

LIN 272
Introduction to Sociolinguistics

Ibadan Distance Learning Centre Series

LIN 272
Introduction to Sociolinguistics

By

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Vice-Chancellor's Message

I congratulate you on being part of the historic evolution of our Centre for External Studies into a Distance Learning Centre. The reinvigorated Centre, is building on a solid tradition of nearly twenty years of service to the Nigerian community in providing higher education to those who had hitherto been unable to benefit from it.

Distance Learning requires an environment in which learners themselves actively participate in constructing their own knowledge. They need to be able to access and interpret existing knowledge and in the process, become autonomous learners.

Consequently, our major goal is to provide full multi media mode of teaching/learning in which you will use not only print but also video, audio and electronic learning materials.

To this end, we have run two intensive workshops to produce a fresh batch of course materials in order to increase substantially the number of texts available to you. The authors made great efforts to include the latest information, knowledge and skills in the different disciplines and ensure that the materials are user-friendly. It is our hope that you will put them to the best use.

A handwritten signature in brown ink, appearing to read 'Olufemi A. Bamiro', with a stylized flourish at the end.

Professor Olufemi A. Bamiro, FNSE
Vice-Chancellor

Foreword

The University of Ibadan Distance Learning Programme has a vision of providing lifelong education for Nigerian citizens who for a variety of reasons have opted for the Distance Learning mode. In this way, it aims at democratizing education by ensuring access and equity.

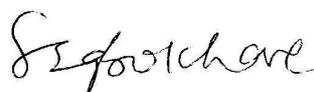
The U.I. experience in Distance Learning dates back to 1988 when the Centre for External Studies was established to cater mainly for upgrading the knowledge and skills of NCE teachers to a Bachelors degree in Education. Since then, it has gathered considerable experience in preparing and producing course materials for its programmes. The recent expansions of the programme to cover Agriculture and the need to review the existing materials have necessitated an accelerated process of course materials production. To this end, one major workshop was held in December 2006 which have resulted in a substantial increase in the number of course materials. The writing of the courses by a team of experts and rigorous peer review have ensured the maintenance of the University's high standards. The approach is not only to emphasize cognitive knowledge but also skills and humane values which are at the core of education, even in an ICT age.

The materials have had the input of experienced editors and illustrators who have ensured that they are accurate, current and learner friendly. They are specially written with distance learners in mind, since such people can often feel isolated from the community of learners. Adequate supplementary reading materials as well as other information sources are suggested in the course materials.

The Distance Learning Centre also envisages that regular students of tertiary institutions in Nigeria who are faced with a dearth of high quality textbooks will find these books very useful. We are therefore delighted to present these new titles to both our Distance Learning students and the University's regular students. We are confident that the books will be an invaluable resource to them.

We would like to thank all our authors, reviewers and production staff for the high quality of work.

Best wishes.



Professor Francis O. Egbokhare

Director

LECTURE ONE

General Introduction

When the call came to me from the centre to review this work, I saw it as an opportunity to improve on the general quality of the course material. Therefore, I jumped at it without any reservations. The starting point was to read through and correct any typographical and grammatical errors in the first edition. Some of these were indeed embarrassing. However, when I considered the time I spent on the initial efforts, I discovered that I was seriously under pressure to deliver the work. Also, then I was busy with my Ph.D work in the Department and at the same time teaching many courses. This second edition you are holding is better in terms of overall quality.

Apart from that, four new units have been introduced to enrich the work. These four units are this general introduction, sociolinguistics, sociology of language, speech communities and language planning. All these bring the total number of units to twenty (20) units. Look at the table of contents below:

1. General Introduction
2. An Introductory Exposition on Sociolinguistics
3. Sociolinguistics and the Sociology of Language
4. The Scope of Sociolinguistics
5. Speech Communities
6. Bilingualism: Concepts and Definitions
7. A Critique of the Definitions of Bilingualism
8. Causes of Bilingualism
9. Bipolar Typologies of Bilingualism
10. Types of Individual Bilingualism
11. Diglossia
12. Code Mixing and Code Switching
13. Functions of Code Switching
14. Types of Mixing and Switching
15. Language Maintenance and Language Shift
16. Considerations for Language Use in Education
17. Language and Social Class
18. Topical Issues in Sociolinguistics
19. The Social Context of Speech
20. Language Planning

As I introduce this edition to you, I sincerely hope you will enjoy it.

Best Wishes

Dr. Oluwadoro, J.O.

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LECTURE TWO

An Introductory Exposition on Sociolinguistics Preamble

Sociolinguistics is that part of linguistics which is concerned with language as a social and cultural phenomenon. It investigates the use of language in its social and cultural contexts. It relates societal problems to linguistic/language problems. It answers the question: “how do our social and cultural backgrounds affect our use of language?” it tries to answer questions like who says what to whom, when, where, how and why? How relevant is sociolinguistics as a discipline or field of enquiry to Nigeria as a multilingual country? See the answer to this question below as we discuss sociolinguistics as a course.

Introduction

Sociolinguistics has been described by scholars as the study of variation in language in all its ramifications. It studies the use of language in its socio-cultural context. It also studies the norms of society at large and examines how the individual exploits his awareness of the society’s norms in order to achieve particular effects. Basically, sociolinguistics is the study of:

- a. language in a society or speech community
- b. language varieties
- c. language function

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. define sociolinguistic;
2. describe the pre-occupations of sociolinguists (the practitioners of sociolinguistics);
3. summarise the relationship between sociolinguistics and other disciplines such as Anthropology, social psychology, Philosophy, Education, Political Science and Communication; and
4. identify the central disagreement among sociolinguists

Pre-Test

1. How would you define sociolinguistics?
2. What is the basic theme of sociolinguistics?

CONTENT

Sociolinguistics is the study of the interaction between language; and the structure and the functioning of society. It is an aspect of the exploration of the social influences on language and the role of language in the society. Its major concern is linguistic variation within and across individuals and groups at the social, regional, national and international levels with respect to such factors as age, gender, education, occupation, ethnicity and socio-economic status. The basic theme of Sociolinguistics is understanding meaning in variation.

Sociolinguistics draws from and contributes to a wide range of disciplines, including Anthropology, Social Psychology, Philosophy, Education, Political Science and Communication. Through investigation of such phenomena as social attitudes to language, standard and non-standard forms of language, patterns and needs of national language use, regional and social dialects, or language change and spread, sociolinguistics research sheds light on various social concerns; among these are language conflicts, language rights, literacy, the social bases of bilingualism and multilingualism, language and identity and gender based speech.

Sociolinguistics is also referred to as the sociology of language by Fishman (1972). It aims at understanding the uses of language and the social structures in which the users of language function. It is assumed that language cannot be studied in isolation from the communicative intentions of the users and the socio-cultural context in which a language or language variety is used. Another assumption is that language is a communal possession that people use, and not an abstract, self-sufficient system. One special relevant fact of language when viewed from this perspective is that no individual uses language the same way all the time. People constantly change styles, registers and dialects, as well as language differently whether speaking or writing to co-workers, neighbours and friends, interacting with clients, students or car mechanics, buying or selling a commodity, scolding or soothing a child, asking for help or giving an order, extending or declining an invitation, excluding someone from a conversation, or seeking identity with a speech community.

Sociolinguistics is one of the main growth points in the study of language, from the point of view of both teaching and research. Most of the growth points in sociolinguistics has taken place in the late 1960s. A central disagreement among some sociolinguists is about the direction of influence between language and society. There are four basic positions:

- i. Some believe social structure (gender, regional origin or ethnicity) influences or determines linguistic structure or linguistic behaviour (the ways of speaking).
- ii. Others maintain that linguistic structure influences social structure. Still others take the view that the influence is bi-directional (speech behaviour and social behaviour are in a state of constant interaction).
- iii. Finally, some question whether there is any relationship at all between linguistic and social structures (each is independent of the other).

Summary

This unit as the title suggests, is an exposition on the concept or discipline 'sociolinguistics'. It introduces sociolinguistics as a branch of linguistics whose major concern is to provide comprehensive answers to questions like who says what to whom when, where, how, and why. The 'structural' school of linguistics which has dominated twentieth-century linguistics, including transformational – generative linguistics focused attention on the structure of language, to the exclusion of the social contexts in which it is learned and used. Whereas sociolinguists opine that speech has a social function and therefore linguistics ignores society at its peril.

Post Test

1. What is sociolinguistics?
2. How does sociolinguistics differ from structural linguistics?
3. There is a central disagreement among some sociolinguists. What is it all about?
4. Linguistics ignores the society at its peril. Discuss.

Discuss sociolinguistics as a field of enquiry. How relevant is it as a discipline in a multilingual country like Nigeria?

- Sociolinguistics is one of the growth points in the study of linguistics
- It is an interplay between the society and language, thus it has two perspectives in its study.
 - (a) the society as the starting point and language as a social problem and resource (sociology of language)
 - (b) language is the focus, but social forces as influence on language and contributing to our understanding of the nature of language.
- The basic truth about language is emphasized in sociolinguistics this is the fact that language VARIES, unlike Chomsky's idealism on language.

Different Aspects of Sociolinguistics

- Sociology of language (macrosociolinguistics)
- Sociolinguistics in the narrow sense (microsociolinguistics)
- Ethnography of communication
- Anthropological linguistics

- Ecology of language
- Dialectology

References

- Anwar, S. Dil (1972): 'Language in Sociocultural Change' *Essays* by Joshua A. Fishman.
- Bright, W (1992): *International Encyclopedia of Linguistics*
- Hudson, R. A. (1996): *Sociolinguistics*. Cambridge University Press.

LECTURE THREE

Sociolinguistics and the Sociology of Language

Introduction

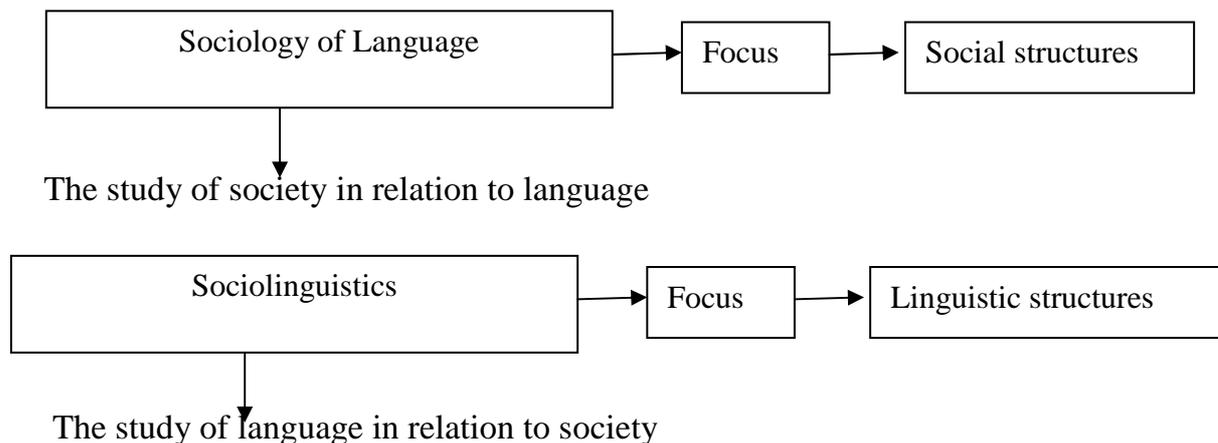
We have defined sociolinguistics as the study of language in relation to society. This implies that sociolinguistics is part of the study of language. This implies that the value of sociolinguistics is the light it throws on the nature of language in general or on the characteristics of some particular language.

Pre-Test

What is the difference between sociolinguistics and sociology of language?

Discussion

Sociolinguistics and sociology of language are likened to the two sides of a coin. Students of society have found the facts about language can illuminate their understanding. It is hard to think of one characteristic of a society which is as distinctive as its language or an important for its functioning. The study of society in relation to language is referred to as sociology of language, whereas the converse is the case with sociolinguistics. Sociolinguistics is the study of language in relation to the society, thus, we can present as it follows:



This means that sociolinguistics focuses on the study of language, and it does this by examining the varieties of language in the society; whereas sociology of language focuses on the society in relation to the language(s) that are used there. The obvious

fact from the foregoing is that the difference between sociolinguistics and sociology of language is very much on emphasis, according to whether the researcher is more interested in language or society; and also according to whether they have more skill in analyzing linguistic or social structure. There is a very large area of overlap between the two and this makes it pointless to try to divide the disciplines more clearly now. The summary is that much of what is written in a textbook of sociolinguistics could as well be written in a textbook on the sociology of language.

However, there are some issues which a textbook on the sociology ought to include which this one will not. Notably, most of what is called ‘macro’ sociology of language, dealing with the relations between society and languages as wholes. This is a very vital area of research from the point of view of sociology (and politics), since it raises issues such as the effects of multilingualism on economic development and the possible language policies a government may adopt. The view we take here is that both sociolinguistics and sociology of language require a systematic study of language and society if they are to be successful. Moreover, a sociolinguistics that deliberately refrains from drawing conclusions about society would seem to be unnecessarily restrictive, just as restrictive as sociology of language that deliberately ignores discoveries about language made known in the course of sociological research.

