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**Understanding  
Sociolinguistics**

# Understanding Sociolinguistic

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## FOREWORD

Sociolinguistics studies the relationship between language and society, such as language use and variation, which influence social factors. It benefits learning sociolinguistics, such as exploring how language reflects and shapes cultural norms, values and language identities; by learning sociolinguistics, we know how language choice in interaction.

In language teaching, the teacher and students understand language variation, multilingualism and language use. More benefits for students after learning sociolinguistics provide many career opportunities such as education, journalism, public relations and translation.

This book presented materials such as a brief on sociolinguistics, language and communities, language variation, language planning and language death, language changes, language and gender, sociolinguistics fieldwork, sociolinguistics in literature, sociolinguistics and English language teaching and Sociolinguists.

The writers hope that “Sociolinguistics” will be useful and be a reference for students, lecturers, and researchers focusing on sociolinguistics.

Surakarta, February 2024

Author(s)

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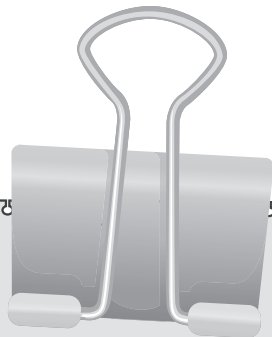
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CHAPTER 1

**THE BRIEF  
OF SOCIOLINGUISTIC**



**Source: Pinterest**

**S**ociolinguistics studies social and language, such as cultural norms, expectations, and context (Trudgill, 2000 in Rinaldi et al., 2023). In addition, sociolinguistics is the Study of linguistics in different ways and social contexts, such as age, gender, social class, and ethnic group (Rifai & Prasetyaningrum, 2016). sociolinguistics studies the relationship between language and society, such as who speaks, *which language to whom, and when* (Ismatullaeva et al., 2022). For instance,

Elizabeth : *Listen, word to the wise, stop dressing like you are running for Congress.*

Sasha : *I do not want to run for Congress. I want to be President.*

Elizabeth : *See, that is what I am talking about. Keep saying s\*\*t like that, and you are going to ' get punched.*

Elizabeth's utterance, the word S\*\*t, means feces. Elizabeth's utterance has a negative effect on the government. It shows that Elizabeth does not have respect for the institution(Anggita, 2017).

## A. The Scope of Sociolinguistics

The scope of sociolinguistics, according to (Meyerhoff 2006 in Pinto, 2012). Below:

- 1) Sociolinguistics on language use or particular of language by who, when, and where in what manner and the social circumstances;
- 2) Sociolinguistics studies social attributes (class, sex, and age) to understand the social structure and speech form in society;
- 3) Furthermore, sociolinguistics teaches language variation such as register, social dialectology;

- 4) The other areas of sociolinguistics study language change, multilingualism, language interaction, language contact, and language planning.

According to Coulmas, 1998 in Pascarina, 2014 sociolinguistics divided into two centres are: micro sociolinguistics and macro sociolinguistics. Micro sociolinguistics related to language and society, the structure of language, and how language functions in communication. The social structure discusses how people talk, language varieties, and the language related to social attributes such as class, sex, and age. So, Macro sociolinguistics is language discovery about how social structure better and related to linguistic features serve to characterize particular social arrangements.

## **B. Language and Society**

Society is the individual continuing interaction of the life process and organisms associating. The individual in the social process grows spontaneously, as does the food process and foods (Ellwood, 1909 in JSTOR). However, language and society are how language functions in communication (Fishman, 1972 in Sukrisna, 2019).

Society includes cultural norms, expectations, and the effect of language use. Moreover, language and society are related because society influences language function based on how people use language in society (Wardhaugh, 2006 & Holmes, 2006 in Nurhasanah, 2018).

Example:

*Putusnya udah lama, keponya masih sampai sekarang. Cakep. (dan tidak penting)*

The utterance “Kepo” is an abbreviation for “Knowing every particular object,” which means that someone is excessively curious about other people’s interests or affairs. The word “Kepo” is often used by speakers in utterances where the person they are saying wants to know the affairs of the person they are saying well. Directly or on social media. Moreover, “Kepo” is input on Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia (Afdhaliyah & Haq, 2021)

## C. Sociology of Language

Sociology is the Study of society, which relates people in a social group context. Moreover, sociolinguistics is learning how humans interact with each other and how society influences individuals (Giddens,1982 in Doda,

2005). So, the Sociology of language means studying language and society, such as the kind of language, how social structure influences, language varieties, and social attributes (Hudson,1996 & Coulmas,1997 in Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2021).

Example:

Teacher : Remember that when you answer the question, when you choose the answer, whether A, B, C, or D, you have to give the following reason. It means you support your answer by giving me the sentence, *paham*.

Students : Yes.

Teacher : Good. You know what I hope. Can we start now?

Students : yeah

The conversation above is an utterance between a teacher and a student; teacher utterance uses high restrictions as an example of language power, so language power is a kind of Study of the sociology of language, in which language of power is a person has dominance or control the others and struggle to maintain their position for example, doctor and patient, teacher and students, boss and workers, government and citizens, mass media and audience so many others (Donal,2014).

## D. The History of Sociolinguistics

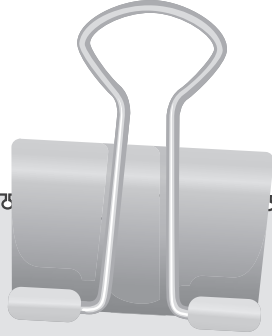
Sociolinguistics was introduced by Athanasius Selishev in 1920, from 1950 until 1970, and developed by Uriel Weinreich and William Labov. Sociolinguistics is the study of how people use language in a community and how society changes. On the other hand, Russian linguists in the 1920s and 1930s studied two terms: linguistics and sociolinguistics, closely connected with life, society, the emergence of national traditions, and national values, which correspond to sociolinguistics.

In 1960, sociolinguistics was carried out in Asia and Europe by William Labov in a sociolinguistics dictionary that collected questions and answers by mail. In 1980, a linguist named Chrisin conducted research on human pronunciation, and her results showed that the peculiarities of sociolinguistics were revealed. Since “sociolinguistics” originated at the intersection of two disciplines, it can be an important factor in developing interdisciplinary relations. In the process of studying sociolinguistics as a science, its universal and political features, including language and society, language and ideology, language and thinking, language and people, language and youth, language and sex, language in state institutions, language development planning, as well as language philosophical features should be

studied. In particular, the view of “sociolinguistics” as a philosophical linguistics in the eyes of many linguists means that this science is inextricably linked with other disciplines. In particular, it is possible to clarify this issue by reviewing the “Dictionary of Linguistic Terms” by OS Akhmanova or the “Short Dictionary of Linguistic Terms” by AP Khodzhev (Xamidullaevna,2021).

William Labov or Labov’s contribution of language science in all parts of the world, such as its social context, the core component of what would become known, following Labov, as language variation and change or (more generally) sociolinguistics. Some of those early attempts were carefully conceived and well-articulated, notably those by the Swiss philologist Louis Gauchat (1866–1942) and the Japanese dialectologist Takesi Sibata (1918– 2007), but for all their noble intentions, their studies remained largely local matters, admired by a few scholars but limited in their influence and evanescent in their currency (Chambers, 2017).





CHAPTER 2

**LANGUAGE  
AND COMMUNITIES**



**L**anguage community is the person in a social situation in which the speaker or person influences another person or community, and the utterance makes a language choice or changes codes or variety (Ervin in Sholikah, 2018). In addition, language community is the speaker in utterance in members of minority groups or communities within a majority language context (Clyne, 1991 in naldic.org).

## A. Dialects

Dialect is the speaker in utterance has a variety of particular languages, such as syntactical, phonological, and grammatical, the form of dialect based on the regional and social (Budiarsa, 2017). Moreover, dialects mean the different ways the speaker utters something, which

reflects the social structure, such as class, gender, and origin (Halliday, 1978 in Solano-Flores, 2006).

Commonly, many speakers use the American and British English language by the natives in the world. The American English style (AE) is contradicted by British English (BE) in that the American pronunciation style uses “r” on every side of the words, which is very clear in spelling. For example, the words work-bird-bored-storm-earth, etc. The spelling of AE, for example, program-catalog-prologue-airplane-check, etc., the vocabulary of AE, napkin-closet-cookie, etc. Grammar in American English (AE), for example, the word “have” is a kind of expression we have two daughters and two sons; for interrogative sentences, use the word “do” or, do you have two daughters and two sons? While a word in American English does not need to be used.

So, in the British Dialect, The word with “r” does not produce a sound if “r” is in front of a vowel or at the end of the word, except if the following is a vowel. Sometimes, there are even some words that are almost indistinguishable in how they are pronounced. Examples: law-lore, paw-pore-pour, maw-more, etc. The spelling of BE style is the word ending by -re or -our be -er or -or in American English (AE), for example, centre-center, litre-liter, colour-color, etc. The vocabulary of BE includes post-mail, petrol-gasoline, time table-schedule, etc. Moreover, British dialects do not

need “do” examples: BE (have you a book?), AE (do you have a book?), while the word “got,” BE (Have you got a match?), AE (Do you have a match?) (Musdalifah, 2022)

Example:

stɒp raɪt ðeə, Aladdin.

The utterance above is an example of an Arabesque (Arab-English) dialect, which means “Stop right there, Aladdin” (Berliana Devi, 2022).

## B. Styles

Styles are the speaker variations related to certain groups or situations. Every speaker has their way of expressing their meaning through language, and every speaker has a different way of expressing (Bell, 1997 in Debora, 2013) (Joos, 1967 in Debora, 2013). Types of styles are frozen style, formal style, consultative style, intimate style, and casual style. Bellow more explanation and examples of styles:

### 1) Frozen Style

Frozen style is language style in a formal situation where the sentences are carefully constructed, and sequences are intricately related (Joos, 1976 in M. Joharis Lubis & Fitri Noviyanti Nasution, 2021)



Example:

Mr Tushman: *"The final award this morning is the Henry Ward Beecher medal to honour students who have been notable or exemplary in certain areas throughout the school year. Henry Ward Beecher was the nineteenth-century abolitionist and fiery sermonizer for human rights after whom this school was named".*

Mr. Tushman's utterance is an example of frozen style because this dialogue occurs formally. Mr. Tushman speaks in front of the teachers, students, and parents. He uses formal words, and he speaks in a formal ceremony for the Henry Ward Beecher Award at the auditorium in the school (Wahyudiantari, 2023)

## 2) Formal Style



Formal style is a language style that can be found in the classroom in which interaction between students and lecture others conditions such as related the facts show that like in technical formal writing (Martin Joss, 1976 in Wahyudiantari, 2023).

Example:

Steve : *Good evening*

Will : *Hello, sir.*

Steve : *Hey. You mind?*

Will : *Yes, sir. I understand, sir.*

The utterance above is an example of the language style between Steve and Will, and they talked face to face at the seashore in a tense situation that Will felt. It began when Ronnie met Will, a volunteer at the aquarium.

They sat on the beach in the evening to guard the turtle eggs from raccoons. They decided to sleep there, and suddenly, Steve, Ronnie's father, came to visit them and made a line in the middle of them to make a limit between them. The conversation above was about Steve, who made a line at the sand and asked Will if it was fine for him. The language style that Will uses with Steve is Formal, as seen from the sentences "Hello, sir" and "Yes sir. I understand, sir". That sentence indicates a Formal style because it uses a sentence structure that shows less intimacy, the speaker is very careful using the choice of words and pronunciation, and the speaker also uses the word "sir" to call Steve (Juliana Dewi et al., 2020).

### 3) Consultative Style



Consultative style is a language style in which the condition in semiformal communication is the sole language that the average person requires daily, the legally chosen such as specific business, translation, doctor and patient, interview, meeting with the principles (Joos, 1976 in Widyaiswara et al. in 2022).

Example:

Auggie : *My name is August. I, um . . . have a sister named Via and a dog named Daisy. And, um . . . that is it.*

Charlotte : *My name is Charlotte. I have two sisters, and we just got a new puppy named Suki in July. We got her from an animal shelter, and she is so cute!*

Julian : *Oh, okay. So, my name is Julian. And the number one thing I would like to tell everyone about myself is that . . . I just got Battleground Mystic for my Wii, and it is awesome. And the second thing is that we got a Ping-Pong table this summer.*

The utterance above is an example of a consultative style because the utterance between two persons gives short responses and is more used as " Yes, No, Huh, Mm, That is right (Wahyudiantari, 2023).



#### 4) Intimate Style



Intimate is the language style in which the speaker has very close relationships with other speakers, such as family members or close friends. It can be identified as incomplete language, short words, or unclear articulation (Joos, 1976 in Octaviani & Purwarno, 2021).

Example:

Allie's Dad : *Allie.!*

Allie : *Daddy. Oh, Daddy, you are...I did not see you there. I felt scared*

Allie's Dad : *Becoming friendly with that boy down there*

Allie : *Yes*

Allie's Dad : *Bring him to the house on Sunday. I want to meet this young man.*

Allie : *Okay, Good Night Dad*

Allie's Dad : *Good Night*

The conversation between the father and his daughter is in the condition that Allie comes home late at night, and her father talks to her about the man who becomes friendly with his daughter. The dialogue above is categorized as a family characteristic. It can be seen when the father "Bring him to the house on Sunday. I want to meet this young man." in this statement, her father wants to know about the boy who is close to his daughter because her father is afraid that Allie falls in love with the wrong guy.

## 5) Casual Style



Casual style is a language used in informal (casual) contexts that is commonly used by the speaker while utterances with friends, classmates, or workers in non-formal or relaxed situations (Rosdiana, 2014 & Ridianto, 2018 in Apriyani & Asmawati, 2019).

Example:

Luc : *I... I want to say I am sorry for this. I...I do not agree to call you "la plouc" and I...can, uh?*

Luc's utterance is an example of a casual style because the dialogue occurred in an informal situation. It happened in the restaurant. And also Luc uses repetition by saying "I" twice to express his panic (Arini & Tustiawati, 2022)

## C. Register

The register is the type of language appropriate to the specific situation, which means that by registering, the listener can easily understand what the speaker is expressing use in the same frame of context (Halliday, 1978 in T. J. Ningsih et al., 2021)., the register is the feature of sociolinguistics that studies the connection between language variation and social context (Fishman in (Shofyanti et al., 2021).

Example:

Jeffreestar : *I will go in with the new Joey Cosmetics Frostbite Lip Topper. Oh my god, this one is so gorgeous that you can put this over any lipstick. You can wear it by itself or put it over a liquid lip, and you are ready to see what happens. This might be my new favourite combination for the winter.*

The words “Lip topper” in the utterance above are examples of a register made of two separate words, ‘lip’ and ‘topper.’ Because a space separated these two words, it could not be included as the compound word. The grammatical category of ‘lip topper’ was a noun. It was because this register referred to the name of an object (a beauty product in this case). ‘Lip topper’ was also included as an object in its grammatical function since this register served as the receiver of Jeffreestar’s act of applying. He used this register on his lip (Yuanita, Arifin & Ariani, 2022).

