on language, society, and communication norms.**

**XI. Examine how language reflects and influences gender roles, using examples of asymmetries in word pairs and changes in terminology over time.**

**XII. Fill in the table by providing the gender-neutral term and the gender-specific term for each word pair.**

Word Pair	Gender-Neutral Term	Gender-Specific Term
Master - _____		
Actor - _____		
Governor - _____		
Bachelor - _____		
Father - _____		

**XIII. Read the descriptions below and answer the questions that follow:**

1. *What does the term "mistress" historically refer to?*

- a) A woman in a position of authority
  - b) A woman who performs in plays or films
  - c) A woman who had a sexual relationship with a married man
  - d) A woman employed to educate and care for children
2. *Which term is often considered gender-neutral in the performing arts?*
- a) Master
  - b) Mistress
  - c) Actor
  - d) Governess
3. *What is the primary difference between "governor" and "governess"?*
- a) One term refers to a person in a position of political power, while the other refers to a woman employed in childcare.
  - b) One term refers to a woman in a position of authority, while the other refers to a man in a similar position.
  - c) One term refers to a person in a position of political power, while the other refers to an actor or actress.
  - d) There is no difference; both terms are interchangeable.
4. *What connotations does the term "spinster" carry?*
- a) Independence and freedom
  - b) A negative implication of lack of desirability or fulfillment
  - c) A person in a position of authority or expertise
  - d) None of the above

5. *What associations are typically linked with the term "father"?*

- a) Nurturing, caretaking, and emotional support
- b) Providing and protection
- c) Performing in plays or films
- d) Educating and caring for children

**IV. Discuss the relationship between language, worldview, and reality, as well as the assertion that language is primarily under male control.**

**XV. Explore the changes in language practices related to heterosexual and same-sex partnerships, considering examples and motivations behind these shifts.**

**XVI. Investigate the discourse of heteronormativity, its assumptions about heterosexuality, and its impact on stigmatizing gay and lesbian identities.**

**XVII. Project Work: Gendered Discourses and Communication:**

Explore and analyze gendered discourses in various contexts and their impact on communication norms and societal perceptions: a) Summarize key findings, methodologies, and theoretical frameworks used in the studies related to gendered discourses, focusing on parenting magazines, and discussions about women and men as communicators. b) Select specific parenting magazines, or other relevant sources to analyze in detail; collect qualitative or quantitative data from these sources, such as interviews, surveys, or content analysis; c) Analyze the collected data to identify instances of gendered discourses, stereotypes, and their impact on communication norms and societal perceptions. d) Explore the potential consequences of

these discourses on interpersonal relationships, workplace dynamics, and social inclusion; e) Propose strategies and interventions to promote more inclusive and equitable communication practices.



## UNIT TEN: LANGUAGE AND THE MEDIA

### Objectives:

- *To determine the specific characteristics of mass-media in English;*
- *to explain the principles of social semiotics;*
- *to apply critical discourse analysis or conversation analysis to a media product;*
- *to write 2-3 advertisements about certain goods using the method of a multimodal text.*

**I. The text below is taken from “The Cambridge Handbook of Sociolinguistics” edited by Rajend Mesthrie, written by Susan McKay and is summarized by the authors of the given book. Read it and answer the questions that follow the text:**

The mass media encompass print (newspapers and magazines) and electronic or broadcast media (including radio and television), with the Internet and various computer-based technologies included. Classification of the media in terms of their communicative functions through relationships with their intended audiences permits useful distinctions to be made between and across various forms of media communication.

However, there is no distinct sociolinguistic approach to media language. Researchers interested in language have considered instances of language in use by applying linguistic concepts in isolation, or in combination with semiotic or discursive approaches to complement and expand approaches from media and cultural studies.

Semiotics can be used to consider media language as part of a sign system, or as a process of communication with complex social and cultural influences affecting how media texts are

produced and understood. Marcel Danesi's work on media semiotics (2002) provides an extensive overview of semiotic theory from its foundations in the writings of Aristotle, through the work of Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure and the American philosopher Charles S. Peirce on the nature of signification, to its development and application to artifacts of popular culture by Roland Barthes and then to more recent work by Thomas Sebeok and Umberto Eco. This trajectory /trə'dʒektəri/ traces the ways in which semiotic theory, which was developed as a way of thinking about how meaning is produced in language, has come to have such a lasting influence in the analysis of visual media through its application to advertisements, film, and television.

In semiotic terms, one of the key differences between verbal language and images as signs is the relative arbitrariness of the relationship between the signifier and the signified in language (between the word and the concept it evokes) and its dependence on systematic association and accepted convention through a process of signification rather than any apparent natural correspondence. As speech operates progressively, so then meaning is created syntagmatically in terms of word order, but also paradigmatically through word choice. Saussure's principles of structural linguistics focusing on the rules of language (*langue*) rather than on speech (*parole*) have been abstracted for use in analyzing many kinds of "signs" and signifying practices in advertisements, popular culture, photography, and film. Semiotic analysis can be used to unpack levels of meaning by investigating the relationship between signs and their signified, as well as the relationship among the signs in a text.

When applied to media texts, a semiotic approach is able to emphasize and problematize the process of representation.

Stuart Hall noted the polysemic potential of media texts to signify multiple connotations. However, he has drawn attention to the way that these are not equally available to decoders but depend on social and cultural constraints which provide varying degrees of closure according to domains of dominant codes and definitions. Using a television newscast as an example, he puts forward a series of positions for decoding media texts which have become influential in understandings of how media texts act ideologically, especially in work on cultural studies: the first where the connoted meaning is taken “full and straight” where the meaning is interpreted within the code in which it was created (i.e. as a dominant reading); the second where he acknowledges that most audiences would be aware of dominant definitions, especially those that try to connect events to large views and the national interest but nevertheless adapt the meaning to their own situations within the hegemonic constraints of the dominant code (a negotiated reading); and the third as a contrary reading using some alternative frame of reference or code (an oppositional reading).

While some semiotic analyses remain focused on uncovering connotative meanings in a range of media texts including advertisements, or on furthering structuralist approaches in applications to studies of narrative in television and film editing, others have become more concerned with higher-level organization of texts. Under the title, social semiotics, Kress, Hodge, and van Leeuwen have developed conceptual tools for analyzing texts which use combinations of semiotic modes such as writing, images, and sound to generate meaning (see Hodge and Kress 1988; van Leeuwen 2005).