Summary

Let us summarise in the words of Wardlaugh (1998) who says ‘there is no sharp dividing line between the two, but a large area of common concern. Although, sociolinguistic research centers about a number of different key issues, any rigid micro – macro compartmentalization seems quite contrived and unnecessary in the present state of knowledge about the complex interrelationships between linguistic and social structures. Contributions to a better understanding of language as a necessary condition and product of a social life will continue to come from both quarters.

Post Test

1. Having read through the above discussion what would you say is the difference between sociolinguistics and sociology of language?
2. Why is it difficult to draw a thick line of distinctions between the two?

References

- Wardlaugh, R. (1998) *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
Hudson, R.A. (1996) *Sociolinguistics*. Cambridge University Press (second edition).

LECTURE FOUR

The Scope of Sociolinguistics

Preamble

“I shall refer throughout to ‘sociolinguists’ and ‘linguists’ as though they were separate individuals, but these terms can simply be used to reflect the relative amount of attention given to the social side of language, without taking the distinction too seriously. There is no denying that remarkable progress has been made in the study of language structure within the structural tradition, by people who would call themselves ‘linguists’ and not ‘sociolinguists’. Moreover, it is clear that some areas of language . . . relate more directly to social factors than others do. Those who concentrate on other areas, taking a more or less ‘asocial’ approach, we can call ‘linguists’, as opposed to ‘sociolinguists’. I do believe that all who study language, from whatever point of view, should be much more aware of the social contexts of their subject matter than is often the case . . . (Hudson, R. A. (1996))”

The Scope of Sociolinguistics

Introduction

The Relevance of Sociolinguistics to social issues in Nigeria. Sociolinguistics affords us the opportunity to study issues like language and ethnicity, language in education, language planning, language attitude in relation to Nigeria and how we can harness the linguistic resources of Nigeria for development, language being a vital resource. The scope of Sociolinguistics has been hotly debated among scholars. While some (see Wardhaugh, 1992) argue that the field encompasses most research that is concerned with language and society – e.g. conversational and discourse analysis, speech acts, bilingualism, language standardization, or language attitudes; others (see Trudgill, 1974/1983) accept as sociolinguistics, only those studies with linguistic objectives, i.e. those that aim to improve linguistic theory and develop understanding of the nature of language. This more narrow view of the field admits studies of variation theory and language change- the relationship between language and social class – for the insight they provide into the nature of linguistic variability and the structure of linguistic systems. (See Hudson, 1996, and Romaine 1994, for representation of a more inclusive view.)

The relationship between language and society is complex and sociolinguistics reflects this complexity, encompassing many different activities which are social and linguistic to varying degree: for example, the analysis of conversation focuses on language as used in social interaction. Tim Ingold (1994: 880) asserts that linguistic skills entail more than mastery of a linguistic code that allows the speaker to produce sentences that are grammatical; they also involve knowing how to speak appropriately in different social settings. The ability to produce utterances that are appropriate to the occasion is therefore known as communication competence. Saville-Troike (1982: 22) opines that communicative competence involves knowing not only the language code but also what to say, to whom and how to say it appropriately in any given situation.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. itemise at least six issues that fall within the purview of the contents of sociolinguistics; and
2. discuss them exhaustively

Pre-Test

Discuss at least three topics that fall within the purview of sociolinguistics.

CONTENT

1. Norms of Speech: conversation analysts deal with norms for the practice of conversation, including turn taking, interruption, and silence. They may also investigate relatively contentless but highly important conversational marker, such as “well” and “anyway” which help to indicate the structure of conversations. A related area, the “Ethnography of Speaking”, notes that norms for how language use vary from one society to another.

2. Attitudes and Expectations: Language attitudes of a different sort are the subject of the social psychology of language. This area of sociolinguistics investigates attitudes that people have to different varieties (accents, dialects, languages) and the way in which these attitudes, influence perceptions of the characteristics and abilities of speakers. These attitudes are clearly social in origin.

3. Accent, dialect, region and class: The relationship between accent and dialect, on the one hand and social class background on the other, is an issue of considerable sociolinguistic importance. For example, dialects and accents of British English vary both geographically and socially. The high status of RP (Received Pronunciation) is traditionally associated with the British upper class and the public schools.

4. Language Change: This involves change in languages over time. One of the fundamental facts about living languages is that they are not monolithic, that is, they are always changing. New words, new pronunciations, new grammatical forms and structures, and new meanings for existing words are always coming into existence, while older ones are always dropping out of use. It is absolutely impossible for a living language to avoid changing. New objects, new concepts, new activities all require new names at the same time, old objects and activities may cease to exist and their names may die out with them. Certain linguistic form may acquire social prestige and spread to the speech of those who formerly did not use them. Syntactic structures, which come to be frequently used, may be reduced to simpler grammatical forms. Language contact may induce speakers to import forms and usages from other languages.

Such constant change means that a language at any point in time is always significantly different from its direct ancestor of some centuries earlier and often vastly different from its ancestor of one or two millennia earlier. Moreover, a language spoken over a sizeable area does not change everywhere in the same way, and so, over time, it breaks up, first into regional dialects and then, eventually, into several very different languages producing a language family.

5. Language Planning: This entails making deliberate decisions about the form of a language. Very commonly, a language ‘just grows’: it develops and changes in response to countless small decisions made more or less unconsciously by its speakers. But it is perfectly possible, and in some circumstances necessary, for the future of a language to be determined in important respects by deliberate, self-conscious decisions, often made on official basis. This activity is referred to as ‘language planning’ or ‘language engineering’.

6. Switching Languages and Styles: In multilingual situations, developments occur and these are important for linguists, including the growth of pidgin and Creole languages. Sociolinguists study the behaviour of bilinguals, investigating the way in which they switch from one language to another depending on social context.

Summary

This lecture has explored the scope of sociolinguistics in some details. Six major aspects are covered. These are: norms of speech, language attitudes, accent, dialect region and class, language change, Language planning and code/style switch. We do not claim that this is exhaustive. However, we believe these are the major contents of the discipline. Those who focus attention on the structure of language without taking cognizance of the speakers and the way they use language in different contexts are 'linguists' while those who study language in relation to the speakers and the different ways they use it in different contexts are sociolinguists.

Post Test

1. Enumerate six major areas on which sociolinguists focus their attention.
2. Discuss any four of them briefly
3. How would you, differentiate 'sociolinguistics' from 'structural' linguistics?
4. Language is not monolithic. What does this assertion entail?

References

- McArthur, T. (1992): *The Oxford Companion to the English Language* (Abridged Edition)
- Hudson, R. A. (1996) *Sociolinguistics* Cambridge University Press.

LECTURE FIVE

Speech Communities

Introduction

The term speech community is widely used by sociolinguists to refer to a community based on language, but linguistic community is also used with the same meaning. The study of speech communities has interested linguists since 1933 when Leonard Bloomfield wrote a chapter on the concept. However, there has been considerable confusion and disagreement over what exactly what a speech community. We shall therefore examine some of the definitions that have been given by scholars in this unit.

Pre-Test

What is a speech community?

Discussion

Many definitions have been offered by scholars on the concept 'speech community'. Let us examine some of them.

John Lyons (1970: 326) offered what appears to be the simplest, definition of what a speech community is when he wrote: A speech community comprises of all the people who use a given language (or dialect).

Charles Hockett (1958: 8) defines a speech community as follows: "Each language defines a speech community: the whole set of people who communicate with each other, either directly or indirectly, via the common language". Here, the criterion of communication within the community is added, so that if two communities speak the same language but have no contact with each other at all, they would count as different speech communities.

Leonard Bloomfield (1933: 42) defines "a speech community as a group of people who interact by means of speech". Here, emphasis is shifted entirely from shared language to communication. This leaves the possibility that some interact by means of one languages and others by means of another.

John Gumperz (1962) defines (linguistic community) as a social group which may be either monolingual or multilingual, held together by frequency of social interaction patterns and set off from the surrounding areas by weaknesses in the lines of communication. In 1968, Gumperz added mother requirement that there should be

some specifically linguistic differences between the members of the speech community and those outside it. According to him, the speech community refers to any aggregate characterized by regular and frequent interaction by means of a shared body of verbal signs and set off from similar aggregates by significant differences in language use.

William Labov 1972a: 120 defines a speech community as follows:

The speech community is not defined by any marked agreement in the use of language elements, so much as by participation in a set of shared norms; these norms may be observed in overt types of evaluative behaviour and by the uniformity of abstract patterns of variation which are invariant in respect to particular levels of usage.

Summary

In this unit we have examined six different but related definitions of speech communities given by different authors at different times. The obvious fact is that scholars have diverse opinions about what a speech community is.

Post Test

Compare Bloomfield's definition with that of Gumperz.

References

- Bloomfield, L. (1933) *Language*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Gumperz, J. (1962) 'Types of Linguistics Community'. *Anthropological Linguistics* 4: 28 – 40.
- Gumperz, J. (1968) 'The Speech Community'. In *International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*. London: Macmillan, 381 – 6.
- Labov, W. (1972a) *Sociolinguistics Patterns*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Hockett, C. (1958) *A Course in Modern Linguistics*. New York: Macmillan.

LECTURE SIX

Bilingualism: Concepts and Definitions

Preamble

“It seems obvious that if one is to study the phenomenon of bilingualism we are forced to consider it as something relative. We must moreover include the use not only of two languages, but of a number of languages, we shall therefore consider bilingualism as the alternate use of two or more languages by the same individual. Mackey (1957:51)”

Introduction

The term ‘bilingualism’ originated from Latin ‘bi-’ meaning ‘two’ lingual meaning, ‘tongue’ and the suffix –‘ism’. Simply put, bilingualism refers to the capacity to make alternate (and sometimes mixed) use of two languages. Who is bilingual or not is difficult to define and requires consideration of a person’s ability in and use of two (or more) languages. This is because few bilinguals are equally proficient in both languages and tend to use their languages for different purposes in different domains or areas of language use.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. define of bilingualism as expressed by some scholars; and
2. explain reasons why these definitions have met with criticisms.

Pre-Test

1. How would you define ‘bilingualism’?
2. In your own view, who is a bilingual?

CONTENT

Bilingualism: Concepts and Definitions

The phenomenon of bilingualism has experienced a sharp rise in its investigation during the last twenty/thirty years (Ferguson 1966, Scotton 1972, Trudgill 1974, Parkin 1974, Ure 1979, Gambhir 1983, Fasold 1984, Beatens/Beardsmore 1986,

Oyetade 1990, 1992, 2003, 2004, Fakuade 1995, Blench 1998, Nercissians 2001, Yuka 2002, Davis et al 2003, Govindasmy and Nambiar 2003), but it is unfortunate that despite this surge of interest, the term is still easier to describe or classify than to define.

Over the years, various definitions that have been given for bilingualism have met with criticisms. This derives from the relative nature of the phenomenon and the different biases brought into its studies by scholars. However, the progress so far made in the study of bilingualism stems from the fact of its realization as a relative phenomenon.

In what follows in this section, we present some notable definitions of the phenomenon as discussed in the literature. Bilingualism has been narrowly and broadly defined by different scholars. We shall present the two extremes here starting with the narrow definitions.

Bloomfield (1933:56) has narrowly defined bilingualism as “the native-like control of two languages”. Haugen (1953:7) also considers bilingualism as beginning from the point where a person can produce complete meaningful utterances and pass for a native speaker in more than one linguistic environment. In a similar vein Theyry (1978) defined a true bilingual as “someone who is taken to be one of themselves by the members of two linguistic communities at roughly the same social and cultural levels” (cited in Grosjean 1982:146). Still in the spirit of equal mastery of two languages, Christopherson (1973:63) while defining bilingualism also stressed the habitual use of two languages to produce meaningful utterances with a range of proficiency by speakers to achieve their communicative need. Still in the spirit of narrow definition of bilingualism, Skutnabb-kangas (1984:91) came up with the following criteria as presented in table below:

Table

Criterion	Is the language the mother tongue	A speaker is bilingual who
Origin	First learned (the speaker has established her first lasting linguistic contact in)	a. Has learnt two languages in the family from native speakers from the beginning. b. Has used two languages in parallel as means of communication from beginning.
Competence (level of proficiency)	Best known	a. Complete mastery of two languages b. Native-like control of two languages. c. Equal mastery of two languages d. Can produce complete meaningful utterances in the other language. e. Has at least some knowledge and control of grammatical structure of the other language.
Function	Most used	Uses (or can use) two languages (in most situations) in accordance with her own wishes and

		the demands of the Community.
Attitudes: identity and identification	a. Identified with by self (internal identification) b. Identified by others as a native speaker of (extended identification).	c. Identifies herself as a bilingual with two languages and/or two cultures (or part of them.) d. Identified by others as a bilingual/as a native speaker of two languages.

