

Social dialects essay



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Social dialects Rothstein and S. Rothstein (2009), they defined dialect as an aspect of language that refers to variation in pronunciation, words and grammar of a specific language and as a part of every language, resulting from geographic, occupational and social differences. Read(1986), said that dialect can be divided into social and regional varieties. Regional dialects are defined geographically; social dialects are defined by socioeconomic and sociocultural characteristics. Black English is the best-known example of American social dialect.

George Yule(2006), this refers to the traditional dialects tended to concentrate on the speech of people in rural areas, the study of social dialects has been mainly concerned with speakers in towns and cities. In the study of dialects, it is social class that is mainly used to define groups of speakers as having something in common. The two main groups are generally identified as “ middle class”, those who have more years of education and perform non manual work, and “ working class “, and those who have fewer years of education and perform manual work of some kind.

When we talk about “ working-class-speech, we are referring to social dialects. The terms ‘ upper’ and ‘ lower are used to further subdivide the groups, mainly on an economic basis, making ‘ upper middle class speech’ another type of social dialects. As in every dialect studies, only certain features of language used are treated as relevant in the analysis of social dialects. These features are pronunciations, words and structures that are regularly used in one form by working class speakers and in another form by middle class speakers.

In Edinburgh, Scotland, for example, the word home is regularly pronounced as [he: m], as if rhyming with name, among lower-working-class speakers, and as [ho: m], as if rhyming with foam, among lower-middle-class speakers. It is a small difference in pronunciation, but it is an indicator of social status. A more familiar example might be the verb ain't, as in I ain't finished yet, which is generally used more often in working-class speech than in the middle class speech. Studies of social dialects typically report how often speakers in a particular group use a certain form rather than find that only one group or the other uses the form.

Finegan and Rickford (2004), in American society, the idea of social dialect tends to have a strong association with the varieties of English spoken by socially subordinate groups even though, technically speaking, the varieties spoken by socially dominant groups are certainly social varieties as well. The varieties of English associated with these socially subordinate groups are often referred to as vernacular dialects. The term vernacular language is used to refer to local or native languages of common communication that contrast with the official standard language of a multilingual country.

Part of the reason that the term social dialect is so strongly associated with vernacular varieties is related to the fact that the speech of low-status groups in American society tends to be much more socially marked than that of high-status groups. To a large extent, vernacular varieties are characterized by the presence of socially conspicuous and negatively valued structures so called 'nonstandard dialect structures'. By the same token, socially favored varieties of English tend to be characterized by the absence of negatively valued, or socially stigmatized, features rather than by the presence of

socially prestigious feature. In fact, one possible definition of so-called “standard English” characterizes it as a variety of English that does not exhibit socially stigmatized structures of English, rather than a variety typified by any particular set of positively valued structures (Wolfram and Shilling-Estes 1998). Accordingly, the notion of social dialects in American Society has come to be associated with the vernacular varieties spoken by low-status groups. The patterning of social differences in language

Different linguistic variables may correlate with social-status groupings in a variety of ways, given varying histories of dialect contact, dialect diffusion, and change in group relations. Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, (2001), In some different ways, social boundaries and class differences are as confining as the physical barriers that often define regional dialects. Communication among social groups, however, may be as severely limited as if a physical boundary such as an ocean existed between them. The social boundaries that give the rise to dialect variation are numerous.

They may be based on socioeconomic status, ethnic or racial differences, country of origin, and even gender. Dialect differences that seem to come about because of social factors are called social dialects, as opposed to regional dialects, which are spawned by geographical factors. However, there are regional aspects to social dialects and, clearly, social aspects to regional dialects, so the distinction is not entirely cut and dried. The Standard Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, (2001), they refer to the dominant, or prestige, dialect is often called the standard dialect. Standard American English (SAE) is a dialect of English that nearly speak.