## D. Accent

An accent is a kind of sociolinguistics that relates to the way pronunciation peculiar to a particular individual, location, or nation, and an accent is can identify the

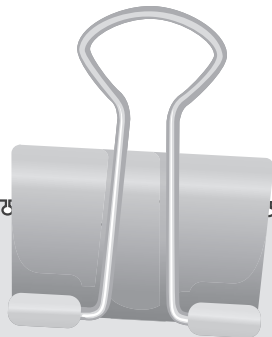
speaker's ethnicity, social class, and first language (Montgomery, 1996 in Maharani, 2019).

Example:

"Sorry about him. He does not understand what it is like lying there day after day, having people press their ugly faces in on you." from Harry, "Excuse me, do you mind?" from Ron, and "Has anyone seen a toad? A boy named Neville lost one." from Hermione.

The utterances above exemplify a British accent in the Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone film (Ula, 2021).





CHAPTER 3

**LANGUAGE  
VARIATION**

Language variation is interdisciplinary of sociolinguistics and comes from the correlation between social factors and language variation. Language variation can be identified when the speaker is in bilingual or multilingual utterance (Rokhman, 2013) in Diani et al., (2021). However, language variation is caused by linguistic and nonlinguistic factors (social factors).

Example:

Mother : Ki, bapak mana?

Child : É bengkona dede, Bok.

Mother : Panggil Ki bapaknya!

Father : Apa, dek?

Mother : Ariya ca'na ngakana bekna, mas. [ariya caʔna  
ŋakana bəʔna]

Father : Beh iyâ lah sabe' ghellu. [bəh iyə lah sabəʔ ghəllu]

Child : Bok, lagghuna bâdâ PR. [boʔ lakghuna bəDə]

Mother : PR apa Ki?

Child : Matematika Bok lempo ngerja'aghina,sara. [boʔ  
ləmpoŋərjaʔaghina sara]

Father : Gampang Ki hitung-hitungan.

Mother : Ayo Ki ambil bukunya. Kerjakan!



The dialogue above explains when Bu Ima told her 11-year-old son to call her father. Bu Ima was the speaker, Rifki was the speech partner, and a third person was present, namely Pak Sutrisno. Father from Pasuruan, who is from Java, and mother from Jember, who is from Madura. Pak Sutrisno works as a furniture builder, and Bu Ima is a housewife. This mixed family is a group of low social status in their environment. The language used by Rifki in communicating with his parents is the enjâ'-iyâ level Madurese, even though his parents use Indonesian when communicating with him. This is due to the language used by the environment around Ajung Village, namely the Madurese language. Rifki is known to communicate more often and be more familiar with his mother. The use of Javanese is often used in this mixed family but is only used by Pak Sutrisno and Bu Ima. The language Rifki used to communicate daily was Madurese (Riswanto, 2021).

## A. Borrowing

Borrowing is language in which the speaker in utterances uses two or more languages, which means that the speaker uses different languages to interact with one another. However, the speakers used borrowing in utterances have reasons such as cultural dominance of the donor language, prestige or the speaker of the

dominant language, filling lexical gaps in a recessive well along in the process of shifts, to understanding the younger speakers and the effects or convenience (Mursid,2012; Sekarrosa, 2014 & Fredric, 2002 in Dewi, 2018).

Example:

Solution : Solusi

Adaptation : Adaptasi

Name : Nama

University : Universitas

(taken source from : (Anggraeni, 2021).

## B. Code Mixing

Code mixing is the speaker mixing of two or more languages. The missing code uses language units from one language to another language style, such as words, clauses, idioms, and greetings. However, the speaker using code mixing such as limited use of codes, use of more popular terms, speaker and personal; speaker, talking partner, place of residence and time of discussion, talk mode, topics, function and purposes, variety and level of speech, presence of the third speaker, keynote speaker, to evoke a sense of humour

and prestige (Nababan, 2014; Kridalaksana, 2008 and Suandi, 2014 in Salsabila et al., 2021).

Example:

*Peribahasa ini mengajarkan buat hati-hati kalo mencoba **multitasking***

The word “multitasking” is an example of code-mixing in which the speaker combines Indonesia and English words “multitasking,” which means the person doing many tasks at the same time, and it is a kind of noun

However, according to Musyken (2000) in (Tarihoran et al., 2022), code mixing is divided into alternation, insertion, and congruent lexicalization.

### 1) Alternation

Alternation is a code-mixing in which the speaker, when two languages, is replaced in grammatical structure and lexical items functions. It means two languages appear in the clause relatively separately (Muysken, 2000 in Syafaat & Setiawan, 2019).

Example:

*Kita bisa ngecek menu yang tersedia di sana beserta harganya, foto-foto tempat dan menunya, **and we can also read some reviews from the past visitors.***

The sentence above is an example of an alternation of code mixing in which Indonesian and English grammar are used equivalently in a sentence. The sentence is understandable and acceptable. The writers switched from an Indonesian independent clause to an English independent clause to emphasize a certain point (Febiyaska & Ardi, 2019).

## 2) Insertion

Insertion is a type of code-mixing, which is mixing language shifting by putting a word in another language into a sentence (Gardner Chloros, 2009 in Febiyaska & Ardi, 2019).

Example:

*Saya bergegas menuju pintu keluar untuk mencari taksi karena **shuttle bus** ke pusat kota sudah tidak lagi beroperasi malam itu.*

The sentence above is an example of insertion because there is one English phrase and one word inserted in the Bahasa Indonesia sentence. In the example, 'shuttle bus' is an English noun phrase inserted into the sentence (Achmad, 2019).

## 3) Congruent Lexicalization

Congruent lexicalization is language mixing in which both languages share the speaker and the grammatical

structure. Then, words from both languages, A and B, are inserted more or less randomly. Congruent lexicalization is characterized by function words, homophonous, linear equivalent, and mixed collocation (Muysken, 2000 in Siahaan et al., 2022).

Example:

Writer : *Keseriusannya ngejalanin karier plus persiapan UAN, bikin Yuki cuma punya sedikit **quality time** sama teman-temannya di kelas 3 SMA Bakti Mulya.*

The utterance above exemplifies congruent lexicalization code-mixing, the phrase “quality time” used within a Bahasa Indonesia sentence. This is found in an article about the cover models’ daily activities. The English phrase “quality time” explains that she has limited time to meet and spend her days with her friends because of her career and studies. However, the limited time has good quality time. This is indicated as congruent lexicalization code mixing because the phrase “quality time” is often used by teenagers, and the meaning of the phrase is already understood by many people in general (Ikhsani, 2018)

## C. Code-switching

Code-switching is the ability of speakers to use more than one language in their daily utterances; the speaker uses two or more languages while interacting (Muyseken, 2000 in Gilang, 2023). In addition, Code-switching is when the speaker in utterance mixes words, phrases, and sentences from two distinct grammatical or, commonly called one language, which are combined in different ways (Bokamba & Romaine, 2000 in Candra & Qodriani, 2019).

However, some of the reasons the speaker uses code-switching are asserting power, pride, and status, declaring solidarity, expressing ethnic identity, expressing self-emotion, expressing more competence, being more informative, and conveying the speaker's attitude to the listener (Holmes, 1992 in Candra & Qodriani, 2019).

Example:

Agus : *Menurutku, semuanya karena mereka tidak tahu persis artinya,*

Mark : *Hi, Agus*

Agus : *Hey how are you mark ? this is made, our friend from mataram.*

Made : *Nice to meet you, Mark.*

Mark : *Nice to meet you, too. What are you two talking about?*

Agus : *nah... ini dia kita bisa...mark, can you help us?*

Furthermore, code-switching divided into three types is: tag-switching, inter-sentential switching, and intra-sentential switching (Heeti & Abdely, 2018 in Hendryani et al., 2021).

### **1) Tag-Switching**

Tag-switching is when the speaker in the utterance is a tag from one language entirely in the other language; tag-switching utterance such as tag entirely or parenthetical or entirely different language is an utterance to express or some feeling (Romaine, 1995 in S. S. W. Ningsih & Luthfiyati, 2020).

Example:

*Sakit gigi? No way!*

In the example above, the speaker inserted English as the interjection 'No way!' to Indonesia. It can be seen in the Indonesian interrogative sentence 'Sakit gigi?' in the first sentence and then continued English 'No Way!' in the form of interjection. The interjection 'No Way!' was switched because the speaker expressed strong emotion of not being sick anymore after using betadine (Girsang, 2015).

## 2) Inter-sentential Switching

Inter-sentential switching is when the speaker changes utterance within sentence boundaries or between clauses. The clause is pronounced in another language (Poplack in (Trisnayanti & Affini, 2021).

Example:

*You know, because that way you are not afraid to talk. I see a lot of, we are half-half. **Atau nggak kalau ada persentasinya kayak enam puluh terus tiga puluh persen.** I strove arrogant and rude, but my introverted side would hinder me more than help me outside.*

The utterance above is an example of inter-sentential switching. Faiz explained his introverted side by switching code from English to the Indonesian language. From the utterances above, English became the dominant language used by the speaker. In the sentence “Atau nggak kalau ada persentasinya kayak enampuluh terus tiga puluh persen”, as the Indonesia language which mixed with English.

## 3) Intra-sentential Switching

Intra-sentential switching is one kind of code-switching in which the speaker in utterance includes words, phrases, or clauses of a foreign language (Poplack in (Adi, 2018). In addition, intra-sentential means that



the speaker switches in both languages and uses the same order for that adjective and noun (Holmes, 2013 in Masruroh & Rini, 2021).

Example:

*If you guys don't know, he is a rapper. Dan yaudah gue ngintilin dia mulu kemana-mana karena I don't know what else, akhirnya kenalan.*

The speaker uttered a sentence in Indonesian within a sentence: “*Dan yaudah gue ngintilin dia mulu kemana-mana karena...*”. She clearly said a sentence in Indonesian to emphasize the word ‘ngintilin’ so it would be more common to Indonesian viewers. We can conclude that the example belongs to intra-sentential switching because it occurred in a sentence boundary, where each sentence is in one language or another (Trisnayanti & Affini, 2021).

## D. Creole

Creole is a language variety that has become the mother tongue of the speech community. Creole has expanded the structure and vocabulary of the speaker in their utterance (Todd, 1990 & Holmes, 1992) (Pratika, 2016). The characteristics of creole are mentioned by Sebba, 1997 in Suraiya, 2020) below:

- 1) Unlike pidgins, which have no native speakers, creoles have native speakers. A child born into a pidgin-speaking community will acquire this pidgin as a first language. Thus, the pidgin will be turned into a creole by the process of nativization;
- 2) Creoles always develop out of a pidgin;
- 3) The process whereby a creole develops, and a pidgin acquires native speakers is called creolization.
- 4) Creolization may occur at any of the developmental stages of a pidgin. Depending on the developmental stage at which creolization starts, there is gradual or abrupt creolization.
- 5) Gradual creolization occurs in the extended/expanded pidgin stage. In other words, creolization starts when the pidgin is highly developed. It is already characterized by established linguistic norms of usage.
- 6) Abrupt creolization describes the process before a stable pidgin could emerge. Here, the creolization process occurs at the pidgin's early developmental stage. At this point, it is still characterized by a lack of stable linguistic usage norms.

## English to Creole Translations

a	yon	accounting	kontabilite
a few	de twa	accusation	akizasyon
a little	yon ti, ti kras	accuse	akize, blanmen
a lot	anpli, yon pakèt	ace	las
a pinch	yon ti kras	ache	doulé, fè mal (v)
a small quantity	yon ti gout	acolyte	anfannkè
a.m.	di maten	across	an travè
abandon	pati kite	act	zak, aksyon, jwe (actor), aji (v)
abdomen	vant	act as though	fè tankou
able	kapab	act cowardly	fè lach
abnormal	pa nòmal	action	aksyon
aboard	abò	active	aktif
abolish	desitire, sispann	activity	aktivite
abort	jete pitit, sispann	actor	akté
abortion	avòtman, dilatasyon	actual	reèl
about	apèprè (quantity), zalantou (place)	adapt	adapte
about ready	prèt pou	add	ajoute
above	pi wo pase (higher), an wo, anilé (up)	add up	gen sans
abroad	lòtbò	addition	adisyon
abscess	abse	address	adrès, adrese (v), mete adrès (v)
absent	absan, pa la	adhesive tape	adezif
absolutely	absoliman, konplètman	adjust to	adapte
absorbed	pèdi	admire	admire
abundance	bondans	admission fee	antre
abuse	maltrete (v)	admit	admèt (to), aksepté, kite antre (in)
accelerator	akseleratè	adopt	adopte
accept	aksepté, pran, dakò (agree)	adult	granmoun
accident	aksidan	adultery	adiltè
accompany	akonpaye	advance	avans, avanse, vanse (v)
accomplish	akonpli, fè	advantage	avantaj
according to	dapre, selon	adventure	avanti
accordion	akòdeyon	advertise	fè reklam
account for	rann kont	advertisement	reklam
accountable	responsab	advise	konséy
accountant	kontab	advise	bay konséy (v) konseye (v), konseye
		adviser	

The picture above is an example of Creole words taken source from <https://id.pinterest.com/pin/156077943311721793/>

## E. Pidgin

Pidgin is a language that does not have native speakers, meaning that the speaker's utterances are for quick communication (Holmes, 1992 in Pratika, 2016). In addition, pidgin is language contact in which the speaker utterance different languages into contact and need to communicate (Pidgin and Creole language, 1988 in (Dewi, 2023). Bellow some of the characteristics of Pidgins (Hudson, 1985 & Sebba, 1997 in Suraiya, 2020):

- 1) The most distinctive feature of pidgins is the lack of morphology.
- 2) A pidgin based on variety X is not just an example of bad X as one might describe the unsuccessful attempt of an individual foreigner to learn X. This is because both sides of the communication gap develop pidgin as the main reason for creating this language to help bridge the gap.
- 3) A pidgin is more than just the result of heavy borrowing from one variety into another since there is no pre-existing variety into which items may be borrowed. It is reasonable to say this since pidgins are formed from some of their language and some from other languages.

- 4) A Pidgin is a language variety that arises from contact between two or more languages with complementary distribution.
- 5) In the context of European colonialist expansion, these languages were the languages of the European colonizers and the non-European indigenous language(s) of those being 'colonized' around the Atlantic and in the Pacific and Indian Oceans, e.g., West African languages.
- 6) Languages involved in forming pidgins and creoles are also called superstrate and substrate. The dominant language in contact situations constitutes the superstrate. The indigenous non-European languages are the substrate, the less dominant language in a contact situation. The speakers of the substrate languages were regarded as socially inferior to the European colonizers.
- 7) The process in which a pidgin develops is called pidginization.
- 8) A pidgin does not have native speakers. It is used as a consequence of the fact that it is used only for communication between members of different communities.
- 9) Pidgins usually draw most of their vocabulary from one language, the lexifier. The lexifier is usually the language of the European colonizer, e.g., English, Spanish, French or Dutch (= the superstrate).