Skutnabb – Kanga’s attempt at defining bilingualism made her to combine four criteria (origin, competence level, function and attitude) to define the concept.

Other definitions to be discussed presently can be said to be broad definitions of bilingualism. Weinreich (1953:5), one of the founding fathers of bilingual studies and a bilingual himself, for instance defined bilingualism as the practice of alternatively using two languages and the persons involved bilingual’. Following Weinreich, scholars like Mackey (1968), Muller et al (1981), and Appel and Muysken (1987) defined bilingualism as the alternate use of two or more languages by the same individual. Hammers and Blanc (1989) defined it as “the state of individual or a community characterized by the simultaneous presence of two languages. In the opinion of Halliday et al (1964) “bilingualism is recognized wherever a native speaker of one language makes use of a second language”

Again, Grosjean (1982:1) accepted this loose definition when he referred to it as the regular use of two languages. Macnamara (1969) and Baker on their part said that somebody should be called bilingual if he has some second language skills in one of the four modalities (speaking, listening, writing, reading), in addition to his first language skills. To Malherbe (1969) bilingualism is “the co-existence in the same individual or community of two distinct sets of linguistic symbols of communication (i. e. two languages)”. And Diebold (1961:111) is of the view that bilingualism should be extended to include a “passive knowledge of written language or any environment of the native language”. Thus, we have a flux of confusing definitions of bilingualism. We shall examine their apparent inadequacies in the next section.

Summary

You have been exposed to the concept of bilingualism in this lecture. Some definitions of the concept provided by scholars have been given. These have been grouped into two: narrow and broad.

Post–Test

1. Comment on the definitions of bilingualism given by the following scholars.
 - a. Bloomfield (1933)
 - b. Haugen (1953)

- c. Thiery (1978)
 - d. Grosjean (1987)
 - e. Muysken (1987)
 - f. Malherbe
2. How many scholars are mentioned in the first paragraph of this discussion?
 3. The term ‘bilingualism’ is definitionally elusive. Discuss.
 4. Skut nabb – kanpa’s attempt at defining bilingualism made her to combine four criteria of (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv).

References

- Dada, S. A. (2006): “Erusu – Yoruba Edoglossic Bibilingualism and Language Alternation in Akoko Southwestern Nigeria” A Ph.D thesis submitted to the Dept of Linguistics, University of Ibadan.

LECTURE SEVEN

A Critique of the Definitions of Bilingualism

Preamble

“A bilingual person is not necessarily an ambilingual (an individual with native competence in two languages) but a bilingual of specific type who along with other bilinguals of many different types, can be classified along a continuum. Some bilinguals possess very high levels of proficiency in both languages in written and the oral modes. Others display varying proficiencies in comprehension and/ or speaking skills depending on the immediate area of experience in which they are called upon to use their languages.”

(Valdes “Multilingualism” goggle site search 18/5/05).

Introduction

The quotation above succinctly captures the controversy surrounding the different definitions given by scholars on the concept ‘bilingualism’. ‘Who is a bilingual?’ is a very difficult question to answer. This lecture critically examines some of the definitions with the aim of identifying their inadequacies.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. write a critique on the definitions of ‘bilingualism’; and
2. objectively define ‘bilingualism’.

Pre-Test

Bilingualism cannot be defined in absolute terms. Discuss.

CONTENT

A Critique of the Definitions

It will be necessary at this point to re-examine each of these definitions. Suffice it to say for now that earlier scholars had noted the inadequacies inherent in these definitions. The loophole in a psychological definition like Bloomfield’s or Theyry’s is

two fold: (1) Problems of measurement seems insurmountable, (2) finding a general norm or standard for proficiency is impossible.

Other scholars who have pointed out the inadequacies of these ambilingual type of definition include Obanya (1973), and Adeniran (1977), Beardsmore (1982), Grosjean (1982) and Oyetade (1990) who contend that it is impossible to objectivize “native-like control” because native speakers of a language do not have the same degree of proficiency in their languages. In his own reaction to Bloomfield’s definition, Obanya wants to know how best to describe a person who knows a standard as well as the non-standard variety of the language. A situation Ferguson (1972) describes as diglossia. The reaction of the two specialists in this branch of linguistics quoted above succinctly reveals the inadequacies inherent in any definition of bilingualism couched in absolute terms.

Again, at the other extreme where bilingualism is loosely defined, inadequacies also abound. For instance, Weinreich (1953) and Mackey (1968) in their own definitions rather than emphasize fluency have emphasized usage. To Oyetade (1990:43), the problem with these definitions is that they do not state how well the two or more languages should be known and how much use is made or is to be made of the languages.

Thus, whichever perspective one looks at it, that is, whether we define bilingualism (1) biologically, as the languages which the mother speaks, and passes on to the child; (2) attitudinally, as the one the speaker identifies with, or (3) sociolinguistically, as the language a person uses most (Skutnabb-kangas 1984), bilingualism is difficult to define satisfactorily. Added to all these problems already reviewed is the measurement standards which neither are not even universally the same (cf Oyetade 2004) nor completely foolproof (cf. Webb 1992, Adegbija 1994, Fakuade 1996) for any objective results to be possible. Hence, the research result as regards a respondent’s knowledge of two languages may not necessarily tally with the respondent’s personal assessment of himself. Put in another way, the research’s result or conclusion may not necessarily capture the real situation as far as bilingualism is concerned. Just as the respondent’s self-report may not reflect the real situation.

In the words of Baker (1988), the initial issue is that of dimensions. To be called a bilingual, is it necessary to show literacy as well as oracy in two languages? Mackey (1962) suggests four basic language skills: listening, reading, speaking and writing. These skills can be further subdivided. For example, in speaking two languages, people may differ in terms of extent of vocabulary, correctness of grammar and pronunciation. As defined by Mackey (1962), there are at least twenty dimensions of language skill in each language. People have varying skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing a language. Within those four skills there are sub-skills in vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, meanings and style (Baker, 1988).

Baker went further to say that if we add to the many dimensions of language skills the context or domain of language usage, defining who is or not bilingual becomes even more difficult. While some may have ability in two languages, one language may

be restricted to the home. Each language may be in narrow or broad range of contexts. The context or domain of language usage defines when each language is spoken, to whom, where and why (Fishman, 1965).

The intractable nature of bilingualism as evident in the foregoing made it to be considered as a relative ability by scholars. According to Oyetade (2004:484) “this awareness of bilingualism as a relative phenomenon has been the frame of reference for research”. With this consideration granted, one is now in a position to measure it either at the level of the individual or the society.

Meanwhile, bilingualism shall be taken here to mean a fair or reasonable mastery of more than one language to the extent that such an individual is able to relate (i.e. communicate) well with members of two different ethnic groups. Hence, in line with earlier works Mackey (1956), Crystal (1987), Oyetade, (1990, 2004), Nsawir (1999), we shall consider bilingual ability as a continuum with bilinguals existing at different points along this continuum. Thus, at one extreme are monolinguals and at the other the theoretical ideal of a perfect, balanced bilingual.

Notice that bilingualism has been defined here from the individual’s point of view. This is necessarily so since its problem of definition is with the individual and not the bilingual society.

Summary

This lecture has given a detailed explanation on the inadequacies of some of the definitions of bilingualism examined. The simple conclusion we can draw here is that it is easier to define bilingualism from the societal perspective than to consider it at the level of individuals.

Post–Test

1. Having gone through the critique above, how would you define bilingualism?
2. Who is a ‘bilingual’?
3. Many scholars have been cited whose write-ups are not adequately captured. Find out what they wrote on.

References

- Dada, S. A. (2006): “Erusu – Yoruba Edoglossic Bilingualism and Language Alternation in Akoko Southwestern Nigeria” A Ph.D thesis submitted to the Dept of Linguistics, University of Ibadan.

LECTURE EIGHT

Causes of Bilingualism

Preamble

“Fasold (1984) asserts that India has 14 languages listed in the constitution, 13 of which are spoken by 2 million people. Nigeria has 3 major regional languages. Each region has its own multiplicity of languages some of which are classified as major and others minor. Canada has, in addition to English and French, Indian and Eskimo languages within its borders. Multilingual societies are not formed by conscious efforts of individuals in the communities but by accident of history.”

Introduction

Bilingualism / Multilingualism could evolve as a result of many factors. It is our intention in this lecture to examine some factors that give rise to it.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. examine some factors that give rise to bilingualism; and
2. discuss these factors briefly.

Pre-Test

In your opinion, what are the factors responsible for bilingualism?

CONTENT

Causes of Bilingualism

A multilingual or bilingual situation can develop for reasons which may be difficult to explain because of their obscure historical origins. Often the situation is of the people's own choosing but it may also be forced upon them by other circumstances. Some of which may include:

1. **Politics, Annexation, resettlement, and other political or military acts.**
People may become refugees after military invasion, the indigenous population

may have to learn the invader's language in order to prosper. The same applies to colonization. English Language found its way to Anglophone Africa as a result of Colonization.

2. **Religion:** People may wish to live in a country because of its religious significance, or to leave a country because of religious oppression. In either case, a new language may have to be learnt. Arabic is associated with Islam and Latin is associated with Roman Catholic.
3. **Culture:** A desire to identify with a particular ethnic culture or social group usually means learning the language of that group.
4. **Education:** Learning another language may be the only means of obtaining access to knowledge. This factor led to the universal use of Latin in the middle ages, and today motivates the international use of English.
5. **Economy:** Very large numbers of people have migrated to find jobs and to improve their standard of living. This factor alone accounts for most of the linguistic diversity of the U.S., and an increasing proportion of the bilingualism in present day Europe.
6. **Natural Disaster:** Floods, volcanic eruptions, famine and other such events can be the cause of major movement of population. New language contact situations then emerge as people are resettled.
7. **Natural Condition:** Where an individual, usually, but not inevitably a child, lives in an environment in which more than one language is used, naturally the individual is forced to be bilingual.

Summary

In this unit we have discussed some of the factors that could give rise to bilingualism. These factors have occasioned bilingualism in the time past and they are still responsible for this concept in the present dispensation.

Post-Test

1. List seven factors that are responsible for bilingualism
2. Discuss five of them
3. How many languages are listed in the constitution of India?
4. How many of them are spoken by 2 million people?

Reference

Fadoro, J. O. (2008) *Course Material for LIN 172* Published by DLC.

LECTURE NINE

Typological Classification of Bilingualism

Preamble

“It is gratifying to note that what definitions could not do, typological classification has taken care of it. From the preceding section, it is patently clear that definitions do not make bilingualism easy to conceptualize. Indeed, it is evident in the literature on bilingualism that deciding exactly, who is or is not bilingual is problematic. Scholars have noted that the advantage of typology is that it enables us to work within a clear frame of reference in large field. It reduces the danger of overgeneralization. Dada (2006).”

Introduction

The typology of bilingualism is usually discussed in bipolar terms which are descriptive of features of bilingualism in an individual or in a community. In this lecture we shall examine briefly the following types of bilingualism:

Let us look at the tree diagram below. It gives us a clear picture of typological classifications of bilingualism before the discussion.

1. Societal versus individual bilingualism
2. Stable versus unstable bilingualism
3. Elitist versus mass bilingualism
4. Vehicular versus cultural bilingualism
5. Horizontal versus vertical bilingualism
6. Oral versus literate bilingualism
7. Additive versus subtractive bilingualism
8. Endoglossic versus exoglossic bilingualism
9. Symmetrical versus asymmetrical bilingualism

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

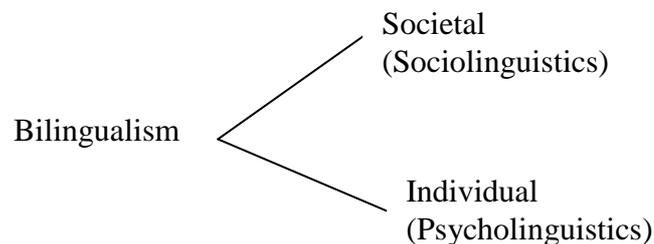
1. list the different typologies of bilingualism as shown above; and
2. explain them briefly

Pre-Test

List three types of bilingualism and discuss them briefly.

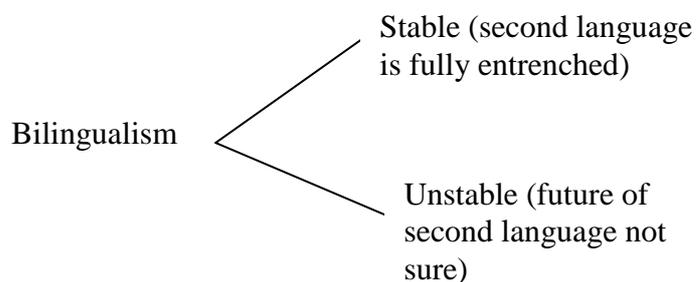
CONTENT

1. Societal versus individual bilingualism:



Societal bilingualism refers to a situation whereby a society uses two or more languages for the purposes of communication. Whereas individual bilingualism refers to a situation whereby an individual uses two or more languages for the purpose of communication. Joshua Fishman sees societal bilingualism as a sociolinguistic phenomenon, in that, it is possible to have a society in which two languages are used but where relatively few individuals are actually bilingual. He refers to individual bilingualism as a psycho-linguistic phenomenon in that it is the existence in the mind of an individual of two (native) languages.