Although originally grounded in critical linguistics, much of the recent work has become centered on the concept of multi-

modality, which places language as but one of the semiotic modes available in communication and representation, and where the choice of genre itself acts as a signifier and has meaning. It is here that the social semiotics approach asserts its difference from mainstream linguistics and an emphasis on meaning as separable from form. Instead, social semiotics challenges what has been taken as the arbitrary and conventional relationship between signifiers and their signified, arguing for examinations of the motivations of signs through the affordances associated with genre and mode, and their cultural and social histories.

Discourse analysis is an umbrella term for a range of approaches to the study of language including those that take a predominantly linguistic approach, and those that take a more applied or critical approach to take account of ideology and power in the representation of social reality (see Bell & Garrett 1998; Titscher et al. 2000; Schiffrin et al. 2001; Phillips & Jørgensen 2002).

Probably the most influential work in the discourse analysis of media texts has been in the area of critical discourse analysis (CDA), which has offered insights into the ideological workings of the media, especially around questions relating to power, equity, and social change. CDA has developed into an interdisciplinary movement, with scholars from a range of fields contributing their expertise to their theoretical and descriptive understandings of how dominance and power relations are reproduced in language. The critical discourse analysis movement derives its theoretical frameworks from Althusser's theories of ideology, Bakhtin's theory of genre, the writings of Gramsci, the traditions of the Frankfurt School, and in some but not all cases, Foucault's understanding of power (Titscher et al. 2000: 144–45). It shares

with systemic functional linguistics and critical linguistics a concern to use linguistic analysis as the basis for social critique, using elements of language as evidence of ideological and social processes. Over the past twenty years, critical discourse analysis has come to encompass the work of the social-cognitive approaches of Teun A. van Dijk and Ruth Wodak.

Van Dijk's approach to CDA is based on a social-cognitive dimension. Part of his considerable research as a discourse analyst has been his work on news texts (1988), which shows how schematic structures of texts (at both the macro-level of the organization of the news story, and at the micro-level of the semantic, syntactical, and lexical choices) can influence content. His early work on racism in the press (1991), which demonstrated how news practices and language contributed to power and domination and the reproduction of racism, has provided a starting point for many other studies.

CDA scholars tend to focus on social problems and consider themselves and their analyses as agents for social change by uncovering and critiquing situations of oppression and inequality based on criteria that might be used to differentiate or marginalize people, like gender, age, ethnicity, religion, or sexual orientation. By categorizing groups of people together and attributing them with a group identity based on stereotypical characteristics, and by using language which foregrounds "our" in-group characteristics positively while presenting "their" outgroup characteristics negatively, discrimination can be perpetuated. While many of the studies using CDA approaches tend to be language focused, it is accepted that the relationship between language, image, and sound are integral to the understanding of media discourse, and the social semiotic

approach of multi-modal text analysis (Kress & van Leeuwen 2001) is also included as an important contribution to this field.

Conversation analysis (CA) looks at routine practices of social interaction evident in the media. In the CA approach, talk in interaction is a fundamental way in which to understand everyday life (see Hutchby & Wooffitt 1998). The approach owes much to the study of face-to-face interaction outlined in the work of Erving Goffman in his formal study of talk, especially through his notions of face, footing, and frame, and to the work of Harold Garfinkel on the nature of shared understandings in everyday interactions.

Much of the research into broadcast talk as interaction applies methods and concepts from conversation analysis. Rather than offer critical readings of media talk, this approach focuses on the instances and routine practices of spoken interaction on radio and television, emphasizing the organization and relational aspects of how interactions are accomplished within the media context. CA investigations rely on recordings of talk, and in order to capture the details that help organize the interaction and make it intelligible, most CA analyses use a transcription notation system which represents the basic features and approximates the texture of the conversation in terms of its prosody and turn-taking.

The output of particular media can be described in terms of different forms or genres (for example, newspaper content can be divided up into news stories, feature articles, opinion pieces, editorials, advertisements, etc.). This type of generic classification enables comparisons to be made across different media, permitting, for example, print news to be compared with broadcast or internet news, radio interviews with television

interviews, or print advertising with advertising in other media, as a way of understanding the impact of the medium and its technological constraints on the nature of the communication. Media can also be classified, depending on their principal communicative purpose, as persuasive (advertising), informative (like news stories or documentaries), entertaining (television dramas or soap operas), expressive (weblogs), social (messaging and chat) etc., so that once classified, a medium (or a genre) can be considered in terms of its influence on how language is structured and used.

The language of advertising is the language of persuasion, extolling the virtues of particular products or services, exhorting people to change their behavior (perhaps to give up smoking, or to save water), or to vote for a particular political candidate. Advertising relies on sophisticated marketing research into the demographic characteristics of the target audience, including age, sex, occupations, a measure of their interests, habits, values and aspirations, or some other determinant of the social groups to which they belong. Advertising covers a variety of forms and modes: print advertising makes use of written language and visual elements; radio advertising uses spoken language and music or sound effects; television advertising uses written language, moving images, speech, and music; web advertising in banners and pop-ups can use all these modes too. At the heart of advertising is the signifying structure of the elements that constitute the message. This type of structuralist understanding owes much to Saussurian semiology and Peircean semiotic study, although neither was especially concerned with the social use of signs, their production processes and practices, their cultural context, or their reception by their audiences.

Since advertising is used across such a range of media, advertisers are able to deploy creative combinations of written language, spoken language, images, and sound to market their products. Rhetorical devices including the use of imperatives, figurative language, euphemisms, appeals to common sense or to the emotions, evidence from scientific sounding studies, alliterative slogans, puns, hyperbole, brevity, ellipsis, but also abstract and improvable claims designed to activate consumers' aspirations and dreams form the basis for an advertising register. The conversational qualities abstracted from everyday life into advertising can offer other opportunities for advertisers. Advertisements often rely on what the industry calls "reason why" techniques which connect advertiser's claims to a specific attribute, but these connections are not necessarily made clear. By presenting messages conversationally, advertisements are invoking Grice's Cooperative Principle of conversation whereby consumers expect that information given should be relevant.