- 10) Pidgins are not mutually intelligible with these languages even though their input languages lexically and grammatically influence them.
- 11) The grammar is simpler and reduced than the grammar of their input languages.

Example:

*Tenkyu yu salim email long mi. Mi hamamas tru. Sori mi no bekim ariap. Olsem wanem, yu orait tasol. Yu belong we? Mi belong Manus Province, Papua New Guinea. Mi wok long University bilong Papua New Guinea. Prof. Kevin Wilkins i gutpela friend na brother bilong be tru. Me laik go long market. Mi laik silip nau.*

The utterance above is an example of the speaker's speech in pidgin, which means the speaker is *Thank you for the email. I was happy to receive it. I am sorry for not replying earlier. How are you? Hope you are fine. Where do you belong? I belong to Manus Province, Papua New Guinea. I work for the University of Papua New Guinea. Prof. Kevin Wilkins is a very good friend of mine. I want to go to the market. I want to sleep now* (Rudra et al., 2005)

## F. Lingua Franca

Lingua franca is when the speaker does not share the common native language of communication with socio-cultural (Richards et al.,1985 in Lewandowska, 2019). However, English as a language franca has gained much attention over the years due to the spread of English among non-native speakers of English on the other hand, English is an interconnected, globalized world called a “global village”(Crystal, 2003 Nagy, 2016).

Example:

Isabel : Portuguese

Nana : Japanese

Anna : Italian

Isabel : I mean, we do not have problems ... we all get on, yeah

Nana : Yeah, I think we are all on the same ... on in ... ah: what is it ... on the same boat, yeah

Isabel : Yeah?

Nana : Yeah? ... how do you say? Are you in the same boat?

Isabel : I do not know, yeah ... on the same boat, I think ... on the bus on the train

Anna : Anyway, we understand you

Isabel : Yeah... we are all foreigners

Nana : All foreigners (laughing)

The conversation above is an example of a lingua franca in which the speaker becomes in different countries where there is a native speaker from their countries. Besides more explanation of their utterances, Nana introduces the expression in reaction to Isabel's comment about the working relations inside the community, i.e., that the members get on well, by specifying that they all face the same challenges and needs when working together, in other words, they are in the same boat. However, Nana is unsure about the preposition that collocates with the expression, as indicated by the pauses showing hesitation and the sequential use of "on" and "in" in the same turn (line 3). This is followed by a request for help ("what is it?") and for confirmation of the idiom ("on the same boat?") in line 4. After Nana requests repetition, Isabel does not seem to accept authority on the idiomatic phrasing ("I do not know" in line 7). Still, she accepts it ("yeah" in line 7) and then starts playing with it, alternating the means of transport that could substitute "the boat" concept, i.e., "the bus" and "the train" (line 8). Isabel cleverly mirrors Nana's prepositional alternation by creating a further lexical alternation and, thus, continues playing with the idiomatic expression. Anna adds that



Isabel and herself (“we”) understand what Nana wants to say, and Isabel continues to justify the reason why that understanding is taking place – “we are all foreigners” (line 10). It is also significant that Nana follows Isabel’s contribution by repeating her justification (line 11), thus showing agreement and positively orientating to Isabel’s playfulness. The participants’ “foreignness” is present throughout the short exchange. From the beginning, Nana foregrounds her non-naiveness by questioning the preposition and explicitly requesting help to solve the issue. In the retrospective interview, Nana said she was unsure what preposition to use on that occasion and thought Isabel would know, as “Isabel speaks English better than me.” When asked about Isabel’s reaction, Nana comments positively on Isabel’s play with words both during and after the interaction. Nana is not disappointed with Isabel’s assertion of not knowing and her playing with the expression (Cogo, 2010).

## **G. Standard and non-standard varieties**

Standard varieties or language standards are languages commonly used by governments, mass media, printed books, dictionaries, and international public communication that use grammatical rules such as noun phrases

or sentence structure. On the other hand, non-standard English is commonly founded on the informal context, and casual conversation in non-standard English is commonly called “incorrect” or “uneducated” use of English (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005; Stephen, 2015 & Nordquist, 2018 in Khasanah, 2020).

**Non-Standard English:** They ain't got nothing.

**Standard English:** They haven't got anything.

**Non-Standard English:** I love the player what scored.

**Standard English:** I love the player who scored.

**Non-Standard English:** We was there yesterday.

**Standard English:** We were there yesterday.

**Non-Standard English:** Pass me them books!

**Standard English:** Pass me those books!

**Non-Standard English:** I played good.

**Standard English:** I played well.

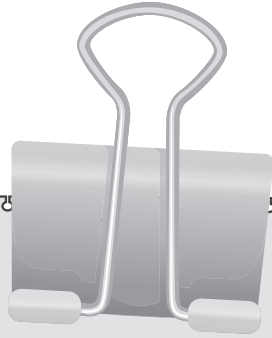
Source: [theschoolrun.com](https://theschoolrun.com)

## H. Native and non-native varieties

Native varieties, according to Davies 2004 (Walkinshaw & Oanh, 2014), means the speaker has language or language acquisition from childhood, the production of idiomatic forms of language, the speaker understands the regional and social variations within a language, and the native speaker has production and comprehension of language by fluently and spontaneous speech. Moreover, the native has the correct or acceptable language, and the “standard” form of English is the exception rather than the norm (Yet Kramsch, 1997 in Walkinshaw & Oanh, 2014).

On the other hand, non-native varieties generally deal with a diversity of new varieties. For Instance, English language which is English in the global spread of English occurred in Asia countries where English is not the first language of any language, so the structure also variation in phonology, lexis, syntax, and discourse (Wilang & Teo, 2012; Kachru, 1987 in Singhasak & Me-thitham, 2016). The table of examples of native and non-native varieties is taken source from an article titled *A Genre Analysis of Research Article Abstracts written by Native and non-Native Speakers of English* written by Al-Khasawneh, 2017:

<b>Native</b>	<b>Non-native</b>
<p>This Study builds on previous work exploring reading and listening lexical thresholds to investigate productive vocabulary targets that mark successful entry-level undergraduate writing.</p>	<p>Fundamental principles of public speaking and appropriate organizational structure of ideas for occupational and social communication are vital aspects for undergraduates as a pathway to overcome employers' grievances about graduates' lack of communication skills.</p>



CHAPTER 4

**LANGUAGE PLANNING  
AND LANGUAGE DEATH**

Language planning is the branch of sociolinguistics in which language planning is the background of the general theory of language. In addition, language planning is part of ideas, laws, policy discussion, changes in regulation and habits (Haarmann, 1990; Neustupny, 1978 & Nekvapil, 2011 in Kharis, M; Samsul, S.I; Mintowati; Ahmadi, 2020). Moreover, language planning is visibly undertaken by the government and intended to promote systematic linguistic change in some communities of speakers (Kaplan, 1997). For instance, in language planning, if a government decides to raise a certain language's status level or change its prestige level, it can establish a law that requires teachers to teach only in this language or that textbooks be written using only this language's script. This, in turn, would support the elevation of the language's status or could increase its prestige. In this way, acquisition planning is often used to promote language revitalization, which can change a language's status, reverse a language shift, or promote linguistic purism. When a government revises a corpus, new dictionaries and educational materials must be revised in schools to maintain effective language acquisition (Ramlan, 2018).

Language death is a kind of sociolinguistic study in which a language loses a native speaker, which causes trauma in the cultural community. Language death has two significant losses: the loss of cultural heritage and a unique system of

thought expression (Crystal, 2002; Halliday & Hasan, 1985 in Low et al., 2022). However, language death has some factors, such as language being endangered or extinct, the threats caused by natural disasters, famine, diseases, and wars, and second factors, such as the changes in people's culture. For instance, the causes of language death in 1918, the speakers of the Paulohi language – a language that once was spoken in Central Maluku, Indonesia - experienced an earthquake and tsunami that killed many of its speakers more, cases language death due to natural disasters due to a 7.1 Richter earthquake off the coast of E. Saundaun Province, Papua New Guinea on July 1998. The earthquake destroyed four villages, Sissano, Warupu, Arop, and Malol, killed over 2.200 people, and displaced over 10.000 people. 30% of the Arop and Warupu villagers were killed, while the survivors moved to another place. The problem is that each village has distinct linguistic characteristics (Syifa Masnoneh, 2019).

According to (Swiggers, 2007), the causes of language death and endangerment are well known, such as:

- 1) Factors affecting the biological and physical integrity and safety of the speech community: natural catastrophes, epidemics, infections and diseases; famine and drought; genocide; war; repression; slavery; destruction of the habitat ( e.g., desert:fication, deforestation, total irrigation).

- 2) Factors affecting the social and demographical structure of the speech community: endo/exogamy; ethnic mixture; birth regulation practices; resettlements; metropolitan societies; social disintegration; kin structure and patriarchal, matriarchal organization; possibilities of social promotion; the phenomenon of social outcasts.
- 3) Factors affecting the economic situation: globalization, open market economy, industrialization, work patterns, and perspectives of economic advancement.
- 4) Factors affecting the culture and the collective psychology of a community: mobility; tourism; mass media; religious practices; cultural assimilation (acculturation); feeling of ethnic identity (or loss of it); strength or weakness of the solidarity and intimacy feelings with one's language; degree of cultural prestige; centralization and language policies.
- 5) Factors relating to the language system, or its perception by the speakers: It is sometimes claimed that a language losing parts of its structure and of its communicative potential can accelerate the process of its proper extinction<sup>18</sup>; the language system may be seen - by other speakers but also by its speakers - as "inadequate," "poor," "backward" or "uselessly complicated" so that its common use ( or its use in the public sphere) is being discouraged or stigmatized.



## A. National Language

A national language is a language commonly used by people in the territory. It stands for the national identity of a nation or a country. For instance, Algeria has Arabic as its national language; Bulgaria has Bulgarian as its national language. Bangali is the national language of Bangladesh. Kenya has Swahili as its national language (Wikipedia, 2015 in Foyewa, 2018). In addition, the national language is used in political, cultural, and social and as a symbol of national unity (Holmes, 2001 in Ridwan, 2018). In Indonesia, Bahasa Indonesia is the national language; the source is from an article titled "One Land, One Nation, One Language: An Analysis of Indonesia's National Language Policy," written by (Paauw, 2009).

Indonesia is the fourth most populous nation in the world, with an estimated population of nearly 250 million. It has over 13,000 islands, stretching along the equator between Southeast Asia and Australia. There are a significant number of distinct ethnic groups, speaking an estimated 600 languages. The size and diversity of Indonesia's population have presented challenges for uniting the nation and developing a national language.

Language planning has two basic ingredients: language choice and language development (Garvin, 1974, p. 75).

In post-colonial nations, language choice involves choosing a world language as an official language or selecting one of the nation's languages as an official and national language, or in Kloss's (1968) terms, choosing between an exoglossic language or an endoglossic language. The need for such a choice in Indonesia became apparent in the first decades of the twentieth century, as a sense of nationalism grew, and Indonesians began looking to the future and an end to more than three centuries of Dutch colonial rule. As the Netherlands East Indies, the islands of Indonesia had been arbitrarily united by a colonial power, and there was no history of unity as a nation to help settle the national language question. During this period, three languages emerged as possible official languages for the new nation which would be created from the Netherlands East Indies: the colonial language, Dutch; the language of the largest ethnic group, Javanese; and the historic lingua franca of the archipelago, Malay. Each of these languages had certain claims to a special status. Dutch, as the colonial language, had certain advantages. The educated elite of Indonesia spoke it, and, as such, it was the language that the nation's future leaders felt most comfortable speaking and writing. It was a developed and standardized modern language with extensive literature and texts in all fields of Study. It was also the language of the existing legal system and government administration in the Netherlands

East Indies. A Dutch educational expert, C.J. Nieuwenhuis, said in 1925, "...we must institute a language which can represent international culture fully as the general medium for social intercourse. In Indonesia, this language will have to be Dutch." (Alisjahbana, 1976, p. 38) However, as an international language, Dutch did not have the same stature as other colonial languages such as English and French. It did not possess the same advantages as these languages as a vehicle of international communication. Therefore, in the words of Dardjowidjojo (1998), "Indonesia found it easier to dispel Dutch than India or Malaysia to dispel English."

The First Congress of Indonesian Youth was held in 1926, and the future leaders of Indonesia discussed the national language issue. Although the participants made a case for Malay as the language of an independent Indonesia, they discussed the issue in Dutch. Two years later, at the second Congress, not only was Malay the language of the Congress, but the new name of the language, Indonesian (Bahasa Indonesia), was introduced, and the question of which language would be the national language was settled with no debate. The second Congress was where the Youth Pledge (Sumpah Pemuda) was proclaimed, which formed the basis for Indonesian nationalism and gave impetus to the fledgling independence movement. The text of the pledge was as follows:

<p>We, the sons and daughters of Indonesia, declare that we belong to one nation.</p>	<p>Kami putra dan putri Indonesia mengaku bertumpah darah yang satu, Indonesia; tanah tumpah darah Indonesia.</p>
<p>We, the sons and daughters of Indonesia, declare that we belong to one people, the sons and daughters of Indonesia.</p>	<p>Kami putra dan putri Indonesia mengaku berbangsa yang satu, the Indonesian people; bangsa Indonesia,</p>
<p>Vow to uphold the nation's language of unity, Indonesian.</p>	<p>Kami putra dan putri Indonesia menjunjung tinggi bahasa persatuan, Bahasa Indonesia</p>

The Youth Pledge gave new prestige to the Malay language, now called Indonesian, although the young nationalist activists continued to use Dutch in their daily communication.

## B. Official Language

Official language means that a language declared by the government of a country is legal, so the official language is used widely, not just for language in communication but also in correspondence. Moreover, the official language as nationalist motivations, the unifying and the separatist function is related to the glorious past and authenticity (Fasold, 1987 in Odinye & Oddinye, 2012). Below is an example of the official language of the Republic of South Africa, which the source is taken from justice.gov.za.

Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 Section 6(1) to (4): "(1) The official languages of the Republic are Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, Siswati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, and isiZulu.

Section 9(3) to (5): "(3) The state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language, and birth.

Official Language Act, 2012 (no.12 of 2012):

Section 4(1) to (4): “(1) Every national department, national public entity, and national public enterprise must adopt a language policy regarding its use of official languages for government purposes within 18 months of the commencement of this act or such further period as the Minister may prescribe, provided that such prescribed period may not exceed six months.

The department has considered the language demographics report published in Census 2011 by the Statistician-General in terms of the Statistics Act, 1999 (Act No. 6 of 1999), and taking into account the guiding principles and values in paragraph 5 above, as contemplated in section 4 of the Act, determines the use of official languages as indicated below, subject to the availability of resources.