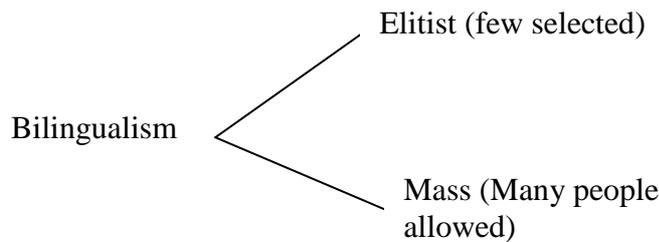
2. Stable versus unstable bilingualism:



The distinction between stable and unstable bilingualism is used to describe a stage in the development of bilingualism in a community. In an unstable bilingualism, the second language is just making its contact with the first language of the host

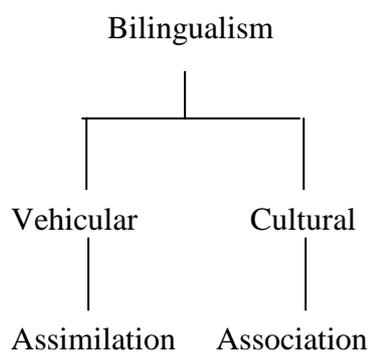
community. That is, the second language has not been entrenched into this new community due to factors such as, socio-economic, cultural and political factors. Bilingualism becomes stable in a community by the time the factors mentioned above act in favour of the second language to the extent that the community now adopts it as their second language.

3. Elitist versus mass bilingualism:



We have elitist bilingualism when a few speakers are trained in a foreign language in addition to their mother tongue in order for this set of people to be used in the service of their nation. Examples of this are Russia, in the past where French was the second language of the elite and Nigeria, during the colonial regime when few Nigerians were trained in English to function as civil servants. Mass bilingualism refers to a larger set of people who are illiterates but are able to speak two indigenous languages. This kind of bilingualism is largely unplanned. Examples of this kind could be found in Nigeria. For instance in Ondo State, most people in Akoko area are bilingual in their mother tongues and Yoruba as the official language.

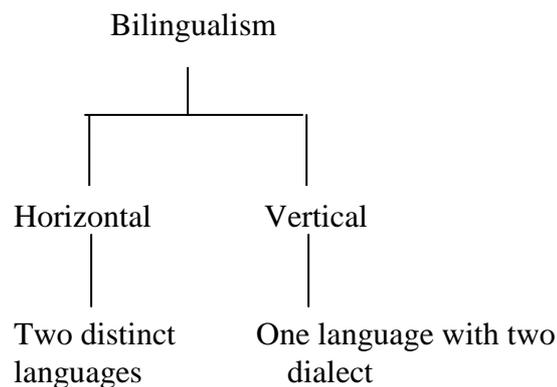
4. Vehicular versus cultural bilingualism:



Vehicular bilingualism refers to a limited knowledge of a second language. It arises in a situation of contact, where one of the languages in contact is used for very limited purposes or for minimal transactions. Cultural bilingualism is comprehensive, in that

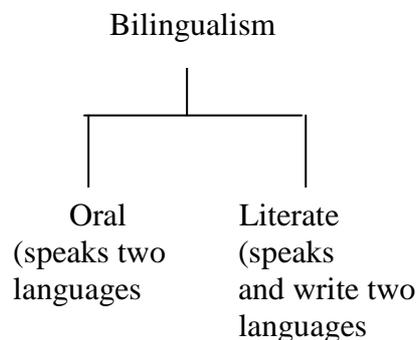
the second language is acquired as a means of entry into total culture related language. Therefore, the language is well mastered such that the bilingual can pass for a monolingual speaker of the language. Vehicular bilingualism is common among older generations of immigrants while their children may exhibit cultural bilingualism. During the colonial days, the policy of assimilation was introduced in francophone African countries, whereas, the policy of association was introduced to Anglophone African countries. The former produced cultural bilinguals like Leopold Sendar Senghor while the latter produced vehicular bilinguals.

5. Horizontal versus vertical bilingualism:



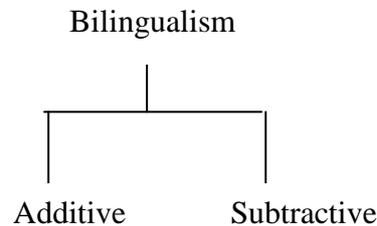
Horizontal bilingualism, according to Pohl (1965) describes a situation where two distinct languages share the same official, cultural and social status in a community. An example is Canada where only English and French are recognized officially. Vertical bilingualism occurs when a speaker can use a standard language together with a distinct but related dialect. For instance, I can speak the standard Yoruba as well as the Ijesa dialect of Yoruba.

6. Oral versus literate bilingualism:



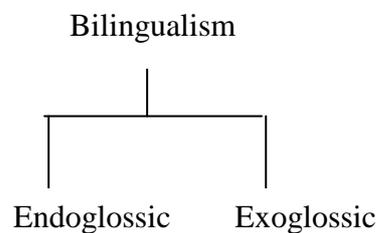
Oral bilingualism refers to a situation in which the bilingual speaks his two languages but has no literacy skill in one or both of them. The literate bilingual, on the other hand, does not only speak both languages but also reads and writes in them.

7. Additive versus subtractive bilingualism:



Additive bilingualism occurs when conditions favour the development and maintenance of the mother tongue while permitting the learning and use of a second language. Whereas in subtractive bilingualism a second language has eventually replaced a first language. Yuka (2002) aptly captures the distinction when he observes that when a child learns a second language in addition to his mother tongue, reference is made to additive bilingualism, but when a child learns a second language at the cost of his first language (L_1) then that is subtractive bilingualism. Subtractive bilingualism bestows upon the preferred L_2 the status of a killer language.

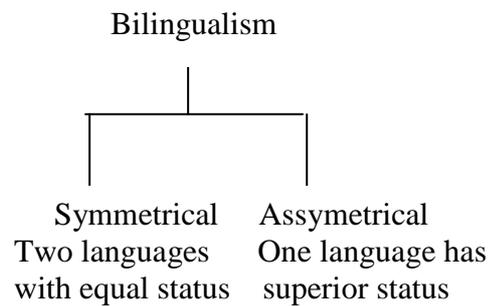
8. Endoglossic versus exoglossic bilingualism:



Endoglossic bilingualism involves the learning of two indigenous languages while exoglossic bilingualism refers to bilingualism involving two foreign languages.

Oyetade (1990, 1992) refers to a situation in which one indigenous and one foreign language are learnt as semi-exoglossic bilingualism. This is the situation in Nigeria, where the mother tongue is acquired as the first language while English is learnt in school as the second language.

9. Symmetrical versus asymmetrical bi/multilingualism:



In symmetrical bi/multilingualism, all the languages involved have equal status. On the other hand, in asymmetrical bi-/multilingualism, at least one of the languages involved has more status than the others. Canada and Cameroon operate symmetrical bi-lingualism, because both English and French have official status.

Summary

We have exposed you to the bipolar classifications of bilingualism in this unit. Nine groups have been classified and explained. If we split the nine into separate parts, we have eighteen components.

Post-Test

1. Enumerate the nine typologies of bilingualism.
2. Discuss six of them.

References

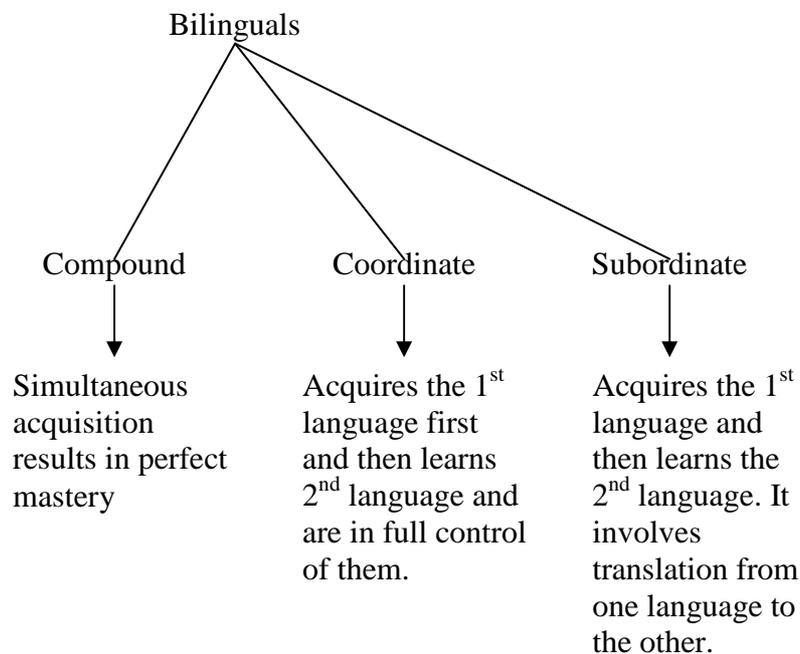
- Oyetade, S.O. (2002) “Diglossia with ‘Bi-lingualism’. Language choice in Nigeria composite community”.
- Dada, S.A. (2006) Erusu Yoruba-Endoglossic Bi-lingualism and language Alternation in Akoko.

LECTURE TEN

Types of Individual Bilingualism

Introduction

In unit six, we looked at bipolar classifications of bilingualism. In this unit we want to concentrate on individual bilingualism, which according to scholars can be grouped into three main types:



Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. identify the three types of bilinguals; and
2. discuss and exemplify them.

CONTENT

1. **Compound bilinguals:** Ervine and Osgood (1954:139-146) describe a compound bilingual as one who learns the two languages in question at the

same time and is in control of them. In other words, it refers to simultaneous acquisition of L₁ and L₂. In Akwa Ibom and Cross River States of Nigeria, the Ibibio use Ibibio language in an Ibibio audience, while Efik is used in mixed audience and taught as a subject in schools. A child raised in this type of environment will be a compound bilingual because he or she will have a good command of the two languages. In Rivers State, the child's first language competes with the Nigerian Pidgin both in formal and informal situations.

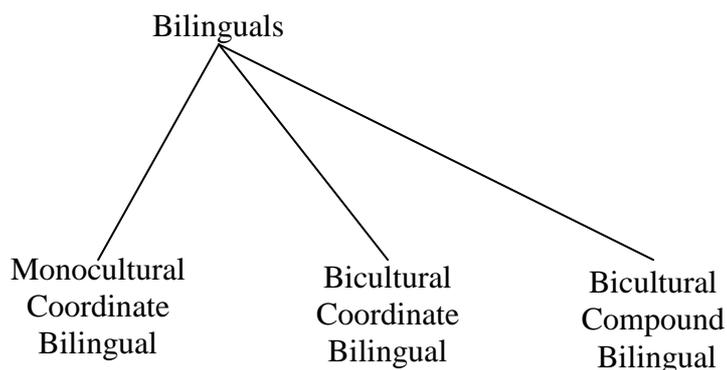
2. **Coordinate bilinguals:** In the case of coordinate bilinguals, the situation is different. The individual acquires the two languages at different times, one before the other, yet, develops competence in both. This is common in Nigeria, where an individual grows up speaking his mother tongue and learns English as L₂. In Northern Nigeria, Hausa is the official language and also a lingua franca. Hausa is L₂ and the various ethnic languages e.g. Zarma, Kanuri, Fulfulde, etc are L₁ in their territories. In Oke-Agbe (Ondo State) Yoruba is the official language and L₂ of the people, whereas, Afa, Udo, Aje and Oge are the mother tongues of the people.
3. **Subordinate bilingualism:** This involves a process of 'translation from one language (the dominant language) into the subordinate language. This is done at the bilingual's superficial (though not conscious) level of psychological programming of utterances from one language to the other. This kind of bilingualism occurs in situations where one language dominates the other surrounding languages. Scholars believe that subordinate bilingualism also involves a change in personality. It is said that the subordinate bilingual becomes schizophrenic (Skitsa'frenik) because he sees himself as a different person of different nationality or state other than the original one as a result of the new language he now speaks. An example here is found in Wole Soyinka's "The Lion and the Jewel" in the character of the man 'teacher'. It is common to find expressions commonly captioned as Igbo English, Yoruba English, etc. being used by such individuals.

Look at the following sentences:

1. 'This was the vehicle I followed to come' meaning 'this was the vehicle that brought me' (Yoruba – *Okò tí mo bá wá nìyí*).
2. 'Don't mind them; they are looking for what they will eat'. (*má dà á wọn lóhùn ǹ̀kan tí wọn máa jẹ̀ ní wọn ñ wá*)

This statement was made by a Nigerian at an international conference. It was said to have generated a lot of controversies among the participants, especially the Europeans, who were said to have responded in astonishment: "who is talking about food here".