SAE is an idealization. According to some languages pundits, deviations from the indefinable standard constitute as language “ crisis”. For many years after the American Revolution, British writers and journalists railed against American English. The fears of the British journalist in 1787 proved unfounded, and so will the fears of modern-day purists. From a linguistic point of view, one dialect is neither better nor worse than another, nor purer nor more corrupt, nor more or less logical, nor more or less expressive. It is simply different. A standard dialect (or prestige dialect) of a particular language may have social functions.

Its use in a group may bind people together or provide a common written form for multidialectal speakers. All speakers who aspire to become successful may be required to speak that dialect even if it isn't their own. Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams,(2001), said that language and dialects both have been banned as a means political control. Russian was the only legal language permitted by the Russian tsars, who banned the use of Ukrainian, Lithuanian, Georgian, Armenian, Azeri, and all the other languages spoken by national groups under the rule of Russia.

Cajun English and French were once banned in southern Louisiana by practice if not by law. For many years, American Indian languages were banned in federal and state schools on reservations. Speaking Faroese was formally forbidden in the Faroe Islands. A proscription against speaking Korean was imposed by the Japanese during their occupation of Korea between 1910 and 1945. Throughout history many languages and dialects have been banned to various degrees. Then several decades ago, members

of regional autonomy movements demanded the right to use their own languages in their schools and for official business.

In many places in the world (including the United States), the use of sign languages of the deaf was once banned. Children in schools for the deaf were often punished if they used any gestures at all. The aim of these schools was to teach deaf children to read lips and to communicate through sounds. This view prevented early exposure to language. It was mistakenly thought that children, if exposed to sign, would not learn to read lips or produce sounds. In recent years in the United States, a movement has arisen to establish English as an official language by amending the Constitution.

An 'official English' initiative was passed by the electorate in California in 1986; in Colorado, Florida, and Arizona in 1988; and in Alabama in 1990. Fortunately, as of this writing, the movement appears to have lost momentum. African American English According to Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams (2001): They refer to African American English (AAE) is spoken by a large population of Americans of African descent. The distinguishing features of this English dialect persist for social, educational and economic reasons. The historical discrimination against African Americans has created the social boundaries that permit this dialect to thrive.

Since the onset of the civil rights movement in the 1960's, AAE has been the focus of national attention. Some critics attempt to equate its use with inferior genetic intelligence and cultural deprivation, justifying these incorrect notions by stating that AAE is a 'deficient, illogical, and incomplete' language. The cultural-deprivation myth is as false as the idea that some

dialects or languages or languages are inferior. Some people, White and black, think they can identify the race of a person by speech alone, believing that different races inherently speak differently.

This belief is patently false. A black child raised in Britain will speak the British dialect of the household. A White child raised in an environment where AAE is spoken will speak AAE. Children construct grammars based on the language they hear. AAE is discussed here more extensively than other American dialects because it provides an informative illustration of the morphological and syntactic regularities of a dialect of major languages, and the semantics differ from the so-called standard dialect of that language. Owens, (2008) He said.

That African – American English is a “ uniform dialect that’s used by African Americans from inner cities of most large urban areas and rural south when speaking casually. In short, it’s the linguistic system used by working-class African American people within their speech community. Standard American English “ is an idealized version of American English that occurs rarely in conversation. It’s the form of American English that’s used in textbooks and on network newscasts. Most of us speak a dialect of English or another” (Owens, 2008). describe the basic grammatical distinctions between African English and Standard American English. These differences include the following: Plural –s in AE it’s not used with numerical adjectives or irregular plurals like: “ three cat” and “ three sheeps”. In SAE Plural –s is used with numerical adjectives and not with irregular plurals like: “ three cats” and “ three sheep. ” Auxiliaries to be and to do are omitted or uninflected in AE, for ex: “ I going home” or “ I is going. ” In SAE Obligatory and inflected are

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expressed in the present and progressive form, I'm going home and she doesn't want to eat.