The use of pronouns in advertising is one of the distinctive features of the advertising register. As Guy Cook points out, advertising uses pronouns in rather idiosyncratic ways: we is often the manufacturer or producer of the product; he/she is usually the person who did not use the product and is therefore distanced in the advertisement; I is often the expert or the narrator of the story leading to the purchase of the product (2001: 157). The use of you in advertising is more slippery. It makes use of its singular and plural referents to address both the individual (the real you or your inner self) and at the same time to encompass a group identity whose stereotypical characteristics have been determined by extensive demographic research.

Advertisements employ tropes, spoken or visual, to make associations and bestow meaning on products through the



signification process. The sounds and images of lush countryside and gently flowing streams can be used to transfer, metaphorically, natural qualities to manufactured products as diverse as canned goods or beauty products; and small furry animals can be used to make associations between their softness and paper tissue products. Brand names and logos can mobilize chains of connotative meanings (for example, using animal names for car models or in logos can transfer qualities of speed, strength, and stamina). Advertisers make use of metonymic associations, too, substituting one aspect of a sign to a whole concept, for example, by using a group of four individuals of differing ages and genders eating a meal together to connote happy families with middle-class values in a political election campaign.

Advertising is a dynamic and adaptive media genre whose techniques are constantly changing, as too are the sites from which they hail their audiences. Web pages now carry banner advertising in much the same way as the pages of newspapers and magazines, or as in the advertising break in radio and television programs. The prevalence of advertising, the creative effort that goes into its production, the complexities of its discourse and the effect it has on its receivers can redefine understandings of language, discourse, art, and society, and as such it is worthy of study.

- 1) *What does mass-media encompass?*
- 2) *What sociolinguistic approach is applied to media language?*
- 3) *Who contributed with works on media semiotics and what theories are the researcher's papers based on?*
- 4) *In semiotic terms, what is one of the key differences between verbal language and images as signs?*

- 5) *What is Stuart Hall's observation about the potential of media texts?*
- 6) *What is the recent theory of social semiotics provided by Kress, Hodge, and van Leeuwen?*
- 7) *Explain the concept of a multi-modal text.*
- 8) *How is critical discourse analysis (CDA) connected to media language?*
- 9) *What is Van Dijk's approach to CDA?*
- 10) *How are the social problems connected to the CDA in researchers' works?*
- 11) *How is conversation analysis (CA) employed into media language study?*
- 12) *What are the media products analyzed in terms of CA?*
- 13) *Could you explain what is meant by "The output of particular media can be described in terms of different forms or genres".*
- 14) *What kind of language does advertising contain and how does it contribute to the whole product of advertising?*
- 15) *What stylistic devices are used by the advertisers to elicit the consumers' emotions?*
- 16) *Comment on the tricky way of using pronouns in an advertising text.*
- 17) *How is the metaphorical approach used in producing an advertisement of a certain product?*
- 18) *How can the new type of advertising, the web advertising, make the researchers reconsider the concepts of language, discourse, art, society, etc.?*

**II. Mark the statements below as true (T) or false (F):**

1. The mass media includes only print media such as newspapers and magazines.
2. Language researchers have developed a distinct sociolinguistic approach to media language.
3. Semiotics can be used to analyze media language as part of a sign system.
4. Marcel Danesi's work on media semiotics provides an overview of semiotic theory from its foundations to its application in popular culture.
5. Verbal language and images as signs have the same arbitrary relationship between the signifier and the signified.
6. Semiotic analysis can be used to explore the relationship between signs and their signified in media texts.
7. Stuart Hall emphasized that media texts have a single connoted meaning accessible to all audiences.
8. Critical discourse analysis focuses on understanding how dominance and power relations are reproduced in media language.
9. Conversation analysis primarily focuses on the instances and routine practices of spoken interaction in the media.
10. Advertising uses a combination of written language, spoken language, images, and sound to promote products.

**III. Complete the following sentences by filling in the gaps with the appropriate words or phrases from the text:**

1. The mass media encompasses both \_\_\_\_\_  
(newspapers and magazines) and electronic or broadcast media.

2. The classification of media is based on their communicative functions and their \_\_\_\_\_ with intended audiences.
3. Researchers in language and media have applied linguistic concepts in combination with \_\_\_\_\_ or discursive approaches.
4. Semiotics allows us to consider media language as a sign system and examine the \_\_\_\_\_ on its production and understanding.
5. Semiotic theory traces its origins from Aristotle to \_\_\_\_\_, Ferdinand de Saussure, and Charles S. Peirce.
6. Verbal language differs from images as signs in terms of the \_\_\_\_\_ relationship between the signifier and the signified.
7. Saussure's principles of structural linguistics focus on the rules of \_\_\_\_\_ rather than on speech.
8. Stuart Hall highlighted the polysemic potential of media texts and the role of social and cultural constraints in \_\_\_\_\_.
9. Social semiotics emphasizes the importance of \_\_\_\_\_ and mode in generating meaning and considers meaning as separable from form.
10. Critical discourse analysis aims to uncover how \_\_\_\_\_ and power relations are reproduced in media language and discourse.
11. Conversation analysis focuses on the \_\_\_\_\_ practices of spoken interaction in the media context.
12. Advertisements use various rhetorical devices and linguistic techniques, such as \_\_\_\_\_, to persuade and influence consumers.

13. The use of pronouns in advertising is notable, including the idiosyncratic ways in which \_\_\_\_\_ are employed.
14. Advertisements make use of \_\_\_\_\_, both spoken and visual, to associate meaning with products through signification.
15. Advertising is a dynamic genre that constantly evolves and adapts to different \_\_\_\_\_ and platforms.

**IV. Discuss which way language choices in media can render social, cultural, and political ideologies.**

**V. Match the types of media listed in Column A with their corresponding intended audiences in Column B. Write the letter of the correct answer in the space provided.**

Column A

1. Newspapers
2. Radio
3. Television (sports channels)
4. Social media
5. Fashion magazines

Column B

- A. Teenagers and young adults
- B. Business professionals
- C. General public
- D. Sports enthusiasts
- E. Local community

1. \_\_\_\_\_ 2. \_\_\_\_\_ 3. \_\_\_\_\_ 4. \_\_\_\_\_ 5. \_\_\_\_\_

**VI. Provide examples of different types of media content (e.g., news articles, opinion pieces, advertisements) and analyze the language used in each, highlighting the potential impact on the audience.**

**VII. Differentiate between verbal language and visual signs by answering the following questions. Choose the appropriate option (A or B) to complete each statement.**