### **Use of official languages in provinces/regions**

<b>No.</b>	<b>Region</b>	<b>Selected Languages</b>
1	Eastern Cape	English, isiXhosa, Afrikaans and Sesotho
2	Free State	English, Sesotho Afrikaans and isiXhosa

3	Gauteng	English, isiZulu, Afrikaans and Sesotho
4	KwaZulu-Natal	English, isiZulu, isiXhosa and Afrikaans
5	Mpumalanga	English, Siswati, Xitsonga and isiNdebele
6	Northern Cape	English, Afrikaans, Setswana and isiXhosa
7	Limpopo	English, Sepedi, Xitsonga and Tshivenda
8	North West	English, Setswana, Afrikaans and Sesotho
9	Western Cape	English, Afrikaans, isiXhosa and Sesotho

## C. Diglossia

Diglossia means a language variety of the same language in one community. For Instance, H includes an elaborate system of inflections, such as number, gender, person, case, and definiteness. This results in more complex grammatical phrases in H compared to L. L, which is known to have a simplified morphological system that lacks inflections (Albirini, 2016 in Alrwaita et al., 2022).

The characteristics of diglossia, according to (Zhang, 2022), are:

- 1) Function: H and L are divided and complementary, where H is for formal occasions and high literature and L is for informal occasions and popular literature;
- 2) Prestige: superior;
- 3) literary heritage: H's literary works are abundant and precious and have higher purport than L's;
- 4) language acquisition: L is acquired in the mother tongue, and H is acquired through formal education;
- 5) standardization: the Study of the grammar of H has a deep tradition and established norms, whereas the Study of L has not, or is new;
- 6) stability: H and L architectures are very stable, usually lasting at least several centuries or more than a



thousand years. The grammar of h may be more complicated than that of L.

- 7) H and L have words that are specific to their respective fields;
- 8) they also have pairs of words that are equivalent in meaning but differ in expression;
- 9) Phonology: The phonemes of l are the basic system, and the phonemes of h are often replaced by the phonemes of L, a relatively stable linguistic condition in which, in addition to the basic dialects of the language, there is a very different, highly regulated variant.

Example:

Kita baik sama orang, gitu aja. Terus kita juga nggak bohongin orang.

- (a) We are good to people; thus, we also do not lie to people
- (b) We are kind to people, you know. What is more, we do not lie to people.

## D. Multilingualism

Multilingualism means that the speaker can speak more than one language and use multiple languages in a society or a state (Malechova,2016). Multilingualism is now shown in people, which causes factors such as globalization, transnational mobility of the population, and new technologies in contexts such as politics, society, and education. Moreover, the distinction of multilingualism (Aronin & Singleton, 2008 in Cenoz,2013):

- 1) Geographical: Different from the past, multilingualism applies to more than just geographically close languages, specific border areas, or trade routes. It is a global phenomenon spread over different parts of the world.
- 2) Social: Multilingualism is no longer associated with specific social strata, professions, or rituals. It is increasingly spread across social classes, professions, and socio-cultural activities.
- 3) Medium: In the past, multilingual communication was often limited to writing, and mail could have been faster. In the 21st century, multilingual communication is multimodal and instantaneous because of the Internet.

Example:

Chris : I am nervous right now

Sunny : We are nervous

Jini : I am nervous too

Sunny : 안녕하세요 (annyeonghaseyo) katanya (she said how are you?)

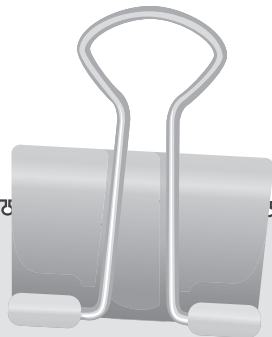
Jini : こんにちは (konnichiwa), 안녕하세요(annyeonghaseyo), hi, hello, oh my God

Jarome : How are you?

Jini : Very good, 베스트 베스트 다 오늘 (best best da oneul), 감사합니다 Sunny 님 (kamsahamnida) Sunny, thank you (very good, it is the best day for me, thank you Sunny)

The conversation above is an example of multilingualism because the speakers above used three different languages: Japanese, Korean, and English (Zahiroh, 2022).





CHAPTER 5

**LANGUAGE CHANGES**

Language changes are one of the phenomena in which language features such as phonetics, lexis, syntax, and semantics have changed. Moreover, language changes as a result of the use of language. For instance, in phonologists, the frequent use of particular words its high frequency for usage is automatic and leads to creative construction for such as *of, the, A, an, in, to, is, was, I, you, e, be, it, too, too, with, by, on, at, that*, which are the most frequently used words in English, are often dropped by the speakers. The most frequent words also tend to be ambiguous in homophony and polysemy, such as *to, too, two, their, they are, there, I, eye, and aye* (Aitchison, 2011 & Ellis, 2008 in Murtiana, 2012).

The history of language changes in Indonesia is taken source from an article titled *Affixation Structure Changes of Bahasa Indonesia on Newspaper Articles of the 1800s, 1900s and 2000s Periods* written by Nuraziah (2017):

### 1) The 1800s period

In the 1800s, the period used patterns and consistency of prefixes and suffixes. First, prefixed in-, for instance, in *hoekoem, alahken, fikirken, moelai* and many others. Second, the ka-pattern is a combination of ka-an and ken-ken. It is commonly used in the Soeharto Era, which is the second President of the Republic. For Instance, *kapandein, ka-oenjoekan*, Third, suffix-l and suffix- in, for instance, *mempoenja-l, moenta-in*

## 2) The 1900s period

In this period, change begins to show by showing some peculiarities, as in the writing pattern of the suffix -an written after vowel/a/hence writing using two dots above the second a, as in 'tjeritaän,' 'pemboekaän.' In addition, there is also data showing the writing by using quotes one before the suffix -an, as in the word 'persedia'an.'

## 3) The 2000s period

In the 2000s period, there was consistency in the (-di) prefix. For example, di pakai, di rumah, the prefix x, p, s, k, and t is still inconsistent, such as memunyai, memengaruhi.

# A. Causes of Language Changes

According to (Beard, 2004 and Mantiri, 2015), the causes of language changes are:

- 1) Political factor- which is caused by foreign invasion, migration, and colonization.
- 2) Social factor- foreign influences from Latin, French, American, Australian, Indian, etc. The unique way that individuals speak also fuels language change. Vocabulary and phrases people use depend upon the place, age, gender, education level, and social status.

- 3) Cultural factor. This means exposing one language group to another via television, radio, films, music, magazines, and fashion.
- 4) Technological factor- rapid advances in information technology, industries, products and economy require new words that drive language change.
- 5) Moral factor- which is about recent developments in anti-racism and environmentalism

In addition, the causes of language changes, according to Verschueren and Blommaert, 2002 in Sidgi, 2022), are divided into internal and external factors. The internal factors are related to the development of morphological regularity of language. Below example of internal factor:

The analogical extension of language and its analogical leveling. Also, it connects to the reshuffling of phrase elements in the word field. For example, a new word creates room within the lexicon for related word forms in the lexical gaps of Brexit and Brexit. On the other hand, the example of external, in the early years of human development, a toddler is introduced to phonetics and phonology. However, as they are oriented in the community, linguistic determinism triggers and embraces language change as social norms, practices, and expectations evolve. Through the influence of external factors, omission, borrowing, and hyper-correction are included in the process of language change.



## B. Types of Language Changes

### 1) Phonetic and Phonological Changes

Phonological changes, more called phonemically spilled, mean that the speaker produces older regeneration and is re-analyzed as separate phonemes by the listener or speakers of the young generation. Below is an example of the difference between phonemes in Old and Modern English (Hamann, 2014):

*The Old English phoneme /f/ had a voiced allophone [v] between voiced segments within the same word. See [li:f] 'life' and [li:vlic] 'lively.' The (partial) loss of the conditioning environment led to a new phoneme contrast in (Sutikno, 2018) Modern English, cf. /laɪf/ – /laɪv/ or /pɪu:f/ – /pɪu:v/.*

However, English phonetics has changes caused by phenomena rather sporadically (Westendorf, 1962 in Bojowald, 2021). For instance, the process when some vowel change under the influence of **g, c, sc** in the beginning of the word (studfile.net):

*e > ie (gefan > giefan (give)).*

### 2) Lexical Changes

Lexical changes are changes in the lexical forms; changes of lexical a creating a new lexical item to

name an object, concept, and place, which results from the internal and external borrowings of words (Varshney, 1995 in Sutikno, 2018).

Example:

*Minum teh* has been changed to “*ngeteh*.”

The words above are an example of linguistic change; the context of the words above means that the meaning can be interpreted as having time in a tea or coffee shop. This change shows” the power of the vocabularies based on its lexical, and it has been introduced as lexical functional grammar (Maria et al., 2023).

### 3) Spelling Changes

Various people often rail against the system of English spelling. Moreover, English spelling permits insightful treatment of nontrivial matters, such as vowel alternations due to vowel shift and reduction. It may be argued that such phonological insights as the English spelling system demonstrates are not due to some design on the part of its users but rather merely to the accidents of history: since the spelling system changes more slowly than the language, and since synchronic and diachronic phonology are so similar, it follows that the spelling system at a given point in time will represent a more abstract form of an utterance than

the phonological surface (Chomsky & Halle, 1968, 1970; Venezky, 1967; Weir & Venezky, 1968 in Aronoff, 1978).

Example:

*Daz ma husband*

The word "Daz" means "that is" or "that is," and the word "ma" means "my," so the meaning of the sentence above is "That is my husband" (Galebole, 2020).

#### **4) Semantic Changes**

Over time, the changes reflected in the way the words are being used are caused by some factors, such as the people used. For example, in many new words contexts, the words change radically differently from the original usage (ruf.rice.edu in Wijaya & Yeniterzi, 2011). In addition, the causes of semantic change are psycholinguistics explanation, which is related to the cognitive processes occurring in the brain of the speaker's limited memory. The second factor, sociolinguistics, is caused by the social circumstance (social context and formality of the situation (Hughes, 1988 & Labove, 2010) (Jatowt & Duh, 2014). For instance, a mouse was used originally to refer to small, long-tailed animals, but it is now also used to refer to a device used to control cursor movement.

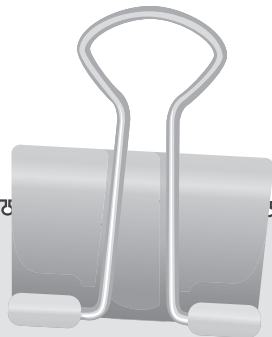
## 5) Syntax Changes

Language change is also a change in the syntax commonly called English Grammar. The syntax changes are caused by hundreds of years of running the course to completion. The second cause is the speaker's conscious awareness; the last cause is stigmatized, which means the small number of alleged syntactic innovations (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002 in Mair & Leech, 2020).

Example:

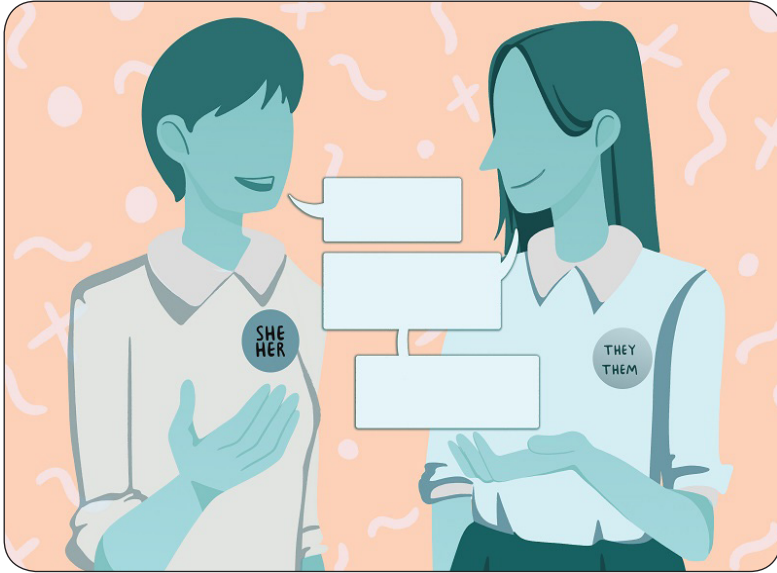
- ✓ I went: I did not go
- ✓ I want food: I do not want any food, or I want no food

The example above is an example of syntax changes. In modern English, the sentence form is SVO (Subject, Verb, Object).



CHAPTER 6

**LANGUAGE  
AND GENDER**



**Source: Beyond Revision**

In sociolinguistics, the speakers in the utterance differ in a social context; every speaker, man and woman, speaks differently (Holmes, 2006 & Coates, 1998 in Al-Harabsheh, 2014). Moreover, men and women have different language features, such as pronunciation, morphology, and syntactic construction, including negation, semantics, and style. Below the characteristics of linguistic features of women's language (Holmes, 2008 & Lakoff, 1975 in Al-Harabsheh, 2014):

- 1) Lexical hedges or fillers (you know, sort of, well, you see)
- 2) Tag questions (she is very nice, right?)

- 3) Rising intonation on declarative (it is really good)
- 4) 'Empty' adjectives (divine, charming, cute)
- 5) Precise colour terms (magenta, aquamarine)
- 6) Intensifiers such as and so (I like him so much)
- 7) Hypercorrect grammar (consistent use of standard verb forms)
- 8) Super-polite forms (indirect requests, euphemism)
- 9) Avoidance of strong swear words (fudge, my goodness)
- 10) Emphatic stress (it was a "BRILLIANT" performance)

Example:

Susan : I would not eat that if I were you.

Mike : Why?

Susan : I made it. Trust me.

Mike : (He is eating the food)

Susan : Hey. Do you have a death wish?

Mike : No, I just refused to believe that anybody can screw up macaroni and cheese. (Mike is eating the food)

Mike : Oh, my god. How did you...? It tastes like it is burnt and undercooked.

Susan : Yeah. I get that a lot. Here you go.

Mike : Thanks. I'm Mike Delfino. I just started renting the Sim's house next door.

Susan : Susan Mayer. I live across the street.

Mike : Mrs Huber told me about you, said you illustrate children's books.

Susan : Yeah. I'm very big with the under-five set. What do you do?

Mike : Plumber. So, if you ever have a clog ..... or something

The conversation between Mike and Susan is about to come at Mary Alice's funeral, which their neighbours. The discussion above shows that there are 12 sentences comprising 109 words. Among all these 12 sentences, the man and the woman take up 6, respectively. However, the man used 61 comments, whose word ratio reached 56%, far more than the woman's, only 44%. The man spoke more than the woman (Li, 2014)

## A. Linguistic Feature

The essential component of language and gender is grammatical gender which grammatical gender means the classification of gender as feminine, masculine, or neuter. The grammatical gender can be founded on



nouns such as articles, adjectives, verbs, numerals, or prepositions found in nouns (Hellinger & Bubmann, 2002 in Rahmi, 2015).

On the other hand, European countries such as Germany, Italian, Spanish, and France have classified nouns by gender (Samuel et al., 2019). For instance, in Italian, “bed” is classified as masculine gender but in Spanish as the feminist gender.