When the relationship between language choice and culture is considered, it is possible to have.



1. The monocultural coordinate Bilingual learns his second language (L₂) for utilitarian purpose e.g. education or the pursuit of research in academic subjects.
2. The Bicultural coordinate bilingual imbibes the culture of the second language. He likes L₂ so much that he wants to be like the people from L₂ speech community. He dresses, eats, talks and does everything like them.
3. The Bicultural compound Bilingual acquires two languages as well as two cultures simultaneously.

Summary

We have identified three types of bilinguals in this unit. These are compound, coordinate and subordinate bilinguals. We have explained and exemplified them briefly. We have also looked at three types of bilinguals in terms of the relationship between language choice and culture.

Post-Test

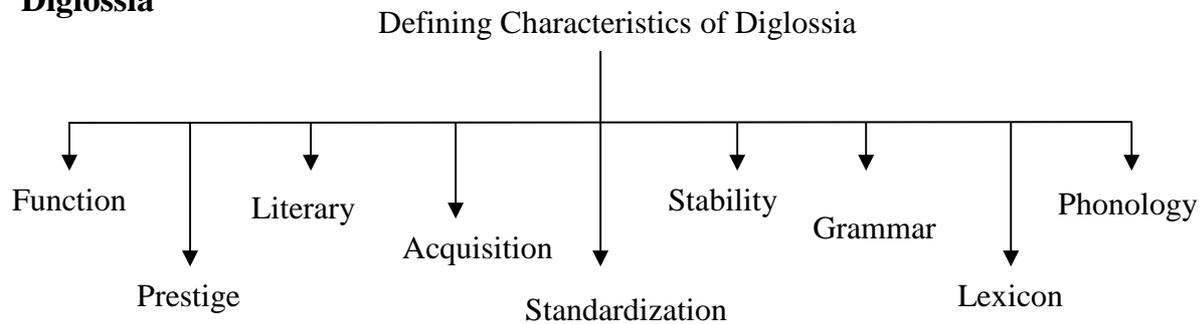
1. Discuss the following types of bilinguals:
 - a. Compound
 - b. Coordinate
 - c. Subordinate
2. Which category do you as a person belong to? Explain
3. When the relationship between language and culture is involved what do we have as a result?

References

- Oyetade, S.O. (2002) “Diglossia with ‘Bi-lingualism’. Language choice in Nigeria composite community”.
- Dada, S.A. (2006) Erusu Yoruba-Endoglossic Bi-lingualism and language Alternation in Akoko.

LECTURE ELEVEN

Diglossia



Preamble

Diglossia is a relatively stable language situation to which in addition to the primary dialects of the language (which may include a standard or regional standards), there is a very divergent, highly codified (often grammatically more complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, either of an earlier period or in another, largely learnt by formal education and is used for most written and formal spoken purposes, but is not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation.

Introduction

The term 'diglossia' was introduced into the English-language literature on sociolinguistics by Charles Ferguson (1959) in order to describe the situation found in places like Greece, the Arabic – speaking world in general, German – speaking Switzerland and the island of Haiti – a list which can easily be extended

(Hudson 1994). In all these societies there are two distinct varieties sufficiently distinct for lay people to call them separate languages, of which one is used only on formal and public occasions while the other is used by everybody under normal everyday circumstances. The two varieties are normally called 'High' and 'low' or 'standard' and 'vernacular'. This unit examines the concept 'diglossia' briefly and cites examples of countries that are believed to be strictly diglossic. Different communities in Nigeria present different linguistic configuration – at the national level English indigenous languages – English – official purposes / formal purposes whereas indigenous languages for informal – lower function English vs. Pidgin in Nigeria.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. explain the term 'diglossia'; and
2. cite examples of countries that are diglossic.

Pre-Test

1. Having read the preamble and the introduction to this lecture, how would you define 'diglossia'?
2. What are the defining characteristics of diglossia?
(a) Function (ii) Prestige (iii) Literary heritage (iv) Acquisition
(v) Standardization (vi) Stability (vii) Grammar (viii) Lexicon (ix) Phonology

CONTENT

Diglossia refers to marked specialization of function between two language varieties in a single speech Community. The word was derived from Greek 'diglossos' – with two tongues. It was first used in English by Charles Ferguson (1958). It is used to refer to a situation whereby two or more varieties of language are used for different purposes in the same community.

There is a clear difference in prestige between the two language varieties: one, called High (or H), enjoys great prestige, while the other called Low (or L), enjoys little or no prestige; in extreme cases, speakers may deny the very existence of L. In all cases, L is the mother tongue of all or most speakers, while H is learned only through formal education. Speakers of limited education may have a very inadequate command of H and they may even have trouble understanding it.

The specialization of function is highly predictable from one diglossic society to another. The L variety is used for ordinary conversation and for the more popular types of entertainment (such as soap operas and commentary on sports events); it is rarely written, and may well lack a recognized written form. However, it may be used in comic strips, in captions to political cartoons, in scurrilous publications, and perhaps in personal letters. The H variety is used in newspapers and most other publications, for all serious literature for University lectures, for news broadcast and other formal types of radio and television broadcasts, and (usually) for religious purposes.

Among the diglossic societies identified several years ago were:

- Greece – H = *Katharevusa*, a kind of fake classical Greek
L = *Dhimotiki*, or ordinary spoken Greek
- German Switzerland – H = Standard German, L = Swiss German.
- The Arab countries – H = the classical Arabic of the Koran, L = Ordinary spoken Arabic.

- Paraguay – H = Spanish, L = *Guarani*, the mother tongue of most of the population and a native American Language.

Note that Fishman applies the term to cover the use of two different languages for two different functions e.g. In Nigeria, English functions as High, the indigenous languages function as low.

Summary

This unit has exposed you to the concept diglossia. Four major examples of diglossic societies identified by scholars have also been cited. It is necessary before rounding off this unit to explain as hinted above that scholars like Joshua Fishman apply the term to cover the use of two different languages for two different functions. In other words, a country like Nigeria, in which English language is used in most of the formal settings while the indigenous languages are reserved for the informal settings could pass as a diglossic society. We can also think of the Nigerian indigenous languages in which the ‘standard’ (High) forms are used formally while their ‘dialects’ (Non-standard’ or ‘Low’) are used informally.

Post-Test

1. What is diglossia?
2. Cite some examples of diglossic societies as well as the distribution of the languages used.

References

- Ferguson, C. (1959) ‘Diglossia’. *Word* 15:325 – 40
Hudson, R. A. (1996): *Sociolinguistics*. Cambridge University Press

LECTURE TWELVE

Code Switching and Code Mixing

Preamble

“When we can recognize varieties as clearly distinct languages (for example Yoruba and Igbo), to what extent do their speakers keep them separate? This brings about two questions: do the speakers keep them separate in speech? And do they keep them separate as language system?”

Introduction

Code switching is the inevitable consequence of bilingualism or more generally, multilingualism. Anyone who speaks more than one language chooses between them according to circumstances. The first consideration is which language will be comprehensible to the person addressed; usually, speakers choose a language which the other person can understand. What about members of a community where everybody speaks the same range of languages? Languages are always used in different circumstances, and the choice is always controlled by social rules. Typically one language is reserved exclusively for use at home and another is used in the wider community, for example, when shopping (Hudson 1996:51). This lecture examines the concept of code mixing and switching.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. Explain code mixing and code switching;
2. Cite examples of speeches in which mixing and switching of codes are involved.
3. Briefly discuss the different types of code mixing and switching.
4. With copious examples, differentiate between code mixing and code switching.
5. Is it possible for a monolingual to code mix or code switch? With adequate examples, discuss.

Pre-Test

1. How would you define 'code switching' and 'code mixing'?
2. Cite some examples

CONTENT

Sociolinguists use the term code to denote any identifiable speech variety including both a particular language and a particular variety (dialect) of language. The term code-switching emphasizes movement from one language to another in conversation while code-mixing and switching probably occur to some extent in the speech of all bilinguals, so that there is a sense in which a person capable of using two languages, A and B, has three systems available for use: A, B and C. A and B represent the two distinct languages or codes while C is a kind of hybrid (mixture) of A and B.

Code Mixing

The term code mixing was first introduced in West Africa by Ansre (1971). He referred to it as 'inserting varying chunks of English into the performance of the West African Languages. Simply put, it is the mixture of two or more languages within a single sentence. It comprises various linguistic units such as affixes, words, phrases and clauses from two distinct grammatical systems within sentence and speech events. Code mixing can also be defined as the alternate use of two or more languages within the same sentence. Banjo (1982:18) asserts that code mixing may be defined as a speech act in which utterances contain elements of language 'A' and 'B'. In code mixing the switch from one language to the other takes place within a single sentence. Let us look at the following examples

English & Yoruba

1. Ó máa ń behave bí ẹni tí kò normal at times.
(He sometimes behaves like somebody who is not normal)
2. Wọ̀n ò arrest any person
(They did not arrest any person)
3. Mo like ẹ gan-an ni
(I like you very much)

English and Igbo

1. Onwu Ike abughi my portion
(Sudden death is not my portion)

2. Backward never forward ever bu nke nwa Chineke
(Backward never forward ever is the heritage of a child of God)
3. The only man nke nwere industry ebe ana-akpu nwa.
(The only man that has industry where they produce babies)

Code Switching

Code switching has been described as the alternative use of two or more languages, within a conversation. Gumpers (1982:97) defines code switching as the Juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passage of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems. Most frequently, the alternation takes the form of two subsequent sentences as when a speaker uses a second language either to reiterate his message or to reply some one's statement. The difference between code mixing and code switching is that in the former (code mixing), two languages or two different dialects of the same language are mixed together within sentence boundary that is within a single sentence whereas in the latter (code switching) a complete sentence is made in one language while another sentence is made in another language. Let us look at some examples of code switching.

English & Yoruba

- i. Mo gbó gbogbo ohun tó sọ. I just pretended
(I heard everything he said. I just presented)
- ii. I gave it to him. Inú è dún gan-an
(I gave it to him. He was very happy)
- iii. All I have is given to me by God. Ọlórún dárá sími
(All I have is given to me by God. God is good to me)

English and Igbo

- i. God of Elijah send down fire. Agu nke Judah Zidata oku
(God of Elijah send down fire. Lion of Judah send down fire)
- ii. I have never seen you disappointing me. Mbge mu no nahuhu I dighi agbanwere mu
(I have never seen you disappointing me. When I am in trouble, you've never changed)

Code mixing is intra-sentential while code-switching is inter-sentential. Bokamba describes code mixing as the embedding of various linguistic units – affixes, words, phrases and changes from 2 grammatical systems within the same sentence and speech event.

Why do people codeswitch?

- expressive function
- directive function
- phatic function
- poetic function
- metalinguistic function

In the next unit we shall examine the different types of mixing and switching.

Summary

In this lecture we have examined two related concepts: ‘Code mixing’ and ‘code switching’. These practices are the consequence of language contact, in which case, a user of language has access to two or more languages. In other words, code mixing and switching are used by bilinguals or polyglots. In attempting to differentiate between the two concepts, we have cited several examples from English and Yoruba on the one hand and English and Igbo on the other hand.

Post–Test

1. What is code mixing?
2. What is Code Switching?
3. Differentiate between the two and give some examples to illustrate your discussion.

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LECTURE THIRTEEN

Functions of Code Switching

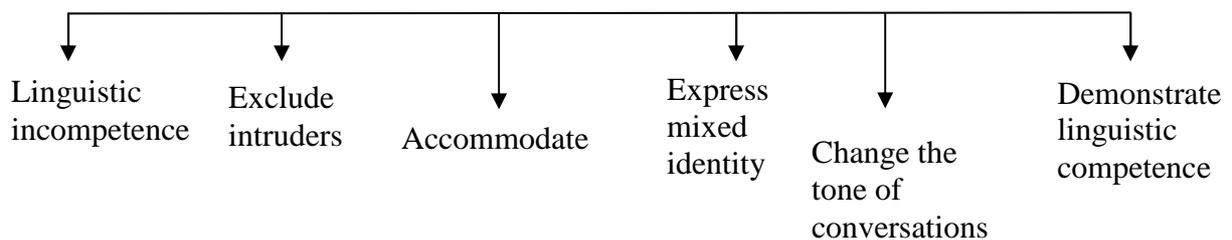
Preamble

Code-switching is a universal linguistic phenomenon. It has been observed in the language behaviour of Filipino-English bilinguals of Philippines (Lande et al., 1979), of Maltese – English bilinguals in Mair (Schweda, 1980), of Spanish – English bilinguals of the United States of America (Lipski, 1982), of Punjabi Sikh community, Malaysians who use a mixed code that consists of three languages (David et al., 2003). In Nigeria, code-switching is evident in the speech of the various communities in the country. For instance, Nwadike (1981), Brann (1978), Ahukanna (1990) among others, all observed this phenomenon in the language behaviour of Igbo-English bilinguals, while Banjo 1996 and Lamidi (2003) among others work on code-switching in the speech behaviour of Yoruba – English bilinguals. Dada (2006:63).