1. Which of the following is an example of verbal language?
  - a) A written poem
  - b) A traffic sign
2. Which of the following is an example of visual signs?
  - a) A conversation between two friends
  - b) A stop sign
3. Verbal language primarily relies on \_\_\_\_\_, while visual signs primarily rely on \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a) Spoken words, symbols and images
  - b) Written words, body language
4. Verbal language can convey \_\_\_\_\_, while visual signs can convey \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a) Emotions, complex ideas
  - b) Complex ideas, emotions
5. Verbal language is transmitted through \_\_\_\_\_, while visual signs are transmitted through \_\_\_\_\_.
  - a) Sound waves, visual stimuli
  - b) Visual stimuli, sound waves

**VIII. Fill in the table below with the names of the linguists mentioned in the text and the corresponding approaches they are associated with.**

Linguist	Approach
Ferdinand de Saussure	
Charles S. Peirce	
Roland Barthes	
Stuart Hall	
Ruth Wodak	

Erving Goffman	
Teun A. van Dijk	

**IX. Match the linguists mentioned in the text with their notable ideas or concepts they are associated with. Each linguist may have more than one associated idea. Some ideas may apply to multiple linguists.**

**Linguists:**

Ferdinand de Saussure  
 Noam Chomsky  
 Roman Jakobson  
 Mikhail Bakhtin  
 William Labov  
 Deborah Tannen  
 George Lakoff  
 John Austin  
 Paul Grice  
 Herbert H. Clark  
 J.L. Austin  
 Benjamin Lee Whorf  
 John Searle  
 Erving Goffman  
 Michael Halliday

**Ideas:**

a) Structuralism  
 b) Generative Grammar  
 c) Speech Act Theory  
 d) Pragmatics  
 e) Sociolinguistics  
 f) Discourse Analysis  
 g) Conversational Implicature  
 h) Politeness Theory  
 i) Cooperative Principle  
 j) Frame Semantics  
 k) Semiotic Triangle  
 l) Functional Grammar  
 m) Ethnomethodology  
 n) Interactional Sociolinguistics

**X. Provide examples of signs and symbols in different media contexts, such as advertisements, logos, movie posters, or online visuals.**

**XI. Explore how language in the media contributes to the construction of identities and representation.**

**XII. Discuss the portrayal of different social groups (e.g., gender, race, ethnicity) in the media and the role of language in shaping these representations.**

**XIII. Small group work: Analyze three examples from media texts to identify instances of identity construction through language:**

1. Advertising Campaign: Dove's "Real Beauty" Campaign: a) analyze the language used in Dove's advertisements and promotional materials; b) look for keywords and phrases that promote positive body image and self-acceptance; c) examine how the campaign constructs and reinforces a particular identity of "real beauty"; d) discuss the impact of language on shaping individuals' perceptions of themselves and others.

2. Social Media Campaign: #LikeAGirl by Always: a) Investigate the language used in Always' #LikeAGirl campaign on social media platforms; b) identify instances where language constructs gender identity and stereotypes; c) Analyze how the campaign challenges and reshapes societal perceptions of what it means to do something "like a girl"; d) discuss the role of language in empowering and redefining gender identities.

3. Television Show: "Orange Is the New Black": a) Examine the language and discourse used by characters in the TV series; b) analyze how language constructs the identities of the incarcerated women; c) explore the representation of race, gender, and social class through language; d) discuss the portrayal of identity and power dynamics within the prison system.



#### **XIV. Case study: Coca-Cola's "Share a Coke" Campaign**

Explore the sociolinguistic aspects of Coca-Cola's "Share a Coke" Campaign and its impact on consumer engagement and identity: a) Identify linguistic features used (names, lyrics, destinations); b) Consider sociocultural context and target audience; C) Analyze language variations across countries/regions; D) Examine consumer responses and social media engagement; E) Interpret sociolinguistic significance of personalization; F) Evaluate celebrity endorsement and cultural influence; G) Compare with other campaigns using sociolinguistic elements.

**XV. Analyze a specific media example using the principles of social semiotics. Consider the signs, symbols, codes, and conventions used in the media example and explain how they contribute to the overall meaning and message.**

**XVI. Analyze a media product using either critical discourse analysis or conversation analysis techniques. Focus on aspects such as power dynamics, ideologies, representation, or interactional patterns.**

**XVII. Create 2-3 advertisements for goods using the multimodal text approach. Consider the target audience, persuasive language, visual design, and overall message.**

## UNIT ELEVEN: LANGUAGE POLICY AND PLANNING (LPP)

### Objectives:

- *To determine the goals of language policies: the government and the people;*
- *to explain how planning works (or does not);*
- *to compare the factors that are used to research LPP;*
- *based on the LPP examples to suggest a LPP in our country for the next 30-50 years.*

**I. The text below is taken from “An Introduction to sociolinguistics” written by Ronald Wardhaugh & Jannet M. Fuller, published at Oxford, UK in 2015 and is summarized by the authors of the given book. Read it and answer the questions that follow the text:**

Attempts to change languages, in terms of either their form or their function, are usually described as instances of **language planning**. Because the ‘plans’ involved in changing languages often involve policy decisions, work on language planning is often intertwined with work on language policy, and this body of literature is frequently referred to as LPP (Language Policy and Planning; see Hornberger 2006). Hornberger points out that the relationship between policy and planning is complex; planning does not always lead to policy or vice versa, rather they are intertwined processes. She concludes, ‘LPP offers a unified conceptual rubric under which to pursue fuller understanding of the complexity of the policy-planning relationship and in turn its insertion in processes of social change’ (Hornberger 2006, 25).

Spolsky (2004) offers a definition of language policy which includes three components: the language practices of a community, in particular the patterns of choices of which varieties

are used in particular circumstances; language ideologies; and any specific efforts made to influence practices through intervention, planning, and management.

**Language planning** is an attempt to interfere deliberately with a language or one of its varieties: it is human intervention into natural processes of language change, diffusion, and erosion. That attempt may focus on either its status with regard to some other language or variety or its internal condition with a view to changing that condition, or on both of these since they are not mutually exclusive. The first focus results in **status planning** and the second one results in **corpus planning**.

**Status planning** changes the function of a language or a variety of a language and the rights of those who use it. For example, when speakers of a minority language are denied the use of that language in educating their children, their language has no official status. Status itself is a relative concept; it may also be improved or reduced by degrees. So far as languages and their varieties are concerned, status changes are nearly always very slow. They affect the rights of people to use their language in their daily lives and in their dealings with the state and its various agencies.