However, on the other hand, linguistics features are semantics. Semantics in gender is related to the differentiation of sex and, therefore, the formal grouping into genders in nouns with subdivision of the letter into male or female (Curzan, 2003 in Scmidtova, 2013). Bellow the example of language and gender in semantics which taken source from (Nezhelskaya et al., 2018):

## 1) Man

- ☑ **a bad man:** 1) any outlaw or criminal, desperado; 2) the villain in a motion picture, play, television show, or other theatrical performance;
- ☑ **best man:** the man who helps the bridegroom at a wedding ceremony;
- ☑ **a strong-arm man:** a bully; a man who is employed to use physical power to force someone to do something;

## 2) Woman

- ☑ **my good woman:** a condescending form of address to a woman;
- ☑ **the other woman:** used to refer to a woman with whom a man is having a sexual relationship, even though he already has a wife or partner;
- ☑ **well-woman:** providing medical care and advice for women to make sure that they stay healthy

## B. Speech Patterns

In speech patterns, the first element is pitch, pitch is the vibration of a vocal organ, which vibrates between 500 per second and 300 times per second. The voice vibration frequency of women is 150-300 HZ, and of men is 60-200 HZ (Sheng, 2016). Pitch in males and females influences biological factors such as height/weight of body, hormones, and vocal tract characteristics. Moreover, testosterone is caused by the lowering of the male voice (60%), and the others are forced is language and culture (Schmid & Bradley, 2019).

The second speech pattern is speech style which the speaker's speech uses types of language, degree of formality, and male and female orientation (Joos, 1967;

Baxter, 2010 in Riasari et al., 2021). In addition, language style means that the speakers select linguistic forms and types of language (formal or informal) in conversation (Chaika, 1982 in Utama & Abdullah, 2022). For instance, they use office language at work, and in gaming, they use game language. This indicates that the speaker's speech style is a variation or separate form of language used for the same ending in a particular scenario or context.

## C. Social Norms and Stereotypes

Social norms are related to personal attitudes, by personal attitudes motivate internal judgments about something and social norms are beliefs about what a person approves in society. Moreover, social norms are social rules shared by people in a given society or social group in which every person is considered and accepted in social life or a member of the groups (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Cislacghi & Heisi, 2018 in Cislacghi & Heise, 2020)

Example:

*A young man may feel reluctant to use foul language in front of his family but feel quite comfortable using coarse language when alone with his friends; he adapts his*

*behaviour to the expectations of specific reference groups. Third, while some scholars have suggested that norms regulate only interdependent actions*

(Goldstein et al. 2012, Lapinski and Rimal 2005, Schmidt & Rakoczy in(Cislaghi & Heise, 2020).

Gender stereotypes are the distinguishing certain traits or characters for each gender; the stereotypes of gender at now an issue that is always found around us (Fakih, 2010 in Azis & Sunra, 2022). However, men and female have roles commonly called “gender roles”, which means that men and women have proper roles, the roles man and woman theories such as biological theory, structural function theory, social learning theory, cognitive development theory, gender schema, and symbolic interaction (Fagot in (Azis & Sunra, 2022).

## **D. Power Dynamics**

In society, the man held power, which means that the man had the top of the hierarchically organized social alignment (Maltz & Broker, 1982 in Thatha,2017). On the other hand, today, power in society is not men’s but also women according to Morgan et al., 2016 in Garrison-Desany et al., 2021, power in society has a barrier to healthcare access and utilization, roles and

behaviours, norms and beliefs, and men and women have decision power. The power dynamics in social life, such as the interaction in public, private, and intimate spaces, play out in employment, livelihoods, market activities, and public social and individual interaction in the community (VeneKlasen & Miller, 2007 in undp.org).

Example:

*"Yu Ning, why didn't we take the bus instead of this truck.... If it were the case, I could talk to my husband. He has a friend who got a bus. So, we do not have to struggle like this."*

In the utterance above, Bu Tejo suggests that Yu Ning go to the hospital on the back of the truck. It shows that Bu Tejo has power because Bu Tejo gives a solution to bring her husband to the hospital by truck (Angjaya, 2021).

## **E. Media and Representation**

Media is things which people get information, data or influence from communication channels such as news, entertainment, education or promotion of products shared by some media forms such as newspapers, magazines, televisions, radio, cinema, billboards, mail,

telephone, fax and today by internet (Encyclopedia Britannica, 1980 in egyankosh.ac.in). Below men and women in media took sources from an article titled “Feminist and Gender Media Studies: A Critical Overview” written by (Mendes & Carter, 2008).

### 1) Advertising



Source: [depositphotos.com](https://depositphotos.com)

In advertising, women's shows as the common images of submissive wives and mothers. For instance, in advertisements, men and women are representatives of

specific items, such as men with alcohol and vehicles). On the other hand, the woman in advertising is portrayed as an independent woman in the workplace who has a position and authority (Lazier & Kendrick, 1993).

## 2) Magazines

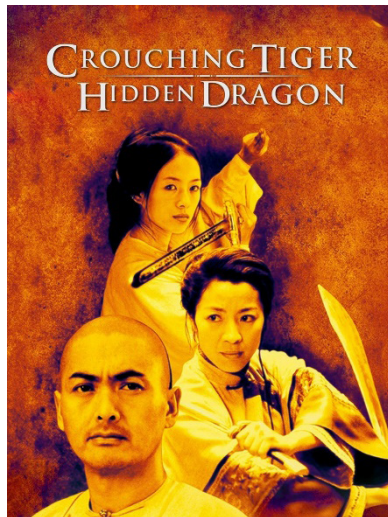


source: <https://id.pinterest.com/pin/483785184940958203/>

Women's photos in magazines in the 1960s in the United States showed women in traditional gender differences and inequalities that undermined women's real identities. Woman movement in 1970 showed women in political

issues (Gough Yates, 2003). Men in the magazine portrayed men in a positive and have progressive changes in gender roles. In 1960 and 1970, more coverage of political issues or described as “feminist” changes, which included more sexualized images and photos of women asserting their heterosexuality (Benwell,2003; Jackson et al., 1999 & Gill, 2007).

### 3) *Film*



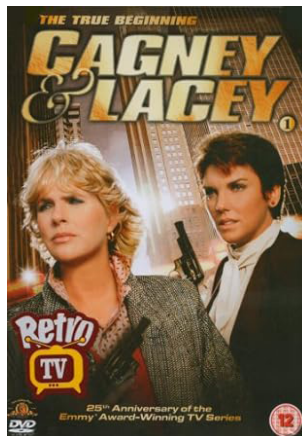
[https://www.rottentomatoes.com/m/crouching\\_tiger\\_hidden\\_dragon](https://www.rottentomatoes.com/m/crouching_tiger_hidden_dragon)

Hollywood films show women as objectifying and suppressing sexual desire. In the 1930s, in Mexican films, men played with masculinity through heroes in the film,



heterosexual and working-class men who related the male body to the male gaze. In feminism, the woman in the film plays in political economy, which tells about the integration of patriarchy and capitalism. For instance, “Crouching Tiger, Hidden Dragon” is well constructed and commoditized culture and feminism (Carter & Weaver, 2003; Dworkin, 1981; Rama subramanian & Oliver, 2003; Farrell, 2003)

#### 4) *Television*



Source: [www.amazon.com/](http://www.amazon.com/)

In 1970, women on television had the roles of subordinates or sex objects. In growth in 1980, woman increased their use of feminist rhetoric channels such as *Cagney and Lacey* (1982-1988) and *L.A. Law* (1986-1994);

in 1990, The television channel shows many varieties such as drama, situation comedy and factual programming.

Man roles on television, the characters such as dominant, aggressive, rational, and competent, and the man characterization Men are more likely than women to be depicted as employed in high-status jobs, are less likely to be shown as married, are generally shown as older, and more likely to be involved in violence. The masculinity portrayed on television tends to be white, middle-class, and heterosexual, and more work needs to be done examining black, transsexual, rural, and working-class men (Tuchman, 1978; Beynon, 2002; Craig, 1992; Hoberman, 1997).

## 5) **News**

News topics found men, such as hard news (politics, business, economics), so women in news topics about soft news, such as social issues (health care and education). The news can be accessed in three ways: television, radio, and print). For instance, in the news in India, women have positive effects such as macho culture, politics, gender roles, domestics and childcare services (Gallagher's, 2005; Page, 2003).

## F. Identity and Self-Expression

Gender identification for everyone to identify their gender, individual performance, and career goals also report higher levels of scientific importance in understanding the potential of the individual (Kiefer & Sekaquaptewa, 2007; Schmader, 2002; Cundiff et al., 2013 in Cribbs & Piatek-Jimenez, 2021). In addition, gender identity or identification is to identify as male, female, non-binary, gender neutral, gender fluid, or genderqueer toward gender norms (Kanfischer et al., 2017 in Cooper et al., 2018).

### 1) Man (Masculinity)



Figure 2. Early Scene at Home  
(The Danish Girl, 2015)

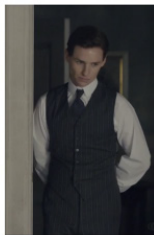


Figure 3. Usual Moment at Home  
(The Danish Girl, 2015)



Figure 4. Protagonist's Party Wear  
(The Danish Girl, 2015)

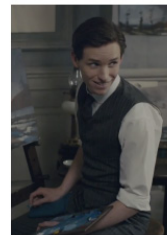


Figure 5. Protagonist Painting at Home  
(The Danish Girl, 2015)

Gender identifies, can be identified by appearance or fashion. Man or masculinity while a person wearing Accessories such as tie pins, hats, and set suits were the mainstay. Men's fashion has changed over a long time and has naturally become a part

of life that a man must perform. The basic wears underwear, and he wears a crisp white shirt that has been well-ironed. Then, he wears suit pants on top of it, fastening it on the shoulder with a suspender, and wears the tie fixing it with a pin. Lastly, wearing a vest and suit jacket completes the look (HeeSeon et al., 2019).

## 2) Woman (Feminine)

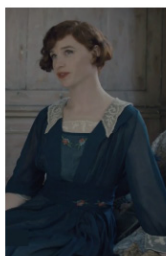


Figure 6.  
First Time Performing Woman Greeting Old Friend at Home  
(The Danish Girl, 2015)

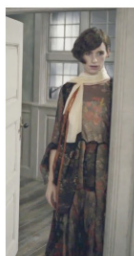


Figure 7.  
Greeting Old Friend at Home  
(The Danish Girl, 2015)

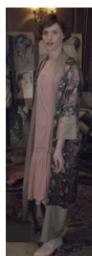


Figure 8.  
Usual Moment at Home  
(The Danish Girl, 2015)

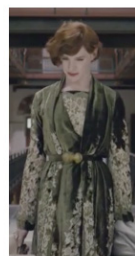


Figure 9.  
Accepted Self as Woman  
(The Danish Girl, 2015)

Woman or feminine can be identified by appearance, a woman's performance or wears such as Empire tunic style, Gar on style, or flapper style, which are mostly long and ç straight, exposing women's natural curves, with the bob style short hair. These women's clothes are also representative of women who have completed it's look through time. Although they have features that mimic the appearance of a boy who is not yet in puberty, they are recognized as feminine clothing and appear to be a

trend that is naturally sought by the women mentioned above. Women wear at 1900 (HeeSeon et al., 2019).

Gender identification is not only what they wear but also identifying their utterances below the example analyzes gender based on utterances that are taken from many sources:

ANNA : *((talking nervously)) This is awkward. Not "You are awkward", but just because we are... I am awkward; you are gorgeous. Wait, what?*

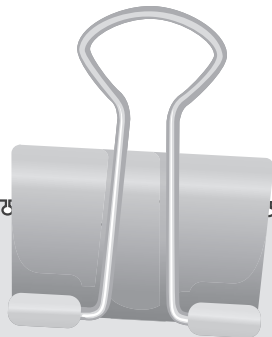
HANS : *I would like to formally apologize for hitting the princess of Arendelle with my horse and every moment after.*

ANNA : *No! No, no. It is fine. I'm not that princess. If you had hit my sister, Elsa, it would be... Yeesh! Because, you know... ((patting the horse)) Hello. ((to Hans) But, lucky you, it is just me.*

The conversation above, especially ANNA's utterance, shows that the character Anna has talkativeness means that Anna was trying to dictions of words. On the other hand, Anna's uncomfortable feelings toward Hans. However, talkativeness is a woman's character because women speak 20.000 words daily (Brizendine, 2006 in Alsaraireh et al., 2020).

*"You do conduct intercourse, is that right?" Dr. Hexler's face was stony, and Einar could imagine him in his rose garden with that same face, discovering with grave disappointment a petal-eating mite. "There is ejaculation?"*

The utterance above is an example of masculine or male character because, the utterance above shows that aggressive is show. At the same time, Einar has sexual intercourse with Greta is awkward and without initiative (Gunawan, 2021).



CHAPTER 7

**SOCIOLINGUISTICS  
FIELDWORK**



**Source: [https://dsswdu.weebly.com/  
field-work-placements.html](https://dsswdu.weebly.com/field-work-placements.html)**

**S**ociolinguistics fieldwork, commonly called research, means that the researcher was doing an investigation or study about the relationship between language and society. While conducting research, the researcher follows some sequence that begins with a research goal and design and understanding of the geographical and social characteristics. After that, is planning to data collection methods and in the last stages, the researcher has to plan how data presentation (Orfanidou & Morgan, 2014). So, in this chapter, the writers describe sociolinguistics in research or fieldwork.



## A. Sociolinguistics Research Scope

Bellow's research scope of sociolinguistics is taken from an article titled "Research Method in Sociolinguistics" written by (Hernández-Campoy, 2014). Bellow sociolinguistics research scope table which includes sociolinguistics discipline, research objectives, methodology, method/technique/tool/data, and domains:

Discipline	Objective	Methodology	Method/ Technique/ tool/data	Domains
Ethnometodology	Sociological	Qualitative	Ethnographic Fieldwork Sampling Natural Speech	Practical reasoning, common-sense knowledge
Sociology of Language	Sociological and Linguistic	Qualitative	Survey fieldwork Ethnographic fieldwork	Language planning, bilingualism, diglossia, lingua franca, verbal repertoire, code- switching, multilingualism, language loyalty, linguistic ecology, etc.