Introduction

Scholars have discussed the reasons why people switch between languages in the course of a single conversation. Such scholarly works include: Gumperz (1976), Gumperz and Hernandez-Chavez, (1975), Scotton (1979), Poplack (1980), Myers-Scotton (1993, 1998, 2004). It is our goal in this unit to examine some of the reasons why bilinguals/polyglots code switch.

Let us look at the tree diagram below:



Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. Explain why people code switch; and
2. Illustrate to support why people code switch.

Pre-Test

1. As a bilingual/polyglot, do you code switch?
2. If, your response to (i) above is 'yes', why?

CONTENT

Research has shown that bilinguals alternate between two languages for much the same reason that monolinguals select among different styles of a single language. For instance, the social pressures which would make a monolingual change from colloquial to formal or technical styles may lead a bilingual to shift from one language to another

The following points can be adduced as reasons behind code-switching:

1. Linguistic incompetence or lack of facility in that language on a certain subject. Since a given subject is better discussed in one language rather than the other, the introduction of such a subject can lead to switch. Third World countries employ the same pattern in discourse about technical subjects in their languages. Below is an Igbo-English bilingual example: Governor Imo state *ga-ekuru okwu na radio na television taa*. (The Governor of Imo state will broadcast on radio and television today). (Ahukanna 1990: 184)
2. To exclude an intruder in the course of a discourse. An example of this is when immigrant parents (say an Ibo couple in a place like Ibadan) use their language with their children in the presence of a stranger from the host community.
3. To accommodate (i. e. the opposite of point 2) someone who has just joined in a conversation by using his language. Myers - Scotton (2000) cited many instances, while in western Kenya for field work, in which her interlocutors would shift from Swahili to English immediately they wanted to attend to her.
4. Speaker code-switch to express a mixed identity. Appel and Muysken (1990) cited fluent Spanish-English bilingual Puerto Ricans in New York as an example of people whose conversation are full of code-switching. This is a mode of speech by itself. Thus, individual switches no longer have a discourse function.
5. Another type called metaphorical switching by Gumperz and Hernandez Chavez (1975) is used to indicate a change in the tone of the conversation. (Example is given by Sebba and Wotlon (1981) on London .Jamaican and London English. That is, a stretch of basically Jamaican discourse is interrupted by an English 'meta-comment'. Metaphorical code-switching is like dialect-shift or style-shift noticeable in monoglots.
6. Code-switching may take place as a show of knowledge. That is, speakers may switch between different codes to impress the other participants with a show of linguistic skills (Section, 1979, in Appel and Muysken, 1990). Examples are found in the public domain: performers, market salespeople For example, while writing on switching between English and Ibibio in Nigeria, Essien (1995) points out how

code switching can serve a social function in this community in that there is a class of successful and rich business people who usually have little or no Western education - the so ~ called nouveaux riches - but who, through association with the so - called high society people and participation in business ventures have acquired some English. For such people he states further code - mixing is a wonderful opportunity to camouflage.

Summary

In this unit, we have given six reasons why people switch between languages in conversation. These reasons are not peculiar to any speech community, they have universal applications. Since you as an individual sometimes code switch, try and reflect on your motive, goal and objective for code switching. You may even end up arriving at other reasons which are not among the ones listed above.

Post-Test

1. Why do people switch between languages?
2. Why do you (as an individual) code mix and code switch?

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- Dada, S.A. (2006) *Erushu-Yoruba Endoglossic Bilingualism and Language Alternation in Akoko South Western Nigeria*, Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, University of Ibadan, Ibadan.
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LECTURE FOURTEEN

Types of Code Mixing and Code Switching

Preamble

Everyone in the village of Sauris, in northern Italy, spoke German within the family, Saurian (a dialect of Italian) informally within the village and standard Italian to outsiders and in more formal village settings (school, church, work). Because of this division of labour, each individual could expect to switch codes (i.e. languages) several times in the course of a day. Hudson (1996: 52).

In my village, the educated ones speak Ijẹṣa (a dialect of Yoruba) at home, the standard Yoruba to outsiders and then English in more formal settings e.g. school. This is a classic example of diglossia (Oluwadọṛọ, J. O. 2014))Class note)

Introduction

Code mixing and switching have been classified by scholars differently depending on different perspectives. It is our aim here to examine some of the different types that have been identified by scholars.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. list the different types of code mixing and switching; and
2. discuss and exemplify them.

Pre-Test

1. Mention three types of code switching and mixing
2. Discuss any two of them and cite copious examples.

Let us look at the tree diagram below:

CONTENT

We shall discuss and exemplify the following types of code mixing and switching in this unit: Tag switching, intra-word switching, intra-sentential switching, inter-sentential switching, intra-lingual and inter-lingual switching.

1. Tag switching: This is a process in which tags and certain set of phrases in one language are inserted into an utterance otherwise in another language.

Examples:

English and Yoruba

- i. She is a beautiful lady, *àbí bẹ̀ẹ̀kọ̀?*
(Isn't she?)
- ii *Adé kò lọ sí oko*, did he?
(Adé did not go to farm, did he?)

English and Igbo

He is a gentleman. (*O kwa ya? Isn't he?*)

She did not fetch water, *O churu?* (did she?)

2. Intraword Switching: In this kind of switching, a change occurs within a word boundary. That is in a single word, two codes are mixed. Let us look at the following examples:

Yoruba and English

- i) *Gbadunly*
 - ii) *Terunly*
- } both meaning
} 'satisfactorily'
- iii) Kobalise (to implicate)
 - iv) Intromímò (introduction)

Here we have the Yoruba word 'gbádùn' meaning 'enjoy' and 'Tẹ̀rùn' Yoruba word for 'satisfy'. Then we have the suffix '-ly', which is an 'adverbial marker in English'.

There is also the word 'kobalize', as in '*Joo ma 'kobalize' me*', which means 'please, don't 'implicate' me'.

Nigerians especially the journalists, have through this process coined out many words, especially from names. Examples of these are:

‘Shonekanlize’ from ‘Shonekan’, the name of the former interim President of Nigeria.

‘Jangedize’ from ‘Jangede’, the first victim of the Sharia law in Northern Nigeria, whose hand was amputated for stealing a goat.

‘Mobutulize’ and ‘Kabilize’ from ‘Mobutu’ and ‘Kabila’ former Presidents of Congo Republic. “He who knows how to mobutulise himself to power will eventually be kabilised out of power.” (Said about Mobutu Sesezeko and Joseph Kabila after the former’s overthrow).

All these are examples of intraword switching.

3. Intrasentential switching: This occurs within the sentence boundary. (Code mixing) Examples:

English and Igbo

- a. Among other gods, *I ma na I puru iche?*
(Among other gods, do you know you’re different?)
- b. In every situation *na-aga meto aha gi.*
(In every situation, I will praise your name)

Yoruba and English

- a. *Omọ yẹn ò serious rará*
(The boy/girl is not serious at all)
 - b. *Mo ti complete assignment mi*
(I have completed my assignment)
4. Intersentential: This occurs when switching takes place at clause or sentence boundary. That is each sentence is made in a different language.
Examples are:

English and Yoruba

- a. I feel alright. London *la wa*
(I feel alright. We are in London)
- b. I can’t just stop thinking about you. *Olólùfẹ mi Òtútù n mú mi, bọwálé*
(my lover, I am feeling cold, come home).

English Igbo

- a. You are my good shepherd. *I na-azu mu dika aturu* (you train me like a sheep).
Finally, code mixing or switching can be intralingual or interlingual.

5. It is intralingual, if two varieties (dialects) of the same language are involved for instance Ijẹṣa and standard Yoruba e.g.
 - i. *Yè sí erè? Taa ló tó bẹ̀ẹ̀?*
(Who is it? Who can dare me?)
 - ii. *Kàrí ọ rán. Mo bá Jẹ̀ṣà ọ̀sọ̀rò*
(Where are you? I celebrate with Ijẹṣa).
6. It is interlingual when two different languages are involved e.g. English and Yoruba, Yoruba and Igbo, Hausa and Efik, etc
Examples:
 - i. I came back very tired. *Mo sùn lẹ̀ pátápátá* (I slept totally) (English and Yoruba).
 - ii. Rock of ages, *chi n ke ji ndu mu* (God that holds my life). (English and Igbo).

Summary

We have looked at six different types of code mixing and switching above. We have cited copious examples in English, Yoruba and Igbo to support our explanations.

Post Test

1. Mention six types of code mixing and switching.
2. Discuss any five of them.
3. Cite copious examples to support your discussions.

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LECTURE FIFTEEN

Language Maintenance and Shift Processes

- The society collectively continue to use its language even in the face of onslaught of another language – Language maintenance.
- The society collectively decides to abandon/give up its language in preference of another language – Language shift.

Preamble

"In 1964, the US linguist, Joshua, A. Fishman introduced the dual notion- 'language maintenance' and 'language shift' (LMLS) to discuss the situation of the minority language or small national language faced with pressures related to a much bigger national or international language. To the latter, of which English is the pre-eminent example, he named it language of Wider Communication (LWC).

(See Fishman, J.A. Language and Ethnicity in Minority Socio-linguistic Perspective).

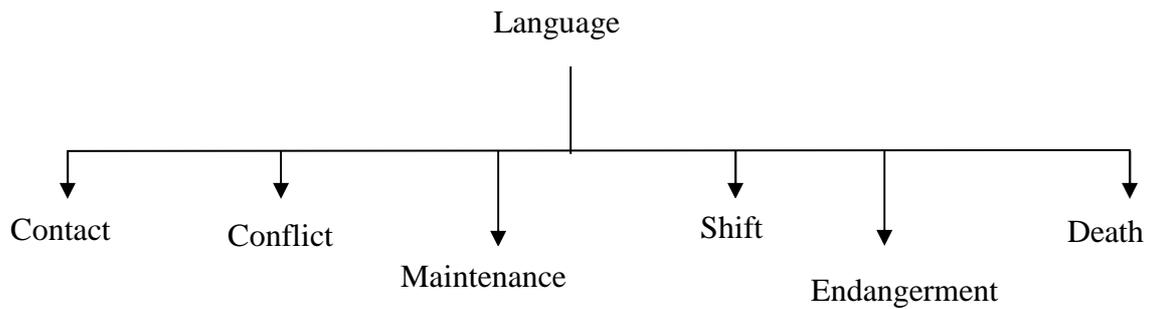
Introduction

A distinction is drawn between cases where one language is preserved despite the influence of powerful neighbours (language maintenance) and cases where a language has yielded to this influence, and speakers have assimilated to the dominant culture (language shift). Other possibilities include extensive vocabulary borrowing by one of the languages, or the emergence of a new 'hybrid' as a result of the contact, as with Pidgins and Creoles. Lastly, as shown by the history of the Celtic languages, the contact can lead to a language being completely eliminated (language death).

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. explain the concepts language maintenance, language shift and language death; and
2. cite copious instances of these processes.



Pre-Test

What do you understand by the following concepts?

1. Language maintenance
2. Language shift
3. Language death

CONTENT

When languages come in contact, a number of things which are however impossible to generalise actually happen. Languages, like people, may succumb to onslaught from one another. Thus, there is need to examine (issues such as language maintenance, shift and death in this unit.

In sociolinguistic circles, a distinction is usually made between language maintenance and language shift. When two languages come in contact and somehow, the two manage to survive the contact, we talk of language maintenance, in that; the minor language has survived the influence of the major one.

Fakuade (1996, 1997) examined the language contact situation between two (the Bachama and the Mbula) contiguous communities in Numan and Demsa Local Government Areas of Adamawa State of Nigeria and discovered that language maintenance is the major feature of this language situation. Simply because Mbula informants are of the view that their mother tongue is the principal carrier of their culture and identity: they rely upon it as a symbol of ethnic identity and a defining value which acts as a prerequisite for authentic group membership among the Mbula.

The Polish, the Baltic and the Greek peoples can be regarded as other examples of such groups in Europe, as can the French in Quebec (McRae 1989:9). With regard to this language-centered culture, according to McRae, language is more than the medium of communication and self-expression. Thus their survival in a viable form is deemed by the group members to depend on the preservation of their mother tongue.

However, when a language yields to the consuming influence of another language thereby making its speakers to assimilate to this dominant language, we have a case of language shift. While writing on the factors responsible for language shifts in communities, Casule (1998:105) cited in Lamidi (2003:9) has the following to say: “*when a language is extricated from its natural setting and surrounding or is experiencing a reduction of its domains of use to a dominant language, it undergoes a*

process of passivization and change, which ultimately may lead to language shift or loss. Moreover, the shift always almost is from a weak language to the stronger language and is an active process of language displacement.”