As a result of planning decisions, a language can achieve one of a variety of statuses (Kloss 1968). A language may be recognized as the sole **official language**, as French is in France or English in the United Kingdom and the United States.

This fact does not necessarily mean that the status must be recognized constitutionally or by statute; it may be a matter of long-standing practice, as it is with English in the two cases cited above. Two or more languages may share official status in some

countries, for example, English and French in Canada and in Cameroon; French and Flemish in Belgium; French, German, Italian, and Romansh in Switzerland; etc. A language may also have **official status but only on a regional basis**, for example, Igbo, Yoruba, and Hausa in Nigeria; German in Belgium; and Marathi in Maharashtra, India.

A language may be a **'promoted' language**, lacking official status, but used by various institutions for specific purposes; for instance, English is increasingly used in educational contexts in Germany and Sweden. A **tolerated language** is one that is neither promoted nor proscribed or restricted, for example, Basque in France, many immigrant languages in Western Europe, and Native American languages in North America. A **discouraged or proscribed language** is one against which there are official sanctions or restrictions, for example, Basque in the early years of Franco's regime in Spain; Scots Gaelic after the 1745 rising; Macedonian in Greece.

**Corpus planning** seeks to develop a variety of a language, usually to standardize it. Consequently, corpus planning may involve such matters as the development of an orthography, new sources of vocabulary, dictionaries, and a literature, together with the deliberate cultivation of new uses so that the language may extend its use into such areas as government, education, and trade. Governments sometimes very deliberately involve themselves in the standardization process by establishing official bodies of one kind or another to regulate language matters or to encourage changes felt to be desirable.

One of the most famous examples of an official body established to promote the language of a country was Richelieu's establishment of the Académie Française in 1635. Founded at a

time when a variety of languages existed in France, when literacy was confined to a very few, and when there was little national consciousness, the Académie Française faced an unenviable task: the codification of French spelling, vocabulary, and grammar. Its goal was to fashion and reinforce French nationality, a most important task considering that, even two centuries later in the early 19th century, the French of Paris was virtually unknown in many parts of the country, particularly in the south.

Similar attempts to found academies in England and the United States for the same purpose met with no success, individual dictionary-makers and grammar writers having performed much the same function for English. Since both French and English are today highly standardized, one might question whether such academies serve a useful purpose, yet it is difficult to imagine France without the Académie Française.

It should also be noted that descriptive grammars and lexicons may be perceived as prescriptive ones. For example, in Germany *the Duden* (a multi-volume reference work on the German language) is considered to dictate what is good German; for instance, the first volume on orthography dictates 'correct' spelling (particularly useful after a spelling reform in 1996). However, like most grammars and dictionaries, *the Duden* also reflects current usage: inclusion in *the Duden* indicates pervasive use of a phrase, rather than 'correctness' in the static sense that is usually associated with the standard.

While much of this discussion of LPP seems based on the idea that planning is done at the level of the government through laws and policies, there is also a body of research that looks at bottom-up approaches to LPP. Educational practices, although

often not explicitly identified as language planning, can indeed have an impact on language practices and ideologies.

Haugen (1961) was one of the first people to use the term language planning in his work on language standardization in Norwegian, where he described planning as concerning matters such as orthography, grammar, and lexicon and both prescriptive and descriptive material. Since that time, the scope of the field has broadened to include other aspects of language and society. In an article outlining the historical and theoretical approaches to the field, Ricento (2000) outlines three factors which have shaped research in LPP.

The first of these is macro-sociopolitical factors, for example, the formation or disintegration of political units (e.g., nations), wars, and population migrations. The second type of factor which influences research is epistemological; this refers to developments in theory and paradigms of knowledge which are used in LPP, for example, Marxism, structuralism, or postmodernism. The third type of factor is strategy, that is, the social goal of the research. For instance, the aim could be to support current policies being implemented, or to expose inequalities in language planning. As well Ricento distinguishes phases in LPP research since World War II: (1) early work: decolonization, structuralism, and pragmatism; (2) failure of modernization, critical sociolinguistics, and access; and (3) the new world order, postmodernism, and linguistic human rights.

Ricento (2000, 197) describes the first phase as work conducted with a focus on the macro-sociopolitical state of decolonization within the epistemological framework of structuralism, and with a pragmatic aim, that is, with the assumption that language planning and policy could solve language problems which arose

during decolonization. Such research involved both: status planning, that is, selecting new national languages, and corpus planning to codify those languages. Researchers framed such planning and policy initiatives as being largely non-political and straightforward pragmatic problem-solving. In order to maintain this position, languages were abstracted from their social and historical context (Ricento 2000, 199–200).

The second phase, which began in the 1970s, showed more reflection on decolonization as both the macro-sociopolitical factor and the epistemological factor – one indication of the latter being the introduction of the term neo-colonial. There was more discussion of hierarchy and social stratification and how language plays a role in the reproduction of power relationships. This more critical aim led researchers away from the narrow focus on standardization and graphization of the first phase of research to an examination of the social, political, and economic consequences of language planning and policies, especially in situations of language contact (Ricento 2000, 202).

Ricento describes the third phase, which began in the mid-1980s under the influence of ‘the new world order,’ by which he means the breakup of the Soviet Union and the creation of new national identities, the repatriation of colonies such as Hong Kong, the development of new political unions, for example, the European Union, and the globalization of capitalism (2000, 203). Postmodern theory also led to an increased focus on ideologies in LPP, and an emerging aim was promoting multilingualism and foreign language learning and defending (minority) language rights.

Further on we will look at a variety of linguistic situations in Europe and Asia to see some instances of planning. Turkey

provides a good example of very deliberate language planning designed to achieve certain national objectives and to do this very quickly. When Kemal Atatürk (ata 'father'), the 'father of the Turks,' established the modern republic of Turkey, he was confronted with the task of modernizing Turkish. It had no vocabulary for modern science and technology, was written in Arabic orthography, and was strongly influenced by both Arabic and Persian. In 1928 Atatürk deliberately adopted the Roman script for his new modern language.