Social Psycho- logy of Language	Socio- logical and Lingu- istic	Quali- tative and Quan- titative	Survey fieldwork Matched- guise technique Attitude rating scales Mental map labelling Language boundary/ difference perceptions Dialect imitation.	Folk Linguistics (Perceptual Dialectology), attitudes and ideologies, Language loyalty, linguistics, accommodation, the aesthetics and prestige of dialects, gender differences, dialect distance, nativeness, etc.
Anthro- pological linguistics	Socio- logical and Lingu- istic	Quali- tative	Ethnographic Fieldwork Sampling Natural Speech	Kinship systems, linguistic taboo, linguistic relativity, globalization, nationalism, langu- age commodificat- ion, ideology, langu- age and political economy, etc.
Discourse analysis	Sociolo- gical and Linguistic	Quali- tative	Ethnographic Fieldwork Sampling Natural Speech	Turn-takings, interruptions, silence, communicative competence, dis- course markers, etc

Ethnography of communication	Sociological and Linguistic	Qualitative	Ethnographic Fieldwork Sampling Natural Speech	Conversation, communicative competence, writing systems, insults, irony, cross-cultural communication, etc.
Language and Gender	Sociological and Linguistic	Qualitative and Quantitative	Survey fieldwork Ethnographic fieldwork	Androcentrism, sexism, language and equality, etc
Dialectology	Linguistic	Quantitative	Survey fieldwork Questionnaires Interview Natural Speech	NORMs, idiolects, dialect boundaries, dialect areas, pure dialects, isoglosses, bundles of isoglosses, transition areas, focal areas, relic areas, wedges, dialect continua, Neogrammarian Hypothesis, Family-tree Theory, Wave Theory, dialectometric, etc
Variationist Sociolinguistics	Linguistic	Quantitative	Survey fieldwork Ethnographic fieldwork Sampling Natural Speech Recorded interview	Langue/parole, grammaticality of speech, observer's paradox, correlational linguistics, linguistic variable, socio-demographic

			Questionnaires	variable, context variable, statistical validity, representativeness, socially conditioned variables, longitudinal research, cross-sectional research, etc.
Geolinguistics	Linguistics	Quantitative	Survey fieldwork Gravity models	Linguistic innovations, patterns of diffusion, gravity models, neighbourhood effect, etc
Historical Sociolinguistics	Linguistics	Quantitative	Linguistic corpora	Uniformitarian Principle, Historical Paradox, Bad Data Problem, etc.
Creole Sociolinguistics	Linguistics	Quantitative	Survey fieldwork Ethnographic fieldwork Sampling Natural Speech Linguistic corpora	Pidgins, creoles, pidginization, creolization, contact varieties, etc.

## B. Method

### 1) Quantitative

Quantitative research in sociolinguistics is one type of research that focuses on statistics or computation (Nguyen et al., 2015 in Jamaledin & Lashkarin, 2016). Quantitative research sociolinguistics follows sequences such as collecting, classifying, and categorizing data, analyzing and amount of elected data (Biber, 1998 in Araq, 2020). Sociolinguistics quantitative research aims to understand, identify, and create about the social world to observe phenomena (Ahmad et al., 2019 in Sheraliyevna, 2022).

For instance, the researcher conducted research about dialect. Which dialect in Padang at employees and labourers was researched and written by Monalisa Febriani and Jufrizal in their studies about social status language variety and different pronunciations and suprasegmental (stress) in employees and labourers in Padang. The research method used of their research is quantitative because the researcher collects data from the recorded conversations of research samples (five employees and five labourers)

No	Differences of Pronunciation	Total of diction
1	Phoneme /u/ and /u:/ then /i/ and /i:/	5
2	Phoneme /k/ and /ʔ/	1
3	Phoneme /e/ and /ə/	1

*In the analysis of this part, the researcher found three types of differences of different pronunciations with the same dictions. Five words are different in pronunciation because of the different phoneme used between /u/ and /u:/ then /i/ and /i:/ such as [bùáh bàǰú], [ràwíʔ], [màtí], [pìtíh], [pècí] which uttered by employees and [bùáh bàǰú:], [ràwí:ʔ], [màtí:], [pìtí:h], [pècí:] which uttered by labourers, those all have the same meaning. Based on the example, labourers often make stress or extension to the word that has pronunciation of vowel sound at the end; it is seen in the difference between the phoneme /u:/ and /u/ then /i:/ and /i/. There is also one word found that is different in pronunciation because of the different phoneme used between /k/ and /ʔ/, such as [kátàʔ], [kódòʔ] were uttered by the labourers, and [kátàk], [kódòk] were uttered by the employees; one word found that different in pronunciation because of different phoneme used between /e/ and /ə/ such as the word gembok that uttered by employees as [gəmbóʔ] and uttered by labourers as [gèmbóʔ] (Febriani & Jufrizal, 2019).*

The table above is an example of data presentation in quantitative research, in which the researcher shows tables by following descriptions based on the table.

## 2) Qualitative

Qualitative research investigates social phenomena in words or utterance form, which includes structure, patterns, and characteristics of words data qualitative research from the speaker's utterance and interview data (Litosseliti, 2018 in Andikha, 2022).

Qualitative research in sociolinguistics focuses the communicative practice on their social practice, such as gender, ethnicity, and culture, which focuses on the dynamics of the participants 'shared' and 'non-shared' interpretations of messages that may depend on a variety of situational cultural, and social aspects (Gumperz, 2001 in Bijeikienė & Tamošiūnaitė, 2013). Moreover, qualitative research in sociolinguistics investigates the process of naturalistic or social phenomena by guiding questions "why" and "what." However, it studies human phenomena, including biography, case study, historical analysis, discourse analysis, ethnography, grounded theory, and phenomenology (Ahmad et al., 2019 in Sheraliyevna, 2022).

For instance, the researcher conducted qualitative research in sociolinguistics about code mixing, which took the source from your YouTube channel written by Zul Asrti and Al Fian titled “The Sociolinguistics Study on the Use of Code Mixing in Gita Savitri Devi’s Youtube Channel Video”.

The goals of their research are code-mixing that appears in Gita Savitri Devi’s YouTube channel video and to find out the types of code-mixing that emerge in Gita Savitri Devi’s YouTube video. Their research used video to collect data used documentation. Bellow example of data presentation qualitative research on sociolinguistics:

*Nah, kalau urusan hate speech atau ujaran kebencian nih sebenarnya rada ribet sih kalau menurut gue.*

*The utterance of Gita above appears at 02:45 minutes. She mixed her language from Indonesian to English. She said “hate speech” in her utterance. The mixing that Gita said is classified into a phrase form. Therefore, the types of code-mixing that Gita made is intra sentential (Astri & Fian, 2020)*



## C. Collection Data

### 1) Survey

A survey is a type of data collection that consists of a set of questions chosen for a specific population; however, a survey is used to measure population attitudes and behaviour and discover possible changes. The survey question can be designed in two ways: open-ended and close-ended. Open-ended questions mean that the research participant has answers to questions in their ways, the close-ended questions mean the question types such as yes/no or true/false answers (Kabir,2016 in Taherdoost, 2022).

Example:

(a) How well do you speak Inuttitut?

- very well
- well
- acceptably
- poorly
- very poorly
- not at all

(b) Which language do you find easier to converse in?

- Inuttitut
- English
- Both just as easily

(b) Did you take Inuttitut through the core program in school? (Yes/No)

If yes, what grades?.....

Source: Andersen, Catharyn (2009).

## 2) Interviews

An interview is collected data in the qualitative method in which the researchers investigate a social phenomenon by open questions. The reason the researcher used interviews to collect research data (Hamza, 2014 & Gray,2004 in (Utibe Monday, 2020):

- a) There is a need to attain highly personalized data.
- b) There are opportunities required for probing.
- c) A good return rate is important.
- d) Respondents are not fluent in the native language of the country or where they have difficulties with written language.

Interview in sociolinguistic research to find out about social classes such as education, occupation, and income and to investigate language variation. The interview begins with an informal free conversation and continues with formal language (Chambers, 1955; Holmes et al., 1991 in; Starks & McRobbie-Utasi, 2001). The example of interview questions was from an article titled

*A Sociolinguistic Study: Indonesian-English Code-Switching Employed by Teacher on English Learning at Al-Hidayah Boarding School by Khairunisa (2022).*

- (1) How many languages do you speak?
- (2) How often do you use your students' first language or Indonesian when teaching English in class?
- (3) Do you agree with the use of Indonesian in English class? Why?
- (4) When or under what circumstances did you teach using Indonesian?
- (5) From code-switching functions such as topic switch, which is used when you change the topic, there is an effective function to build solidarity for everyone in the class. The last is a repetitive function to emphasize or clarify meaning. Which one do you usually use when teaching?
- (6) Does code-switching during the learning process motivate students to learn English?

### **3) Questionnaire**

A questionnaire is one kind of data collection type that contains simple words and a bunch of questions to collect information or data from the research population (Rathi & Ronald, 2022). Commonly, questionnaires are

used in research fields such as research on academics, businesses, organizations, and public institutions (Taherdoost, 2022).

However, in sociolinguistics research questionnaire is used to collect data on the scope of sociolinguistics research, such as behaviour, beliefs, knowledge, attitude, and attributes (Schleef, 2014):

- (1) *Behaviour* related to language and language variety in specific contexts, personal habits, actions and lifestyles);
- (2) *Beliefs* related to language belief and ideologies, for instance, *standard language*;
- (3) *Knowledge* is related to the language we know and how well we know;
- (4) *Attitude*, related language evaluates, varieties, and linguistics features;
- (5) *Attributes* related to the information, the characteristics of response, need to question the formula of the information, such as language behaviours and attitude.

A below example of the questionnaire in sociolinguistics research was taken from an article titled A sociolinguistic investigation of language attitudes among youth in Morocco, Chakrani, 2010.

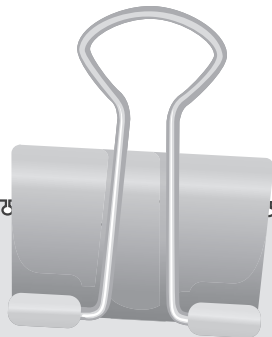
1. Age: \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Gender: \_\_\_\_\_
3. City of residence: \_\_\_\_\_ 4. I've lived here for \_\_\_\_\_ years
5. Previous residence: City: \_\_\_\_\_ for \_\_\_\_\_ years  
 City: \_\_\_\_\_ for \_\_\_\_\_ years
6. Current educational level: 1<sup>st</sup> cycle 2<sup>nd</sup> cycle Other: \_\_\_\_\_  
 Your major: \_\_\_\_\_ in language \_\_\_\_\_
7. Profession of father or guardian (Specify): \_\_\_\_\_  
 Profession of mother or guardian (Specify): \_\_\_\_\_
8. In which area do you want to work in the future?
- Education Computers Medicine Science  
 Law Politics Tourism Religion  
 Other (Specify): \_\_\_\_\_

Please state the language(s) you use **at home, in the neighborhood, or at school** with the following individuals. Fill in the blank using the numbers in the chart below, depending on usage.

5	4	3	2	1
Always (100%)	Mostly (75%)	Frequently (50%)	Occasionally (25%)	Never (0%)

	Langues Mixtes											Other Language (Specify)
	Moroccan Arabic	Berber	Standard Arabic	French	English	Moroccan Arabic and French	Standard Arabic and French	Moroccan Arabic and Berber	Berber and French	Berber and Standard Arabic	Standard Arabic and French	
<b>At Home</b>												
1. Father / Guardian												
2. Mother / Guardian												
3. Brother												
4. Sister												
5. Grandfather												
6. Grandmother												
7. Friends												
8. Neighbors												
<b>In the Neighborhood</b>												
9. With Friends												
10. With Neighbors												
11. With Shopkeepers												
<b>At School</b>												
12. Friends in class												
13. Friends outside class												
14. Teachers in your major in class												
15. Teachers in your major outside class												





CHAPTER 8

**SOCIOLINGUISTICS  
AND LITERATURE**



## Self Worth

“ When you try to make things better for a lot of people, you may end up making things worse for yourself. A little self- sacrifice is noble, but depriving yourself of too much will only leave you depleted. By that time, most people won't even realize that you need anything, because you're the one who has always given. Take care of yourself. Self preservation is not selfish, it's essential for living a full and happy life. ”

**Source: [allpoetry.com/](http://allpoetry.com/)**

Literature is the art of writing full of expression and ideas from the author's mind, in the written form consisting of expression, stories, and the dramatization of situations (Roberts and Henry, 1993 in Yuliana, 2014). In addition, literature means that the imagination, meaningful from the author's ideas, is then expressed through literary work, the literary works such as poems, drama, and prose (Culler, 1997 in Rosyidin, 2008).



Sociolinguistics is learning the relationship between language and society, and social condition is shown in fiction or non-fiction literature. The literary works show a variety of language such as styles, slang words, colloquial, jargon, argot and register (Alwasilah, 1993 in Kusmayanti, 2003).

*Girl number twenty,' said Mr Gradgrind squarely, pointing with his square forefinger.' I do not know that girl. Who is that girl?*

*Sissy Jupe, sir,*

*Sissy is not a name,' said Mr Gradgrind. 'Do not call yourself Sissy. Call yourself Cecilia.'*

*'It is Father who calls me Sissy, sir.'*

*'Then he has no business to do it,' said Mr Gradgrind. 'Tell him he mustn't Cecilia Jupe. Let me see. What is your father?*

*He belongs to the horse-riding if you please, sir.*

*We do not want to know anything about that here; you must not tell us*

*about that here. Your father breaks horses, doesn't he?*

*If you please, sir, when they can get any to break, they do break horses in the ring, sir.'*

*It would be best if you did not tell us about the ring here. Very well, then. Describe your Oh yes, sir,' said Sissy*

*Very well, then. He is a veterinary surgeon, a farrier, and a horse –*

*breaker. Give me your definition of a horse, said Gradgrind*

The piece novel above is an example of sociolinguistics in literature, the piece above shows that the difference of social economics classes is shown in Gradgrind refusing the name Sissy by saying, "Sissy is not a name calling yourself Cecilia". This is an indication that the name "Sissy" belongs to the lower class and uneducated people. Even he ridicules Sissy for using the word "horse-riding" to tell him about her father's job. He regards this word also as a word used by uneducated people and the lower class. Dickens makes Gradgrind use a "special register" to indicate the huge difference in socioeconomic class of the two different characters (Mahdi & Manaf, 2014).

## **A. Literary Sociolinguistics: Poem**

Literary sociolinguistics in a poem, taken from an article titled *Language Analysis of Robert Frost Poem Called "The Sound of Trees" in Mountain Interval Collection* written by (Malik et al., 2023).

Their studies aim to analyze the language style in Robert Frost's poem "The Sound of Trees" in terms of frozen, formal, consultative, casual, and intimate styles.

The method used in their studies is the descriptive qualitative method. Below the research findings of their studies:

### 1) **Frozen style**

*And fixity in our joys,*

*And acquire a listening air*

The phrase above is a piece of "The Sound of Trees" poem by Robert Frost and is a kind of frozen style in sociolinguistics because the word fixity or fix is an uncommon word used in everyday conversation. This language type is frequently found in old documents or written declarations. The word "acquire" is used by people in such a circumstance or a particular event like presidential speeches and preachers and the word.

### 2) **Formal Style**

*"I wonder about the trees."*

*"Why do we wish to bear."*

*"Forever the noise of these"*

*"More than another noise"*

*"So close to our dwelling place?"*

*"We suffer them by the day."*

The piece of the poem above is an example of formal style because it shows phrases such as *Why do we wish*

to bear; Forever the noise of these; More than another noise; so close to our dwelling place? The phrase means they have a spiritual struggle about not realizing their preference for hearing the trees instead of any other sound around us.

### 3) Consultative Style

*"Sometimes, when I watch trees sway,"*

*"From the window or the door."*

*"I shall set forth for somewhere,"*

*"I shall make the reckless choice."*

The piece of the poem above is an example of the consultative style, showing that phrases such as *Sometimes when I watch trees sway, From the window or the door* the phrases mean that they decided to leave anything and are ready for new life and a new chapter of the world.