Brenzinger (1995:282) says that language contact is a prerequisite for language shift. Fakuade (2001) examined instances of language shift in Bauchi, Gombe, Adamawa and Taraba States of Nigeria. For Ichen language in Donga Local Government Area, Fakuade reported that 36.2% of Ichen still speak their mother tongue. The remaining 63.8% of Ichen in Jukun and Donga Local Government Areas now speak Jukun. In a similar study carried out in Bauchi Local Government Area, Samu (1991) showed that all but one Butawa respondents communicate only in Hausa in the home. Thus, the Butawa are most likely to use Hausa in all domains of communication.

The Butawa's experience is similar to the Krenak's in South Eastern Brazil. Only a handful of elders among the 70 or so tribesmen still speak their mother tongue. Originally a tribe of hunter ~ gatherers, the Krenak were expelled from their land and herded into reserves by government agents intent on making more space for farming. Up till the 1950's, Catholic Missionaries forbade them to perform rituals or speak their own language. The linguistic ban, combined with their tribe's expulsion from its traditional lands devastated the oral transmission of tribal culture (Geary 1997: 40 in Fakuade 2001:17).

Craig (1995:258) says that language death refers to the complete disappearance of a language. The death of a language, with rare exceptions, cannot be the result of the sudden death of a whole community of speakers. More often, death comes by in a situation of languages in contact and shifting bilingualism. The sociolinguists interest resides more in studying the causes and circumstances of this death.

Dorian (1981:51; 1986:74) argues that language death may appear to be sudden but may in fact occur as the result of a long period of gestation. It typically involves a case of sudden shift from a minority language to a dominant language after centuries of apparent strong survival. One major cause of language death according to Craig (1995: 259) is the evolution of the patterns of language used in specific families, whereby parents and older siblings speak an ethnic language while younger siblings suddenly do not acquire it.

Research has shown that at times, that process of death affects first the lower registers of the language, leaving for last a few pieces of the most formal register. This type of bottom-to-top death has also been referred to as the "Latinate pattern". For instance, the Yaqui language of Arizona is surviving only in ritual contexts but which crucially marks membership in the ethnic community (Hill, 1983 in Craig, 1995:259).

Speakers of the types of language death patterns mentioned above can be plotted in the continuum of the process of language death, from native fluent speakers to non speakers (Schmidt, 1985; Dorian 1981, 1985, 1989; Campbell and Muntzel, 1989;

Dressier, 1991 in Craig, 1995). Schmidt (1985) in his studies distinguished between older fluent and younger fluent speakers. The latter typically were found to speak a somewhat changed form of the language, which is still accepted by the whole community. On the effects of language death on language structure, the first level of linguistic loss correlates with the loss of certain functions of the language. Craig (1995:261) states that (the most widespread case is that of the loss of higher functions, such as the use of the language in the public area, including the socio political and religious traditions which necessitate the handling of sonic formal style of language. For instance, terminal speakers of Breton could only control causal styles (monostylism) for intimate routine interactions (Dressier and Wodack-Leodotter. 1977; Dressier 1991:101 in Craig, 1995). Again, lexical loss, loss in phonology as well as morphology has been reported in the discussion of the different types of language death.

Tandefelt (1992) captures the process of language endangerment in a formula:

$$A > Ab > AB > aB > B$$

In the formula, A represents the minority language (i. e. the language dominated socially, politically or numerically) and B represents the majority language (the dominating language) in a multilingual society. The intervening variables between points A and B are the initial second language learning stage Ab, followed by a period of bilingualism AB, then followed by almost total language shift aB. At point aB the minority language is endangered. Finally at point B, the minority language is lost.

Hale (1993) saw language endangerment as a part of a much larger process of loss of cultural and intellectual diversity in which politically dominant languages and cultures simply overwhelm indigenous local languages and cultures, placing them in a condition which can only be described as embattled. According to him, the process is not unrelated to the simultaneous loss of diversity in the Zoological and Botanical worlds (Fakuade2001:15).

According to Appel and Muysken (1990:42) when the focus of a language user is another language other than theirs, their language is at risk. It will first experience borrowing. The situation can be further worsened such that large chunks of foreign words are incorporated into the host language, a process called relexification. According to them, if these borrowings are not checked, the society will suffer language disintegration, loss and/ or language death Appel and Muysken note that children will be eager to learn a productive/dominant language. Thus, when a dying language is restricted to only one style, language loss and death is inevitable.

Summary

An attempt has been made in this lecture to explain the concepts – language maintenance, language shift and language death. Different case studies have been cited to ensure clarity. Look at your immediate environment, you will find instances of these processes even in our contemporary time.

Post-Test

1. What is language maintenance?
2. What is language shift?
3. When and how does a language die?
4. Cite examples in your immediate environment.

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LECTURE SIXTEEN

Considerations for Language Choice in Education

Preambles

...where a language is foreign the student scientist must battle with the language first and then the concept, after which follows the application. When student scientists master the language and the concept, the dissemination of the idea is again impeded/hampered, by the same language barrier, and instead of the student scientist serving as a catalyst in the advancement of the country, the student actually becomes a moribund scientist. This has in turn left him in darkness about a whole range of physical phenomena around him, (Obinabo 1978)

Introduction

The choice of language in education is a significant component of language planning in a developing country like Nigeria. This is so because it has the ability of making or marring the country as a nation. This is not limited to Nigeria alone. By implication, what is applicable to Nigeria is applicable to Africa as a whole. As a result of the sensitivity of this subject, scholars have devoted a considerable portion of research to it. See Kelman (1971), Ferguson (1975), Bamgbose (1981), etc. Our aim in this lecture is to discuss factors that should be put into consideration in choosing a language for education.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. highlight two functional considerations suggested by Kelman (1971) to guide policy makers in language planning;
2. identify a series of questions which language policy in a developing multi-lingual country like Nigeria should address; and
3. mention some critical issues that should be taken into consideration in making the choice.

Pre-Test

What are the roles of language in education?

CONTENT

Considerations for language choice in Education

Kelman (1971:40) suggested two functional considerations to guide the authorities to arrive at language Policies:

1. Patterns of communication that would enable the socio-economic institutions to function most effectively and equitably in meeting the needs and interests of the population.
2. Ensuring that different groups within the society, varying in their linguistic, repertoires, have equal access to the public system and to participate in it.

Ferguson (1975) suggests a series of societal language choice questions which language policy in a developing multilingual nation may address:

1. What language(s) shall be the official medium of the government to be used in laws, administrations and the armed forces?
2. What language(s) shall be the medium of instruction at the various levels of the educational system?
3. What language(s) will be accepted for use on the radio, in publishing and as school subjects?

Documented answers to such questions will in part constitute input into the country's language policy.

Language Policy for Nigeria should serve the following objectives

1. increased interethnic communication leading to national integration through (a) common indigenous language(s);
2. Increased communication efficiency in our public institutions;
3. Increased and easy access to knowledge of varying degrees of technicality;
4. Equal access to information in the public system leading to equal opportunities to participate in the system; and
5. Increased access to our indigenous literacy arts, and opportunities to participate in, contribute to and propagate them.

Whatever Policy considerations are adopted, they will have to be complemented by a series of language engineering undertaking. Thus, once the statuses and roles of languages have been determined, steps have to be taken to ensure the adequacy of the languages for the purposes assigned to them.

Issues to be considered

Different societal features favour different languages; however in education the experience of language learning is more important than the actual choice of learning. To meet the array of needs, learning provisions must facilitate wide choice even though priorities are established, considering such issues as the following: (i) the

society's demographic and linguistic structure; (ii) economic needs, e.g. to facilitate trade; (iii) education (requirements, medium, concept of a 'good education.) (iv) Geographical proximity; (v) cultural traditions; (vi) employment prospects (vii) status of the language and dialects; (viii) individual and group identities and inter-relationships; (ix) nationalism; (x) equal opportunity; (xi) availability of linguistic analyses; (xii) international relationships; (xiii) literacy and morality, and their traditions in relevant language (xiv) fashion; (xv) access to technology (xvi) resource availability; and (xvii) language rights as incorporated in international conventions and national constitutions. The policy-makers' problem is to facilitate choices relevant to individuals' needs, interests, and aptitudes- but to counter- balance these against general educational benefit and societal needs. Whatever the languages, however, the success of its teaching depends largely on the teachers, courses, and materials available.

Summary

This lecture focused attention on the issue of language choice in education. Kelmans (1971) suggestions have been' highlighted. Likewise Ferguson's (1975) suggestions have been considered. Five objectives which language policy for Nigeria should serve are highlighted. Finally, seventeen critical issues that should be taken into consideration are listed.

Post-Test

1. Kelman (1971) suggested two functional considerations to guide policy makers. What are they?
2. Discuss the three questions raised by Ferguson (1975) which language policy in a developing multilingual country may address.
3. Enumerate eight issues that should be taken into consideration before the choice is made.

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LECTURE SEVENTEEN

Language and Social Status /Class

Preambles

If you are an English-Speaker you will be able to estimate the relative social status of the following speakers solely on the basis of linguistic evidence here:

Speaker A

I done it yesterday

He ain't got it

It was her what said it

Speaker B

I did it yesterday

He hasn't got it

It was her that said it.

If you heard these speakers say these things you would guess that B was of higher social status than A, and you would almost certainly be right.

(Trudgill, P: 1974/1983:34).

Introduction

This lecture takes a brief look at the influence of social status or class on language. Earlier in this course material, we describe sociolinguistics as the study of who says what, to whom, when, where and how. It is our aim here to briefly examine the relationship between language and social class.

Objective

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to discuss the relationship between language and social class.

Pre-Test

How does the social status of a speaker affect his language?

CONTENT

Language and Social Class /Status

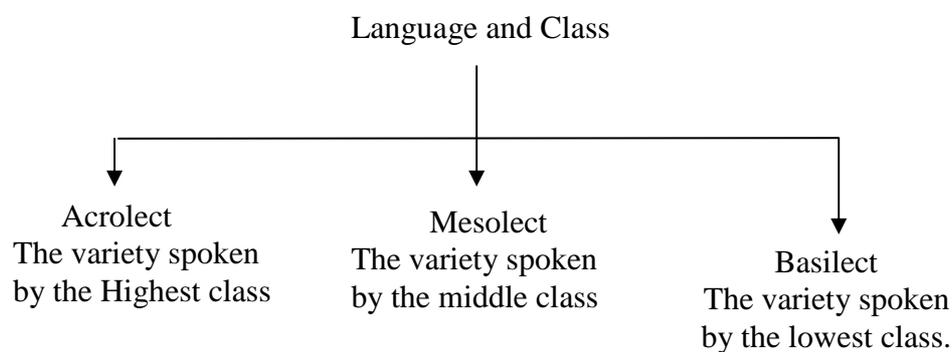
It is not possible to make a simple statement about language variation and social class because other influential factors are involved, such as the sex of the speaker, and the formality of the situation. There is also an important interaction between social and

regional factors. 'Status' is the position a person holds in the social structure of a community such as a priest, an official, a wife, or a husband. Roles are the conventional modes of behaviour that society expects a person to adopt when holding a particular status.

Public roles often have formal marker associated with them, such as uniforms; but among the chief markers of social position is undoubtedly language. People exercise several roles; They have a particular status in their family (head of family, firstborn, etc); and another in their place of work (supervisor, apprentice, etc); they may also have one in their church, at a local sports centre, and so on. Each position will carry with it certain linguistic conventions, such as a distinctive mode of address, an 'official' manner of speech, or a specialized vocabulary. During the average life-time, people learn many such linguistic behaviours.

In different societies, people are classified into three major groups - the highest class, the middle class and the lower class. These different classes have their linguistic markers. For instance in Britain, at the top are speakers of the highest social class, they speak the standard dialect with very little regional variation. They speak what is often called 'Received Pronunciation' (RP), the educated accent which signals no regional information at all. The further we move down the class scale, the more we encounter regional accent and dialect variation. When we reach the lowest social class, we encounter the widest range of local accents and dialects.

Look at the tree diagram below:



Summary

This unit has taken a look at the relationship between language and the social status of the user. Sociolinguists are of the opinion that by listening to a particular user of a particular language, one will be able to place him on the social scale in the society without much ado.

Post–Test

1. Discuss the relationship between language and the social class of the user of the language.
2. By listening to how somebody speaks, one will be able to make intelligent guesses about his social status. Discuss.

In William Shakespeare's work, language and class is demonstrated when the monarch or queen speaks to the comedians who were referred to as fools.

Acrolect – Language used by the highest social class (e.g. the nobles).

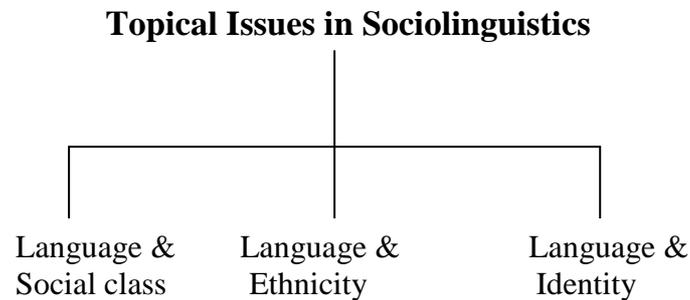
Mesolect – Language used by the middle class (e.g. the working class).