This choice symbolically cut the Turks off from their Islamic past and directed their attention toward both their Turkish roots and their future as Turks in a modern world. Since only 10 percent of the population was literate, there was no mass objection to the changes. It was also possible to use the new script almost immediately as various steps were taken to increase the amount of literacy in the country. Language planning issues in Turkey reflect the social and political situation. One of the issues, shared with many other languages, involves the ideology of purity of the language, this time with the encroachment of English words (Doğançay-Aktuna 2004, 14ff). Furthermore, English is increasingly used in primary and secondary schools in a variety of programs, and English-medium universities have been established. This development is in keeping with Turkey's claim to be a modern country which can compete in a globalized economy (Doğançay-Aktuna and Kiziltepe 2005, Kirkgöz 2007).

- 1) *Give the definition of language planning.*
- 2) *Who was the first researcher to use the term "language planning"?*
- 3) *How is the language change connected with language policy? (Explain Hornberger's point of view.)*



- 4) *What are the two types of planning as part of the language planning process?*
- 5) *Explain the process of status planning.*
- 6) *Which are the possible statuses that a language can have in a society?*
- 7) *Speak about each type of a language status and illustrate it by giving an example.*
- 8) *What is corpus planning?*
- 9) *Compare the French and the English way to standardize the language.*
- 10) *How does the German Duden function?*
- 11) *Which are the levels of the LPP in the society hierarchy?*
- 12) *What is Ricento's contribution to LPP research?*
- 13) *How does the macro-sociopolitical factor work on the LPP research?*
- 14) *How does the epistemological factor influence research in LPP?*
- 15) *Which is the third type of factor by means of which LPP is researched?*
- 16) *Give an example of a language modernization. What was its outcome?*

**II. Mark the following statements as true (T) or false (F):**

1. Language planning and language policy are two separate processes.
2. Language planning involves deliberate interference with natural processes of language change.
3. Language status planning focuses on changing the internal condition of a language.
4. Status planning can result in the denial of language rights for minority speakers.

5. Corpus planning aims to develop and standardize a variety of a language.
6. The Académie Française was established to promote and standardize the French language.
7. The Duden is a reference work on the German language that dictates correct spelling and grammar.
8. Language planning is solely conducted by governments through laws and policies.
9. Bottom-up approaches to language planning consider educational practices and their impact on language practices and ideologies.
10. The field of language policy and planning has evolved over time, influenced by macro-sociopolitical factors, epistemological factors, and research goals.

**III. Identify the two intertwined processes in language planning and language policy.**

**IV. Define the three components of language policy according to Spolsky (2004).**

**V. Explain the concept of language planning and its purpose.**

**VI. Discuss different types of Language Planning, including corpus planning (standardization), status planning (language rights and policies), and acquisition planning (language education). Provide real-world examples of Language Planning initiatives from different regions or countries.**

**VII. For each scenario, identify whether it represents a goal of language policy for the government (G) or the people (P).**

- a) Promoting national unity and identity
- b) Preserving cultural heritage and diversity
- c) Enhancing economic competitiveness
- d) Ensuring equal access to education and government services
- e) Protecting minority language rights
- f) Facilitating communication and integration in multicultural societies
- g) Fostering linguistic and cultural exchange
- h) Promoting language as a tool for diplomacy and international relations

**VIII. Read each statement below and determine whether it describes how language planning works (W) or how it does not work (NW).**

- 1. Language planning involves deliberate interventions to shape language development and use.
- 2. Language planning relies on understanding the dynamics of language change and diffusion.
- 3. Successful language planning requires close collaboration between policymakers, linguists, and language communities.
- 4. Language planning is solely determined by government authorities without considering societal needs and perspectives.
- 5. Language planning aims to address language-related challenges and achieve specific goals.
- 6. Language planning can face resistance and opposition from language communities and stakeholders.
- 7. Effective language planning considers the sociocultural context and values of language users.

8. Language planning can lead to positive language outcomes, such as improved access to education and increased language revitalization efforts.

**IX. Read the following statements and determine whether they highlight a similarity (S), a difference (D), or both (B) between the concepts discussed in the text. Write "S" for similarity, "D" for difference, or "B" for both in the space provided.**

- a) Language planning and language policy are intertwined processes.
- b) Language status planning and corpus planning are two different focuses of language planning.
- c) Language status planning and corpus planning can both result in changes to language function.
- d) Language status changes are usually slow, while corpus planning seeks to standardize a language more quickly.
- e) Both status planning and corpus planning involve deliberate human intervention into natural language processes.
- f) Language planning can involve the development of orthography, vocabulary, and literature.
- g) The Académie Française in France and language academies in England and the United States serve similar purposes in promoting language standardization.
- h) Language planning can be conducted solely by governments through laws and policies.
- i) Bottom-up approaches to language planning and government-led planning can both impact language practices and ideologies.
- j) The field of language policy and planning has evolved over time, influenced by macro-sociopolitical factors, epistemological factors, and research goals.

**X. Read the following passage carefully. Identify and compare the key differences and similarities between language planning and language policy.**

Language Planning:

1. Involves deliberate interference with a language or its varieties.
2. Often driven by national objectives and rapid modernization efforts.
3. Focuses on changing the form or function of a language.
4. Can result in status planning or corpus planning.
5. Aims to standardize a language through orthography, vocabulary development, and literature cultivation.
6. Includes attempts to influence language status and rights.
7. May involve the establishment of official bodies to regulate language matters.
8. Examples include Turkey's language planning to adopt the Roman script.

Language Policy:

1. Encompasses language practices, ideologies, and efforts to influence language practices.
2. Considers the complexity of the policy-planning relationship.
3. Examines patterns of language choices in different contexts.
4. Explores the relationship between language and social change.
5. Considers issues of language purity and the encroachment of English words.
6. Promotes multilingualism and defends minority language rights.

7. Focuses on the macro-sociopolitical factors shaping language planning.
8. Expands research beyond standardization to examine social, political, and economic consequences.

**XI. Complete the Sentences:**

Language planning specifically refers to deliberate interference with a language, while language policy encompasses a broader range of language practices and ideologies. In language planning, the focus is on \_\_\_\_\_, whereas language policy examines \_\_\_\_\_.

Language planning involves attempts to influence language status and rights, while language policy considers the macro-sociopolitical factors and their impact on language planning. Language planning aims to \_\_\_\_\_, whereas language policy takes into account \_\_\_\_\_.

Language planning results in status planning or corpus planning, whereas language policy explores the complexity of the policy-planning relationship. Status planning focuses on \_\_\_\_\_, while corpus planning involves \_\_\_\_\_.