### 4) Casual Style

*"They are that that talk of going."*

*"But never gets away."*

The piece poem above is an example of casual style is shows that *"They are that that talk of going"* have repeated the word "that that"; however, casual style has characteristics such as repetition, slang, and shortened word.

## 5) Intimate Style

*"Till we lose all measure of pace."*

*"They are that that talk of going."*

The piece poem above is an example of intimate style because "till" comes from "until" and is commonly used by close friends, family, couples, and many others.

## B. Literary Sociolinguistics: Prose

Literary sociolinguistics in prose, especially novels, was taken from the article "Code Mixing and Code Switching in Novel *The Devil Wears Prada*" by *Lauren Weisberger: A Sociolinguistic Study* written by (Octavita, 2017)

Her research aims to explain the types of code-mixing and code-switching in the *Devil Wears Prada* Novel. Her research used qualitative methods, the data taken from *The Devil Wears Prada* by Lauren Weisberger novel.

### 1) Code Mixing

- ✓ *Tidak, aku hanya punya **email-nya**. Tapi biar ku **forward** pesannya padamu supaya kau bisa bicara langsung padanya*
- ✓ *Dan aku melempar gagang telepon pada Emily tanpa sempat berpikir memencet tombol **hold***

- ✓ *Apa?Dia membicarakan **game** Nintendo favoritnya?*
- ✓ *Departemen Artistik akan menciptakan **lay out** baru dan memasukkan foto-foto yang baru*

The sentence above is an example of code-mixing found in the novel *Devil Wears Prada* because the sentence above uses English words in their utterance, English words in Bahasa Indonesia sentences such as *e-mail, forward, hold, game* and *layout*.

## 2) Code Switching

- ✓ *"Kemarin dia memilih lagu **I'm Too Sexy**. Sementara dia ber nyanyi **I'm too sexy for Milan, too sexy for Milan, New York and Japan***
- ✓ *"Lebih baik sekalian saja membuat orang lain senang. **Running just as fast as we can***
- ✓ *"**The one and only**. Kenapa? Kau pernah dengar namanya?"*

The sentence in the utterance above is an example of code switching in the *Devil Wears Prada* Novel, which shows the speaker utterance in Bahasa Indonesia and the second in English.

## C. Literary Sociolinguistics: Drama

Literary sociolinguistics in the drama was taken from the article entitled *Language Variation: Register and Accent in Ken Arok and Ken Dedes Drama Performance* written by (Frimadhona, 2013). Her research aims to analyze English with Javanese accents and register in the drama performance and to analyze the Javanese accent in English utterances.

TA : Tunggul Ametung (Lord)

KD : Ken Dedes

TA : Ahh...forget about your father, my lady. My name is Tunggul Ametung, the chief of Tumapel, and they are my servants. Nobody will blame me because I am this kingdom's king, the authority.

K.D. : Greetings, my lord, but it is so impolite to visit a maiden without any permission from her father, right?

TA : I was hunting in the jungle. And accidentally, I arrived at this place. Isn't it our fate that has us meet?

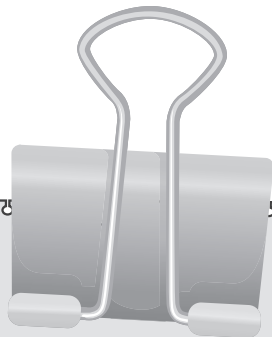
K.D. : What do you mean, my lord?

- TA : Well, I am waiting for someone to be my Queen, and I think you are sent to be mine.
- K.D. : Oh, I am sorry, my lord, I must refuse your invitation. I do not know you, I do not love you, and my father will not permit me to be your wife. I'm sorry.
- TA : Please think about it, my lady. A beautiful woman like you does not deserve to live in the middle of nowhere like this. Be my wife! Company me in the luxurious, glamorous life!
- K.D. : I am sorry, my lord, I must decline. There is a lot to learn before someone becomes a great leader. I am still learning, and I see you cannot teach me about this life. I am a woman, and I will take a man who will become a good leader for me.
- TA : Hah! A thorn for your rose-like beauty...and I do agree with you if you say that I could not buy your love, but you would be surprised at how easy to take it with my authority...muahahahahahaha
- K.D. : I am sorry, my lord, my obedience obeys the authority higher than yours. The authority that higher than the word authority itself.
- TA : Ahhh! Enough with your lecture! If you do not want to be mine, then nobody can. B.G.! Take him to the palace and burn this place! I will force her to marry me.



The conversation above is an example of a drama register showing that The differences in social status and age influence the variety of languages. Even though the illustration of the variety of Javanese language could be clearer in English, that actor or actress spoke. The choice of words and use of modality in English try to represent a variety of Javanese languages. It is even felt when we hear the Javanese accents of the actor or actress in speaking English.





CHAPTER 9

**SOCIOLINGUISTICS  
AND LANGUAGE  
TEACHING**



**Source: [multilingualllearningtoolkit.org](http://multilingualllearningtoolkit.org)**

**S**ociolinguistics in language teaching is important because the teachers in language classrooms understand and deal how language use. Help the teacher while teaching and learning because it covers the varieties of approaches, and understanding the social background of students are so important to selecting the approaches for teaching language (Nancy & Sandra, 2010 in Faizin HS, 2015).

According to Omaggio 2001 (Astifo, 2022), sociolinguistics are important in language teaching because:

- ❖ Language teachers often believe they do not have time for sociocultural learning because of time constraints in their courses.
- ❖ Teachers will need more faith to assume that they can learn the sociocultural dimensions of studying foreign languages well.
- ❖ Sociocultural skills teaching also means coping with learner behaviours that teachers typically find very difficult to direct their learners to recognize and appreciate the logic and importance of the target community.

## **A. Teachers' Code Mixing and Code Switching: Insights on Language Barriers in EFL Classroom by (Siddiq et al., 2020)**

Their research investigates code-mixing and code-switching used by English teachers in EFL classrooms. Their research used qualitative methods, collecting data using observation and interviews.

## 1) Code Mixing in Teachers' Utterances in Some Contexts of Interactions

Context	Conversation
<p>When the teachers asked about the position of students in the curriculum</p>	<p>T : Kita Sekarang Kurtilas, Kan?</p> <p>S : Yes!</p> <p>T : Kurtilas itu bagaimana, Student senter atau teacher senter?</p> <p>S : Menalar,</p> <p>T : Student Centerkah atau Teacher Centerkah?</p> <p>S : Student Center</p>
<p>Teachers asked the students to give an example</p>	<p>T : Berikan satu contoh kata sifat.</p> <p>S : Is . . . is</p> <p>T : Is itu bukan kata sifat. Is itu adalah to be. Kata sifat itu contohnya, satu Sad, Lazy. Kemudian kata kerja, Verb. Kata kerjaapa? Berikan contoh dari kata kerja. Siapa yang bisa?</p>

<p>When the teacher was asking about the verb in the text</p>	<p>T : Kalau menggunakan Verb, bagaimana?</p> <p>S : Verb satu, verb two, verb dua</p> <p>T : Tidak! Dia tidak perlu menggunakan kata kerja bentuk kedua. Sudah mulai terang?</p>
<p>When the teachers were asking for the material to be taught</p>	<p>T : Today, kita akan belajar tentang Present Continuous Tense. Ada yang tahu apa itu Present Continuous Tense?</p> <p>S : Ndak Buk!</p>
<p>Teachers asked about the type of text.</p>	<p>T : Termasuk kedalam text apa dia? Kalian sudah Ibu sebutkan Junior High School di SMP text monolog itu. Descriptive text, Narrative text, Recount text, Procedure. Nah, Text ini menceritakan tentang rumah.</p> <p>S : Descriptive text, Buk.</p>

## 2) Code Switching in Teachers' Utterances in Some Contexts of the Interactions.

Context	Conversation
Teachers explained the part of the house	<p>T : My house is divided into two floors. My house dibagi menjadi dua lantai</p> <p>S : Floors</p>
Teachers asked about adjective	<p>T : Do you know adjectives? Apakah kalian tahu tentang adjective?</p> <p>S : Lai buk</p> <p>T : Bagus</p>
Teachers explained the text	<p>My house is divided into two floors, di bagi menjadi dua lantai. In down stair dilantai bawah . I have a lot of things in inside. Saya memiliki banyak barang di dalamnya. Dalam kamarnya, seperti TV kemudian PS3 and many thropies dan banyak tropi, piala. In my sister bedroom, di kamar saudari saya there is a computer and the other. ...Ada computer and the other bedrooms are</p>



	<p>for my parent and my other sister. ...di dua buah kamar lainnya adalah untuk kedua orang tuaku dan saudariku yang lain. Normally, biasanya kami makan dimana saja kami inginkan, But on Sunday kami makan in Dining room, kami makan bersama diruang makan. I really love my house, saya sangat mencintai rumah saya. The place were we could share everything together. Tempat dimana kita bias berbagi segalanya bersama.</p>
<p>Teachers explained the next material.</p>	<p>T : Present Continuous Tense adalah kegiatan yang sedang sekarang, contohnya: Anisa is reading a novel right now. Anisa sedang membaca sebuah novel sekarang. Contoh lagi: They are studying together. Mereka sedang belajar bersama. Contoh lagi: I am cooking for dinner. Saya sedang masak untuk makan malam. Dari ketiga contoh ini, kira-kira pola kalimatnya seperti apa?</p> <p>S : Subject...</p>

## B. Multilingual Interaction in Classroom Context by (Idris et al., 2020)

Their research aims to explore teacher and student ways of interacting in multilingual EFL classrooms. The subject of their research is one EFL student and four local students are SMKN 5 Jeneponto, the south of Sulawesi. The data used observation and interview. Their research described the interaction in the classroom in the teaching and learning process (beginning class, during the learning process and closing of learning class. The multilingual used of their conversation uses English, Bahasa Indonesia and the local language, which is shown in the conversation below:

### 1) Beginning the class

T : *okay, well. Assalamu alaikum Wr.Wb!*

Ss : *Walaikumussalam Wr.Wb*

T : *good morning, everybody! Semangat pagi... pagi....*

Ss : *Good morning, Maam !*

T : *How are you Guys.....*

Ss : *Fine maam.....*

## 2) Learning Process

T : *okay, because last week kita sudah belajar tentang (we have learnt about ) introducing self means you have understood the point that we should know when we meet someone new. Jadi, kalian sudah bisami to' introducing friend juga? (so, can you induce fiend also?)*

S1 : *O Bu' yang di papan tulisji toh di baca? (Maam, only read the text on the whiteboard?)*

T : *iyo, majumi cepat dua orangko. Baca itu percapannya. (yess, both of you go ahead. Read the conversation)*

S2 : *Teaja' nakke gang, anu susah bacanna bela, i kau-mo Ayu. (I do not know. It is not easy to read in English. How about Ayu)*

S1 : *ambamo, na bantu jaki Ibu. ( come on, maam will help us)*

## 3) The Closing the Class

T : *siapa yang bisa rangkum kembali pelajaran hari ini? Please retell the material that you get today. Anyone can answer my question?*

- S5 : *anu mem, about present tense. Atau sesuatu yang dilakukan secara berulang-ulang. Terus pola kalimatnya menggunakan subjek + verb1+ object. Apa anjo poeng di...*
- S6 : *ituee, yang adayya juga do atau does.*
- S5 : *o iyye tawwa mem, kalau negative or introgative sentence pakai do or does. I, you, they, we pake do. Sedangkan she, he, it pakai does. Toh mem?*
- T : *Oke betul... and remember to finish your homework in the next meeting. Tugasnya jangan lupa ya*

## **C. Turn-Taking and Gender Differences in Language Classroom by (Azhar & Iqbal, 2018)**

The objective of their research is to study the gender differences in the ways male and female students take turns and participate in mixed-gender classrooms. Their research method used qualitative because exploring depth issues and conducting in a natural setting means interacting with the researcher (their) and the research participants.

### ❖ **Female Teacher in Geography Subject**

Teacher : What is the difference between a fact and an opinion?

A girl : Ma'am fact means

Boys : awaaznahiaarahi (we cannot hear you).  
They also interrupted the teacher;

Teacher : So, while writing a summary, you have to

### **2 Boys (entering the class) : assalaam-o-alaikum (Greetings)**

Teacher : Why don't you people go back, greet each other, and then return to the class?

Teacher : Now you people have to write a summary

A boy : of the first paragraph

Teacher : Do we summarize only one paragraph or the entire text while writing a summary?  
Did I say you must write a summary only for the first paragraph?

The utterance above shows that The boys were found to interrupt the teacher during her lecture many times like the ones discussed above, as when they started speaking before the teacher completed her utterance, which shows the dominance of the male students.

### ❖ **Male Teacher in Economic Subject**

Teacher : Are you people here because you like Economics?

A girl : agar aapkosona ho to Economics paRhe~  
(If you want to sleep you should study Economics)

Teacher : ((laughs))

Teacher : Is there any other subject that you like?

Boy : I like Physics because the world obeys the laws of Physics

In the utterance above, the students' girls are active in learning, and the boys in the class are not participating.

## **D. The Using of Casual Style in ELT for Young Learners (Sociolinguistics Perspective) by (Debora, 2013)**

The purpose of her research is to implement casual language in the classroom to motivate students and to express the students' ideas by language the students understand the materials delivered by the teacher and

easily apply by the students. Data collecting techniques of her research used interviews and questioner. Bellow the students and teacher utterances taken from the interview:

### Utterances by Students

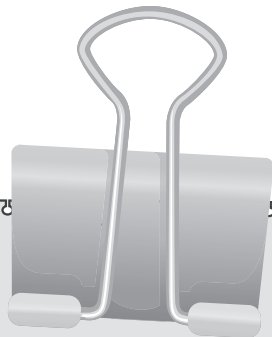
Utterances Used	The formal form
I'm bored	This no longer interests me.
Any homework?	Do we have homework?
This be on the test?	Will this learning appear on the assessment?
Toilet, miss?	May I go to the toilet, miss?
They are touching/looking at me.	A classmate is disturbing my learning.
No like, miss	· I would not say I like it, miss

### Utterances by Teachers

Utterances Used	The formal form
Take out your book/ pencil/ pen/paper.	Take out the necessary learning equipment

Stop talking	Do not talk in the classroom, please
Line up	Arrange yourselves in a line.
Use eraser	Use an eraser when there is a mistake
No talking when walk	Do not talk when you are walking.





CHAPTER 10

**SOCIOLINGUISTS**



Source: [katasis.com](https://www.katasis.com)

Sociolinguists are the researchers who focus on the sociolinguistics fields such as language use and variations, how language functions in social contexts, language reflects and shapes language aspects of identity, culture, power, and community or societal communication.

So, in this chapter, the writers describe the sociolinguists and the contributors to their ideas in sociolinguistics.