In SAE, Prepositions are obligatory specific, " I am at home, He goes by bus. " The pronouns in AE are subjective, objective and possessive confused, " Him go quickly, It him book. " In SAE, the pronouns have subjective, objective and possessive distinctions, " He gave it to her, and It's his book. " In AE, the demonstrative form is confused, " I like those horse. " In SAE, the demonstrative has a singular distinction, " I like that horse. " Conjunctions are omitted in the AE grammatical structure, " You I go together. The SAE conjunction is obligatory in its use between the last two items, " You and I are going together, and Mary, John, and Carol went. " In negation, AE uses a double marker and a simplified form, " I didn't see nobody, and He no come. " The SAE's negation uses a single obligatory marker, " I didn't see anybody, and He didn't come. " Finally, The AE's grammatical structure of word order displays the adjective following the noun " clothes new", the possessive follows the noun " dress her", and there's an omission of the object with the transitive verb, " I want. The word order in SAE most noun modifiers precede the noun: " new clothes", the possessives precedes the noun: " her dress" and there's a use of direct object with most transitive verb: AE has adversed affects on the perception of most educators. Phonological differences between African American English and SAE Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, (2001), almost every dialects of both British and American English, AAE includes a rule of r-deletion that deletes /r/ everywhere except before a vowel.

Pairs of words like guard and god, nor and gnaw, sore and saw, poor and poe, fort and fought, are pronounced identically in AAE because of this phonological rule there is also an l-deletion rule for some speakers of AAE like toll and toe, all and awe, help and hep. Consonant cluster reduction is not unique to AAE. It exists optionally for many speakers of other dialects including SAE. For example: in SAE the medial [d] in din't is often deleted, producing [dint]. Neutralization of [ɪ] and [e] before nasal consonants

AAE shares with many regional dialects a lack of distinction between /ɪ/ and /e/ before nasal consonants, producing identical pronunciations of pin and pen, bin and Ben, tin and ten, and so on. Loss of interdental fricatives This is again not unique to AAE, but a common characteristic of certain regional, nonethnic dialects of English of dialects of English, many found in the state of New Jersey as well as in New York City and Boston. Syntactic differences between AAE and SAE Syntactic differences also exist between dialects.

Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, (2001), They usually used to illustrate the illogic of AAE, and yet these differences are evidence that AAE is as syntactically complex and as logical as SAE. Deletion of verb 'be' In some cases, if in Standard English the verb can be contracted, in African American English sentences it is deleted; where it can't be contracted in SAE, it can't be deleted in AAE, as shown in the following sentences: SAE AAE He is nice/he's nice. He nice. They are mine/they're mine. They mine. I am going to do it/ I'm gonna do it.

I gonna do it. The ungrammatical sentences are caused by a conflict of the habitual meaning with the momentary meaning conveyed by at the moment, this time, and today. The syntactic distinction between habitual and non habitual aspect also occurs in SAE, but with verbs others than be. Owens, (2008)He said. That African – American English is a “ uniform dialect that’s used by African Americans from inner cities of most large urban areas and rural south when speaking casually. In short, it’s the linguistic system used by working-class African American people within their speech community.

Standard American English “ is an idealized version of American English that occurs rarely in conversation. It’s the form of American English that’s used in textbooks and on network newscasts. Most of us speak a dialect of English or another” he describe the basic grammatical distinctions between African English and Standard American English. These differences include the following: Plural –s in AE it’s not used with numerical adjectives or irregular plurals like: “ three cat” and “ three sheeps”. In SAE Plural –s is used with numerical adjectives and not with irregular plurals like: “ three cats” and “ three sheep. Auxiliaries to be and to do are omitted or uninflected in AE, for ex: “ I going home” or “ I is going. ” In SAE Obligatory and inflected are expressed in the present and progressive form: I am going home and she doo’t want toe at. Latino (hispanic) English A major group group of American English dialects is spoken by native Spanish speaker sor their descendants. Among these groups are native speakers of spanish who have learned or are learning English as a second language. there are also those born in Spanish speaking homes whose native language is English, some of whom are monolingual, and others who speak Spanish as second language.