Language planning aims to standardize a language through various measures, while language policy goes beyond standardization to analyze social, political, and economic consequences. Language planning seeks to \_\_\_\_\_, while language policy examines \_\_\_\_\_.

Both language planning and language policy involve efforts to influence language practices and ideologies. They share the objective \_\_\_\_\_ of \_\_\_\_\_.

Both fields acknowledge the relationship between language and social change. They recognize that

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Both language planning and language policy recognize the importance of understanding the complex nature of language planning and policy. They emphasize

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Both language planning and language policy consider the impact of language choices on individuals and communities, including minority language rights. They recognize that language choices can

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**XII. Examine the role of the Académie Française in standardizing the French language.**

**XIII. Analyze the influence of the Duden in Germany on language usage and standardization.**

**XIV. Explore the three factors that shape research in Language Policy and Planning.**

**XV. Discuss the significance of language rights in preserving linguistic diversity, protecting minority languages, and ensuring linguistic equality.**

**XVI. Examine the role of international organizations (e.g., UNESCO) in promoting language rights and policies globally.**

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## TEST SAMPLE

### **Subject one: Interaction, Style and Discourse. (50p.)**

1.1. (16p) *Which are the main perspectives of studying a conversation? State the ideas given by various scholars.*

1.2. (17p) *How does ethnography of communication contrasts with conversation analysis?*

1.3. (17p) *Using Hymes' SPEAKING categories define the communicative events of:*

- gossiping;
- advertising a new tool for onion chopping;
- priest service;
- new company president's greeting speech.

### **Subject two: World Englishes. (50p.)**

2.1. (16p.) *According to David Crystal, how many territories on the globe use English as the first, the second language, as foreign language, etc. and which is the approximate total number of EL speakers? (Name some countries) What is the possible statute of English? (4 variants).*

2.2. (17p.) *Compare British, American and Australian English in terms of pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. Give examples.*

2.3. (17p.) *How did the course of Sociolinguistics improve your understanding of other subjects? Come with various arguments.*

**Valentina SPEIAN**  
**lector universitar, USM**  
**Natalia GAIBU**  
**magistru, lector universitar, USM**

## **Fragen stellen – fragen können?**

*Роль вопросов в системной работе над иностранным языком трудно переоценить, т.к. они являются универсальным способом и условием успешной коммуникации. Статья содержит перечень видов вопросов и техники работы с ними на уроке иностранного языка; в ней также предложены рекомендации для успешного использования вопросов в преподавании иностранного языка.*

Fragen stellen und Antworten geben ist eine besondere Form der Kommunikation im DAF-Unterricht. Unter allen deutschen Wörtern und Redewendungen für Anfänger gehören Fragewörter zu den wichtigsten und hilfreichsten. Sie werden immer wieder verwendet, um mehr Informationen beim Spracherlernen zu erhalten und dadurch Verständnis zu verbessern.

Unserer Beachtung nach, hängt der Erfolg in vielen sozialen Bereichen wie Gespräche, Training und Sprachunterricht von Fragen ab, nämlich *wie die gestellt und bearbeitet werden*. So sind wir auf die Idee gekommen, dem Thema „Fragen“ systematisch beim Unterrichten nachzugehen. Dabei hielten wir folgende *Schwerpunkte für wichtig*:

- Was passiert beim „Fragen“ und beim „Antworten“?
- Gibt es „hilfreiche“ Fragetechniken für unterschiedliche Phasen im Sprachunterricht?
- Was kommt nach der Frage?
- Was ist eine Frage: Frageformen, Fragetechniken und Fragekategorien.

Zu wissen, wie man Fragen richtig stellt, ist unerlässlich. Auch wenn man Fehler macht, kann man immer *Entschuldigung* sagen und es noch einmal versuchen. Denn, wie lernt man sonst? *Die Kommunikationskultur* ist also eine wichtige Voraussetzung, um angstfrei eine Fremdsprache lernen zu können. Die Frage ist der Auftakt zu mehr und der Beginn eines Miteinanders.

*Gut formulierte Fragen sind ein zentrales Element in der pädagogischen Arbeit.* Welche Art von Fragen und wie sie gestellt werden, kann einen sehr großen Einfluss auf das gesamte Unterrichtsgeschehen haben: Fragen können *motivieren*, aber auch *entmutigen*. Sie können die *Denkrichtung ändern*, humorvoll oder trocken sein. Sie können Türen öffnen, aber auch verschließen. *Mit Hilfe von Fragen* besteht die Möglichkeit

- den Lernenden zu lenken,
- zu provozieren
- oder zur Problemlösung zu bringen
- sowie auch dem Gedanken- und Erfahrungsaustausch beizutragen.

Der vorliegende Beitrag gibt also eine skizzierte Übersicht über *Ziele, Frageformen- und Fragetechniken* sowie auch über *die Wirkung unserer Fragen* im Unterricht.

Wir haben uns die Frage gestellt: Warum fällt es vielen Studierenden schwer, richtig fragen zu können? Es scheint sehr einfach: Wer etwas wissen will, stellt eine Frage – und bekommt im besten Fall eine Antwort. In der Praxis kann es sehr schwierig sein, eine Frage richtig zu formulieren-nämlich so, dass die befragte Person sie versteht und weiß, um welche Informationen die fragende Person bittet.

Tatsächlich gibt es eine Reihe von möglich vorkommenden Gründen für diese Sprachhemmungen, z.B. der Befragte gewinnt

einen Eindruck, dass man fragt, um ihn zu prüfen oder zu kritisieren. Fragen transportieren manchmal selbst Informationen und dadurch wird der Befragte zum Nachdenken und zum inneren Suchen nach den Ideen eingeladen.

*Gut gefragt ist ganz gewonnen* - dieser Spruch ist ein Schlüssel für die DAF-Lehrer. Fragen bringen Bewegung und Leben in den Unterricht. Es ist nämlich das, was uns, Lehrern, so oft besonders im digitalen Fremdsprachenunterricht fehlt. Für die Dozierende sind die Fragen eine sehr einfache und zugleich *effektive Methode*, mit der sie ihre Studierende aktivieren und zum selbständigen kritischen Denken und Verarbeiten *von fachlichen Inhalten anregen können*. Was bedeutet aber *gut gefragt*?