## A. Lev Vygotsky

Lev Semenovich Vygotsky, commonly called “Vygotsky,” is a psychologist of Russian nationality who was born in Russia on November 5, 1896, and died in 1934. He was a Soviet developmental psychologist who focused on historical cultural psychology. He received his education privately at Solomon Ashpiz and graduated

from State University in Moscow in 1917. Then, he gave lectures related to psychology in Moscow in 1924. Apart from that, he was someone who gave his thoughts regarding cognitive development, especially the relationship between language and thought; his writing focuses on the role of historical background, culture, and social factors. From 1917 to 1924, Vygotsky returned to his home in Gomel and taught literature at Junior High Schools (SMP) and the local institute in Gomel in psychology. Apart from that, Vygotsky also taught children who had physical disabilities. Until Vygotsky completed his doctoral dissertation in the field of psychology of art. On January 6, 1924, Vygotsky travelled to Leningrad to give a public lecture on the psychology of consciousness; during this time, Vygotsky was stricken with tuberculosis (Vygotsky, 1979; Matt Jarvis, 2009 in Ardiati, 2021).



**Source: [en.wikipedia.org](https://en.wikipedia.org)**

His contribution to sociolinguistics such as Zone of Proximal Development or ZPD, language as cognitive tools, private speech cultural mediation, and sociocultural context of learning. Below the explanation of each of his theories in sociolinguistics:

### **1) Zone of Proximal Development or ZPD**

The definition of Zone of Proximal Development defined by Vygotsky is *“the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.”* This means that in learning the students in individual have to work together in their group or the collaboration. ZPD in learning gives the students interesting, meaningful learning, problem-solving tasks, and competence in peer or group (Campbell, 2008 in Shabani et al., 2010)

### **2) Language as Cognitive Tools**

Language as a cognitive tool, as defined by Vygotsky, is a child developing language while beginning to use language not only as a communication system but also as a tool to control their actions and have a cognitive process. Moreover, language as a cognitive tool, such as increasing empirical cognitive science, a growing body

of empirical evidence demonstrates the importance of language for some cognitive functions, including learning, analogy-making, cross-modal information exchange, problem-solving, and logical-mathematical abilities (Mirolli & Parisi, 2009)

### **3) Private Speech**

According to Vygotsky, private speech means that the child has speech alone, and as the transitional stage, the activity related interpersonal speech to the development of inner speech. Moreover, in private speech in children, the child in utterance-by-speech form has the fully expanded and syntactically complete structure of interpersonal speech, but as the child becomes aware of the personal function of this speech, subsequently transforms and streamlines it into the highly abbreviated and syntactically fragmented form of inner speech. Private speech has a benefit when a child becomes an adult because while an adult, the child has a covert speech form or thinks silently before their thoughts (Feigenbaum, 2009)

### **4) Cultural Mediation**

As Vygotsky defined, cultural mediation means that mediation is the cultural tools, signs and symbols that restructure the human mental; cultural mediation

is explicated and addressed to understand the human development relationship between mind and culture (Arievitch & Stetsenko, 2010).

## 5) Sociocultural

Sociocultural, by Vygotsky, means cooperative interaction between students and their environment. Moreover, sociocultural are two approaches to solving the problems related to learning and the development of the mind the approaches are (Helou et al., Ed.D, 2018):

- ✓ The constructed, such as intellectual identity from the functional utility through the internal process;
- ✓ Focused on the roles, the mediators of meaning, and social settings

Moreover, sociocultural means that approach learning and mental development through interaction between individuals and their environment, culture, and behavior activities. Furthermore, this theory focuses on individual learning, cultural beliefs and attitudes (Ameri, 2020)

## B. William Labov



Source: [www.tadkiroatun.id](http://www.tadkiroatun.id)

William Labov, commonly called “Labov,” was born on December 4, 1927, in Rutherford, New Jersey, United States. He lives at Rittenhouse Square, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, U.S. He works as an Industrial Chemist (1949 until 1960); Associate Professor of Linguistics (1971 until 2014). His educational background is Labov. He worked as an industrial chemist (1949 until 1961) before turning to linguistics. 1963 completed his M.A. thesis, which studies the change in the dialect of Martha’s Vineyard. Then, he continued his studies at Columbia University to take a PhD (1964 UNTIL 1970), and then he became a professor of linguistics

at the University of Pennsylvania in 1971 (Wikipedia at scribed.com).

Bellow the contribution of Labov in Sociolinguistics, which takes source from an article titled *Labov in Sociolinguistics: An Introduction* written by(Bell et al., 2016)

### **1) Linguistic change**

Principles of Linguistic Change in three volumes (1994, 2001 and 2010). He found that sound change, such as stress, contrasts prevailing theories. He also found that the structured and other changes include constraints on change, transition stages, social and linguistic embedding, evaluation and actuation of change.

### **2) Linguistic evaluation**

Linguistic evaluation means that the recording of the language production, the data takes his recorded New York speakers and asks them the rank speakers.

### **3) African American English**

Through this project, Labov found the contrasts between women and men, social class (middle, working class, and development path African American children).



## C. Joshua Fishman



**Source: [alchetron.com](http://alchetron.com)**

Joshua Fishman was born on July 18, 1926, in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, and died on March 1, 2015 (aged 88). His background education started in Yiddish in Wroklmen's Circle Schools and focused on the Yiddish language in literature, history, and social issues then his continued study at Olney High School. After that, he continued studying at the University of Pennsylvania from 1922 until 1948 majoring in history and psychology, and got a B.S. and M.S. Then, he continued doctor studies at Columbia University, majoring in socio-psychology

in 1953 (Wikipedia.org). His experience working as a linguist has contributed to sociolinguistics:

### 1) Language Shift

Language shift, commonly called language planning, defines that language shift has three causes: demographic, social, and cultural. Demographic dislocation is caused by natural disasters (floods, earthquakes and famines), and humans, such as mineral or forest depletion, soil exhaustion or industrialization of agriculture and production, cause social and cultural dislocation. All of these human interventions bring foreigners (settlers, foreign occupants and immigrants) (IAIN Palopo, 2015).

### 2) Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (GIDS)

Fishman defines GIDS as the intergenerational transmission by which the parents pass on the language to their children. He developed a scale with eight levels. Level 1-6 is language maintained, and level 7 & 8 is shift to another language (Dwyer, 2011) below level and description in the table below:

LEVEL	DESCRIPTION
1	The language is used in education, work, mass media, and government at the nationwide level

2	The language is used for local and regional mass media and governmental services
3	The language is used for local and regional work by both insiders and outsiders
4	Literacy in the language is transmitted through education
5	The language is used orally by all generations and is effectively used in written form throughout the community
6	The language is used orally by all generations and is being learned by children as their first language
7	The child-bearing generation knows the language well enough to use it with their elders but is not transmitting it to their children
8	The only remaining speakers of the language are members of the grandparent generation.

### 3) Language Use

According to Joshua Fishman, the domains of language use are family, friendship, religion, education, and employment. Domains means that the sociocultural construct is abstracted from topics of communication,

communicators and local communication. For instance, the father speaks to the mother, the child speaks to the mother, and the mother speaks to the child. He also states that locale means that the places where the conversations take place influence the languages you are using (Marjohan, 1988 in Barona Yosafa Valentino et al., 2013)

## D. Ronald Wardhaugh



Source: [quod.lib.umich.edu](http://quod.lib.umich.edu)

Ronald Wardhaugh is a professor of linguistics who was born in Canada in 1932. He has published some literary works related to linguistics such as *Bacaan: Perspektif Linguistik*, 1969; *Pengantar Linguistik*, 1972; *Topik dalam Linguistik Terapan*, 1974; *Konteks Bahasa*, 1976; (co-ed.) *Survei Linguistik Terapan*, 1976; *Bahasa dan Kebangsaan: Pengalaman Kanada*, 1983; *Bagaimana Percakapan Bekerja*, 1985; *Pengantar Sociolinguistik*, 1986; *Bahasa dalam Kompetisi*, 1987; *Bahasa Investigasi*, 1993; *Pemahaman Tata Bahasa Inggris*, 1995; *Bahasa Inggris yang Tepat*, 1999. He works as a Professor at the University of Toronto in the Linguistics Department (Encyclopedia.com).

His contribution to sociolinguistics is a book titled “Introduction to Sociolinguistics”, which was published in 2015 (7<sup>th</sup> Edition). Below the contents of his book (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2021):

1. In chapter one, he begins with a short introduction that explains the study of sociolinguistics, notion (competence and performance), variation, language and culture, Whorfian hypothesis and the methodological concerns in this area.
2. In chapter two, he explains language, dialects and varieties of the explanation, such as a language and a dialect, by talking about style, register, and genre. He brings the idea to an end by highlighting the fact that “particular

ways of speaking are considered distinct languages or subordinated dialects because of sociopolitical ideologies and identities moreover about language regional, social dialects as style, register and genre.

3. In chapter three, he explains how to define groups, the explains such as speech communities, language boundaries, shared norms, constitute and language and social groups in social group membership.
4. In chapter four, he explains about Language in Contact: Multilingual Societies and Multilingual Discourse. Multilingualism issues in many societies and the different ideologies languages surround. Moreover, he explains in this chapter about language use in diglossia, multilingual discourse such as communication accommodation theory, the Markedness Model and language choice as the social construction of identity.
5. In chapter five, he explains contact languages: Structural Consequences of social Factors Lingua Francas, as “a language which is used habitually by people whose mother tongues are different language while communication, pidgin and creoles in their geographical distribution.
6. In chapter six, he explains language variations such as regional variation, dialect mixture free variation, and

- linguistics variables (identifies variants and different forms in the environment).
7. Chapter seven, "Three Waves of Variation Studies", explains gender variation and social networks and gender variation.
  8. In chapter eight, "Language Variation and Change", he explains language change, such as structural consequences and language contact and the relationship between lifestyle and language change.
  9. In chapter nine, "Ethnographic Approaches in Sociolinguistics", he explains ethnography approaches from a sociolinguistic perspective of communicative competence (the knowledge of how to use language in culturally appropriate ways).
  10. In chapter ten, "Pragmatics", he explains that Performative utterances are also described as the case in which "a person is not just saying something but is actually doing something if certain real-world conditions are met.
  11. In chapter eleven, "Discourse Analysis" he explains about language monologic ally and such uses are clearly marked. The unmarked use is dialogical, and conversation analysis (C.A.) is another subcategory, trying to point out that conversational analysts, working within

the ethnomethodological tradition, point out that, regardless of how many speakers are involved in a conversation, speakers take turns of various lengths with very little overlap.

12. In chapter twelve, "Language, Gender and Sexuality," he explains the relationship between language and gender; the authors firstly maintain that gender is a culturally constructed phenomenon and further refer to the terms Transgender (people who have transitioned from one sex category to another) and cisgender (people whose sex category matches their gender).
13. In chapter thirteen, "Sociolinguistics and Education," he explains the idea of social dialects and education; the authors strongly exemplify the difference between elaborated (the standard, highly grammatical and complex language) and restricted (short, grammatically simple and rather poor in meaning with frequent use of idioms) codes. They claim that the role of the home dialect in education is one of the key issues in designing curriculums.
14. In chapter fourteen, "Language Policy and Planning," he explains that post and neo-colonial contexts such as Kenya and India are explored as well. Finally, LPP is studied in the United States and Canada. What we can see as the final products of this chapter are multilingual



countries, LPP, an explanation of endangered languages, and the spread of English. All in all, the theme that is mostly observed in this final chapter has to do with policies and planning with regard to multilingualism; it (policies and planning) is sometimes fostered, sometimes regulated, and sometimes discouraged, depending on the history and ideological stances in the country.

## E. Deborah Tannen



Deborah Frances Tannen, or called Deborah Tannen, was born on June 7, 1945. She works as an Author, Linguist and professor. She is a professor in the linguistics

department at Georgetown University, Washington, D.C. She has published some books such as *Conversational Style: Analyzing Talk Among Friends*; *Talking Voices: Repetition, Dialogue and Imagery in Conversational Discourse*; *Gender and Discourse*; and *The Handbook of Discourse Analysis*. The educational background. She graduated from Hunter College High School with (a B.A.) then she continued to study at Wayne State University (M.A.), and she continued her Doctor in linguistics at the University of California, Berkeley in 1979 (Wikipedia).

The popular theory by Tannen is about language and gender. She writes between man and woman similar miscommunication occurs all the time between women and men. The effect may be more insidious, however, because the parties usually do not realize they are in a cross-cultural encounter. At least when we cross a geographical border, we anticipate the need to bridge a communication gap in conversing with members of the opposite sex. For instance, two girls could sit comfortably face-to-face and carry on a serious conversation about people they knew. Nevertheless, when boys were asked to talk about “something serious,” they were restless, never looked at each other, jumped from topic to topic, and talked about games and competition (Griffin, 2006).

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Perempuan kelahiran Kota Klaten ini menamatkan SD, SMP, dan SMA di Kota Klaten, Jawa Tengah. Pendidikan tinggi dari tingkat Sarjana, Magister, dan Doktoral ditempuh di Universitas Sebelas Maret Surakarta, Jawa Tengah. Doktor bidang linguistik ini banyak menghasilkan karya ilmiah, dalam bentuk artikel maupun buku. Kecintaannya pada bidang tulis-menulis telah mengantarkannya menjadi salah satu penulis nasional buku teks pelajaran dari Pusat Kurikulum dan Perbukuan Depdiknas RI atau Buku Sekolah Elektronik (BSE) pada tahun 2007-2008. Penulis pernah mendapatkan hibah buku ajar tingkat perguruan tinggi dari Kementerian Riset, Teknologi, dan Pendidikan Tinggi tahun 2015 dengan judul *Komunikasi Ilmiah, Kajian dan Aplikasi Teori*.





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judul Perkuliahan Membaca Kritis dan Kreatif Mahasiswa Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Indonesia (PBSI) Berorientasi Pada Pendidikan Karakter, Campur Kode Pada Transaksi Lego Tuneeca New N Preloved, Peran Mata Kuliah Komprehensi Lisan Dalam Menumbuhkan Literasi Media Mahasiswa PBSI UAD, jurnal dalam Seminar nasional dan Internasional Campur; Code Dalam Transaksi Lego Tuneeca New And Preloved Kaitannya Dengan Bahan Ajar Sociolinguistik, Bleded Learning dalam Pembentukan Kemandirian belajar, Mobile Assisted Language Learning and Its Insights in Teaching Academic Writing: A Literature Review. Beberapa buku yang sudah dibuat baik mandiri ataupun kolaborasi antara lain; Mahir Berbahasa Indonesia (Bahan Ajar Di Perguruan Tinggi), Memahami Wacana Percakapan Transaksi Daring: Perspektif Sociolinguistik, KADO ANGGUN: Kumpulan Dongeng Anak Gunung Kidul, Antologi Desain Pembelajaran Berbasis Daring, Sehimpun Catatan Menenun Hikmah (Berkolaborasi dengan Ustad Yusuf Mansur dan Penulis Komunitas Yuk Menulis), Setelah Sapardi Pergi "Sehimpun Puisi Tribute to Sapardi Djoko Damono".