In addition to their differences between bilingual and monolingual speakers, the dialects spoken by Puerto Rican, Cuban, Guatemalan, and El Salvadoran immigrants or their children are somewhat different from one another and also from those spoken by many Mexican Americans in the Southwest and California, called Chicano English (ChE). Chicano English (ChE) is acquired as a first language by many children, making it the native language of hundreds of thousands, if not millions, of Americans. It is not English with Spanish accent but, like African American English, a mutually intelligible dialect that differs systematically from SAE. Many of the differences, however, depend on the social context of the speakers. Linguistic differences of this sort that vary with the social situation of the speaker are termed sociolinguistic variables. Many Chicano speakers (and speakers of AAE) are bidialectal; they can use either ChE (or AAE) or SAE, depending on their social situation.

Phonological Variables of ChE Chicano speakers whose native language is Spanish may substitute the Spanish vowel system of English. When this is done, several homonyms result that have distinct pronunciations in SAE. Chicano speakers whose native language is English may choose to speak the ChE dialect despite having knowledge of the full set of American English vowels. Other differences involve consonants, such as word-final consonant cluster reduction and may also delete past-tense suffixes (poked is pronounced like poke), third person singular agreement suffixes (he loves her becomes he love her) and word-final alveolar-cluster reduction (e. g., pronouncing fast as if it were palled fass). Syntactic variables in ChE

In Spanish, a negative sentence uses a negative morpheme before the verb even if another negative appears; thus negative concord (the multiple

negatives mentioned earlier) SAE; 'I don't have any money', ChE; 'I don't have no money. Lexical differences also occur, such as the use of 'borrow' in ChE for 'lend' in SAE, as well as many other of the subtle differences. Genderlects

Dialects are defined in terms of groups of speakers, and speakers are most readily grouped by geography. Thus, regional dialects are the most apparent and generally are what people mean when they use the word 'dialect'.

In 1973, the linguist Robin Lakoff wrote the first article specifically concerned with women and language to be published in a major linguistics journal. Lakoff identified a number of features that occur more frequently in women's speech than in men's. For example, women "hedge" their speech more often than men do, with expressions like 'I suppose, I would imagine, this is probably wrong, sort of, but...' and so on. Women use tag questions more frequently to qualify their statements. There is a widespread belief that when men and women converse, women talk more and also that they tend to interrupt more than men in conversation. It has also been observed that women are more conservative in their speech style. The more specific reasons that have been suggested are that women use more standard language to gain access to senior-level jobs that are often less available to them, that society tends to expect "better" behavior in general from women than men, that people who find themselves in subordinate roles (as women do in many societies) must be more polite, and that men prefer to use more vernacular forms because it helps to identify them as tough and strong.

The linguist Deborah Tannen called the different variants of English used by men and women "genderlects" (a blend of gender and dialect). Variations in the language of men and women occur in many, if not all, languages.

Sociolinguistic Analysis Speakers from different socioeconomic classes often display systematic speech differences, even when region and ethnicity are not factors. These social-class dialects differ from other dialects in that their sociolinguistic variables are often statistically unnatural.

But social-class dialects differentiate themselves in a more quantitative way. The linguist William Labov carried out a sociolinguistic analysis in New York City that focused on the rule of r-dropping that we discussed earlier, and its use by upper-, middle-, and lower-class speakers. Labov interacted with all manner of people in their own environment where they were comfortable, although he took care when analysing the data to take into account ethnic and gender differences.

What makes Labov's work so distinctive is his methodology and his discovery that the differences among dialects can be usefully defined on a quantitative basis of rule applications rather than the strict presence or absence of a rule. He also showed the social context and the sociolinguistic variables that it governs play an important role in language change.