Ein paar Orientierungspunkte darüber :

- Fragen sollten respektvoll und klar formuliert sein.
- Fragen sollten kurz und eindeutig gestellt werden. Eine einfache Wortwahl und ein logischer Satzbau erleichtern das Verständnis.
- Der Fragende sollte Ruhe mitbringen und schweigen können. Antworten sind oft eine Suche nach der individuellen Wahrheit und die ist nicht immer schnell abrufbar.
- Wer fragt, sollte neugierig auf die Antwort sein.
- Nur eine Frage zurzeit. Nicht fünf auf einmal.
- Auf den Klang der Stimme und die Körpersprache achten.

Wer fragt, soll sich auch über die Macht, die durch Fragen entstehen kann, bewusst sein und deshalb ganz gut verstehen, wie seine Gefühle, Einstellungen und natürlich Haltungen dem Antwortenden gegenüber sind.

Die Aufgabe der Profis ist es, ihre Arbeit bestmöglich zu gestalten: Die Frage so formulieren,

- dass sie eher als Bitte um eine Antwort oder als Einladung zum Nachdenken verstanden wird,
- oder dem Befragten die Erlaubnis geben, die Frage nicht zu beantworten, wenn er nicht will sowie auch sich für die Antwort bedanken.

Welche Fragetechniken soll man kennen, um die Kommunikation im Team hervorzurufen und zu beeinflussen?  
Wann ist die Frage gut?

Wenn sie

- interessant und an Lernende orientiert ist,
- gut und genügend ausgerichtet wird,
- Sprach- und Grammatikarbeit ermöglicht.

Wichtig sind dabei die Situation, in der eine Frage gestellt wird und das Ziel, das mit der Frage erreicht werden soll. So ist z. B. das *Ziel einer Frage* eine Aufforderung zur Reflexion sowie auch zu einer Antwort. Eine Frage ist zugleich eine Äußerung, die gemacht wird, um Informationen zu erhalten, etwas zu erfahren, was man nicht weiß. Gut geeignet sind dafür *systemische* Fragen, weil die Studierenden immer im Kontext ihres Systems agieren:

- Einstiegsfrage ( Was werden/wollen wir heute..., zu welchem Thema...)
- Gefühlsfrage ( Wie fühlen Sie sich..)
- Ressourcen-Frage ( Haben Sie ein/e ähnliche/s Problem/Aufgabe schon einmal gelöst?)
- Frage nach einer Lösung (Welche Lösung sehen Sie...)

Keine Angst vor solchen Fragen- sie motivieren die unsicheren Studierenden mitzumachen und eine Lösung oder einen Zwischenschritt in die richtige Richtung zu finden.

Gute Fragen wollen also gut überlegt sein. Es kommt insbesondere auf die Art der Fragen und die Formulierung an, denn eine Frage lässt sich nicht immer eindeutig einer Fragenart

zuordnen. Das hängt davon ab, *welche Art von Antwort* jeweils erwartet wird.

Es gibt verschiedene Arten von Fragen, die je nach dem eingesetzten Lernziel zu unterscheiden sind. Die häufigsten und wichtigsten sind:

- *Offene Fragen* ( Welche Fragen haben Sie?) eignen sich, wenn man viel hören und ausführliche Antworten erhalten möchte. Sie bestehen aus W-Fragen (wer, was, weshalb, wie viele) und adressieren höhere Lernziele (Erklären, Erläutern, Vergleichen, Bewerten). Offene Fragen (auch öffnende Fragen) regen oft zu einem phantasievollen und kreativen Gespräch an, können auch problematisch sein, da Antworten leicht zu Rechtfertigungen werden, was die Kommunikation behindern kann.
- *Geschlossene Fragen* (Haben Sie heute was gelernt?) haben oft einen ausfragenden Charakter. Das sind die Entscheidungsfragen , um Wissen abzufragen (Ist der Rhein ein Fluss?) und eine Entscheidung zu treffen . Sind auch einsetzbar, wenn man die notwendigen Informationen möglichst schnell erheben oder den Befragten in eine bestimmte Richtung lenken will. Das Negative an geschlossenen Fragen ist, dass sie zum Sprechen nicht anregen. Auf die geschlossenen Fragen folgt das Warten auf die nächste Frage und dadurch wird dem Unterricht Zeit genommen. Viel mehr, weitere Fragen kommen nacheinander und können abwehrende und feindliche Gefühle wecken. Die kurzen Antworten aber können Schweigen als Folge haben.
- *Aktivierende Fragen* (*Habe ich Sie richtig verstanden, dass ..*) , auch Rückfragen genannt, zeigen unser ernsthaftes Interesse und können das Tempo eines Gesprächs verringern.

Fragen anwenden kann man zum Einstieg oder Abschluss einer Lektion, zwischendurch auch als Aktivierung. Dabei sei es erforderlich, dass sich der Lehrende Gedanken über die Form und die Zeit macht ( mündlich/schriftlich, individuell/ in Gruppen, wie viel Zeit zur Verfügung steht). Man soll *ausreichend Zeit für die Bearbeitung* geben (mind. 10 Sekunden Wartezeit bei mündlichen Antworten im Plenum). Auf die schriftlich oder mündlich eingeholten Antworten *soll man summarisch oder individuell Rückmeldung geben*.

Es gibt allerdings keine hilfreiche Fragen mit garantierter Wirkung oder genau das Gegenteil. Fragen ist ein *wechselseitiger Prozess*, in dem verschiedene Faktoren zusammenkommen müssen, um eine hilfreiche Wirkung entfalten zu können. Das Fragestellen ist also für jeden Lehrer eine wesentliche Schlüsselkompetenz, die geübt werden muss. Das Auseinander mit diesem Thema hat uns auch gezeigt, wie sehr uns selbst das alles auch betroffen hat.

Deshalb wäre es, aus unserer Sicht, für die Lehrer sehr empfehlenswert, sich *Gedanken über die eigene Praxis des Fragestellens zu machen und ihre Lehrkultur neu zu definieren*. So eine unbekannte Quelle: *Wer drei Minuten fragt, ist drei Minuten unwissend. Wer nie fragt, ist immer unwissend*.

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**Svetlana CORCEVSCHI,  
Viorica LIFARI, Tatiana ȚEPLIC**

**Sociolingvistica limbilor germană și engleză**  
(în limbile germană și engleză)

**Corectură – Antonina Dembițchi**

**Asistență computerizată – Maria Bondari**

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