Basilect – Language used by the lower class (e.g. gardeners, cleaners, cooks, etc. the lowest class, illiterates and semi literates).

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LECTURE EIGHTEEN



Introduction

This lecture, being the last in this course material discusses three topical issues in sociolinguistics. These are:

1. language and Social Change
2. language and Ethnicity
3. language and Identity

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. discuss language and Social change;
2. discuss language and Ethnicity; and
3. discuss language and Identity.

Pre-Test

Discuss the following concepts briefly.

- a. Language and Socio change
- b. Language and Ethnicity
- c. Language and Identity

CONTENT

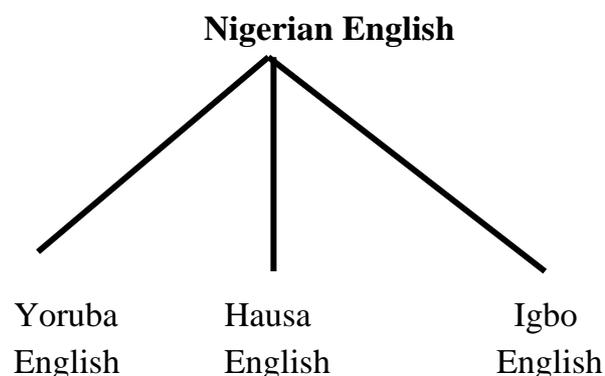
Language and Social Change

The social aspects of language are primarily the concern of sociolinguists and anthropological linguists. There have been various attempts to define the social

cultural notion of ‘a language’. Political and geographical boundaries do not necessarily coincide with linguistic boundaries nor do their ethnic names: many Belgians for example, speak French. Different varieties of the ‘same’ language may be mutually incomprehensible even within the same Country: in England, a Cockney accent may not be understood by someone with a Geordic accent. Linguists therefore usually regard a language as being defined by those who speak it: the varieties of English used around the world are all defined as English because this is the language the speakers agree that they speak. A variety, however, may be regarded by its speakers as a distinct language, there are subdivisions traditionally known as dialects, increasingly as varieties, which are most commonly geographical but may also be social. A dialect is more than a simple difference of pronunciation. In the British Isles, many people speak the same dialect of English, but with different accents. Sometimes, one dialect becomes socially prestigious and is adopted as the norm; it is then usually referred to as the ‘standard’ language. Social variation in language may be due to social class, ethnic origin, age, and/or sex, and within these, to the level of formality employed at any time. Sometimes this variation remains stable, but is often the forerunner of a change. Language shift usually appears as variation within a community, one variant increasing in frequency of use and in its distribution. Language change could be occasioned by different social factors e.g. status, sex, social class, ethnic origin, age, etc.

Language and Ethnicity

This deals with the relation between language use and ethnic background, especially in a mixed community. In modern urban societies, it is now commonplace to find speakers of a variety of ethnic background living together and interacting in various ways. Linguists are interested in determining the extent to which a given language or variety serves as a badge of identity for a particular ethnic group, and how that group’s variety of language differs from varieties of the same language used by other speakers. In Nigeria, for instance, it is easy to classify speakers of English language based on the ethnic groups they belong to. Thus, we have ‘Nigerian English’ as an umbrella term for Yoruba English, Hausa English, and Igbo English etc.



On the whole, the study of language and ethnicity is still in its infancy, but illuminating findings have already appeared. For example, the British sociolinguist, Ben Rampton has recently discovered the phenomenon of ‘crossing’, in which a member of one ethnic group deliberately adopts the language or usage of another ethnic group for specific social purposes. The study of language and ethnicity is sometimes called ethnolinguistics

Language and Identity

Languages play an important role in providing a speaker with individuality and group membership. Every time you open your mouth to speak, you give other people important clues about what sort of person you are; where you come from what social class you belong to, even your sex and age (for example, on the telephone). This information says something about your individuality and about the social, national and ethnic groups to which you consider yourself to belong.

Summary

We have taken a brief look at three topical issues in sociolinguistics in this unit. These topical issues are: Language and Social change, Language and ethnicity, Language and identity. These issues are very germane to the study of variation in language such that without them this volume would not be complete.

Post–Test

Discuss the following concepts briefly:

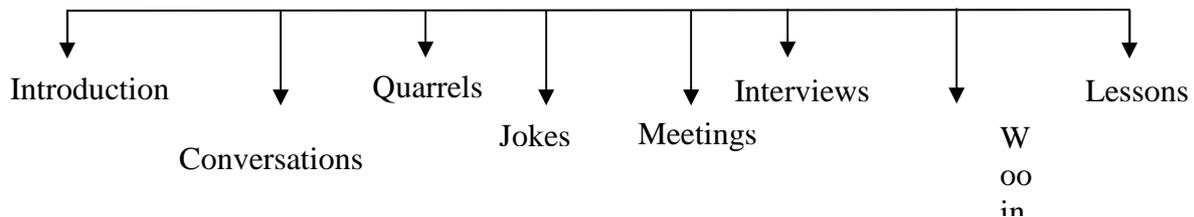
1. Language and Social change
2. Language and Ethnicity
3. Language and Identity

References

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LECTURE NINETEEN

The Social Context of Speech



Preamble

The study of speech as part of social interaction has involved many different disciplines, including social Psychology, Sociology, and Anthropology, Ethnology (the study of human intelligence via computer simulation), Sociolinguistics and Linguistics.

Introduction

Speech is crucial in a number of social activities, including socialization and it is necessary to stress the general importance of speech in social life. Speech allows us to communicate with each other at a much more sophisticated level than would otherwise be possible. Since communication is a social activity, it could be said that speech is also social. When a language is being learnt, it is also necessary to learn the social constraints on speech over and above those which are part of our language. Our goal in this unit is to discuss speech in its social context.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. explain the importance of speech in the society; and
2. discuss some of the functions of speech in the society.

Pre-Test

What roles does speech play in the society?

CONTENT

Speech plays many different roles in social interaction. The anthropologist, Bratislava Malinowski claimed that in its primitive uses, language functions as a link in concerted human activity, as a piece of human behaviour. It is a mode of action and not an instrument of reflection (Malinowski 1923). Speech refers to shorter or longer strings of linguistic items uttered on particular occasions for particular purposes. Speech functions prominently in conversations, quarrels, jokes, committee meetings, interviews, seductions, introductions, lessons, teasing, chit-chat and a host of others.

We learn our language by listening to others, although each individual language is unique because of our different individual experiences. Experiments have confirmed that no child can learn any language in a vacuum. Even though, it is argued that every normal human child possesses the natural endowment to acquire a language. Thus, it is asserted that there is a device responsible for this, and the device is referred to as LAD – Language Acquisition Device. The proponent of this was Noam Chomsky in the 1960s who asserted that LAD was a device effectively present in the minds of children by which the grammar of their native language is constructed. It was argued that children must be born with an innate capacity for language development. This device does not work automatically in isolation. The child has to be exposed to a particular language in the community of its users. It is then he can acquire this language.

Some cultural concepts, including some of our most important abstract concepts are learned through language, especially speech, so speech is an important instrument of socialization. Every relationship in human society is initiated, consolidated and sustained through the use of language, which is primarily spoken. This is why Malinowski (1923) described language as a ‘social lubricant’

Speech, in the extreme sense, is itself the action it reports e.g. ‘I name this child Johnson’ has to be said if the naming is to be accomplished. Such bits of speech are called performative utterance.

Speech is used to reinforce social relations. This kind of function is e.g. in greetings, invitation to meals (not wholeheartedly) politeness, what Malinowski called Phatic Communion, the kind of Chit-chat that people engage in simply in order to show that they recognize each other’s presence. To the above, we may add many other uses of speech – to exchange information, to express emotions, to communicate propositions e.g. making of suggestions, promises, invitations, request, prohibitions, settlement of quarrels, etc.

Summary

This lecture has discussed the importance of speech in the society. It emphasized that speech plays a significant role in the society. It also noted that the spoken language is very important because it is primary. The written language is secondary. Finally, speech itself in the extreme sense stands for the action it reports.

Post-Test

1. Why is speech very important in human society?
2. Speech is a social lubricant. Discuss

References

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- Malinowski B. (1923), "The Problem of meaning in primitive Languages; In C. K Ogden and I. A. Richards. *The meaning of meaning*, London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

LECTURE TWENTY

LANGUAGE PLANNING

Introduction

Language planning refers to activities carried out by governmental or other influential bodies that are aimed at establishing which language varieties are used in a particular community, and subsequently at directing or influencing which varieties are to be used for which purposes in that particular community, and what the linguistic characteristics of those varieties are to be. Language planning is usually undertaken in order to improve communications, education, and/or influence nationalism and achieve language maintenance. (Trudgill, P.1992: 47). Our goal in this lecture is to examine the concept of language planning in some details.

Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. define language planning
2. discuss the two types of language planning
3. highlight the different stages involved in language planning.

Pre - Test

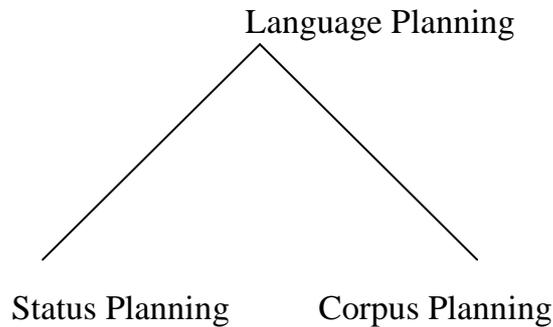
1. What is language planning?
2. Discuss the stages involved in language planning

CONTENT

Language Planning involves the creation and implementation of an official policy about how the languages and linguistic varieties of a country are to be used. Decisions of a fundamental nature may need to be made, especially in the developing countries. Planning issues are found in all countries, people debate over such topics as the place of minority languages, the role of an academy in safeguarding standards, the influence of the media on language usage, the value of spelling reform, the avoidance of sexist language, the modernization of religious language, the need for stylistic standards in publishing, and the maintenance of oracy and literacy levels in schools. All these activities are different aspects of language planning.

Classification of Language Planning

Researchers on language planning have identified two categories of planning. These are status planning and corpus planning. We present this briefly in a tree diagram below:



Status Planning

This refers to decisions which have to be taken concerning the selection of particular languages or varieties (dialects) of a language for particular purposes in the society or nation in question. Decisions about which language(s) is/are to be the national or official languages of particular nation/state are among the more important of status planning issues. Some scholars prefer to refer to status planning as language determination. Under status planning, changes are proposed in the way a language/variety is to be used in the society which alter the status of the language or dialect in question.

Corpus Planning

This aspect of language planning and codification refers to decisions taken about the linguistic characteristics of the variety of language in question. . Typical corpus issues involve questions concerning which pronunciation to use of those available, which syntactic structures and morphological forms are to be permitted, which of a number of regionally based words of identical meaning is to be favoured and what is to be done about expansion of the vocabulary if necessary. Some scholars refer to it as language development. Corpus planning involves the linguistic structure, changes such as spelling, pronunciation, grammar or vocabulary.

Planning in Practice

The different stages involved in language planning are briefly discussed below:

Selection of Norm: When there are several languages that are spoken in a country, it will be necessary to choose a single language as a norm for official, educational and other purposes. It may be possible to select one of the indigenous languages, e.g. Hindi in India or this may not be possible because of ethnic rivalry in which case a neutral language will be selected e.g. English in Ghana and Nigeria. It may be

necessary to select a particular variety as the standard or to construct a new variety, bearing in mind factors such as formality, social class, regional dialect and previous literary use.

Codification: The need to develop the form that is chosen to meet the demands placed on it as a medium of national or international communication arises after the selection has been done. If the language does not have an orthography, it will be necessary to devise an alphabet, along with rules of spelling, punctuation and pronunciation. The priority should be the codification of the pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary to provide a set of norms for standard use, especially if there is a great deal of local variations.

Modernization: The need also arises to develop metalanguage for specific areas e.g. science, technology, medicine, consumer goods, law, etc. This process is referred to as intellectualization. It may be done through different morphological processes, such as translation, borrowing or coining. Principles will have to be agreed upon for the introduction of new terms e.g. should they be loan words or coinages based on native roots? New styles of discourse may need to be developed for use on radio or in the press generally. Decisions will have to be made about new or uncertain usages, especially technical in contexts e.g. abbreviation of scientific terms.

Implementation: The chosen standard needs to be officially implemented through use by government publication media in schools, etc. It must attract a positive attitude from the users as the 'best' or standard variety in the speech community because it will be associated with educational progress or social status. It will provide the norm for literary style and may be associated with factors of a naturalistic, cultural or religious kind. Eventually, it may be promulgated as a norm through an official body, such as an academy or through prescriptive grammars, dictionaries and manuals for usage.

Evaluation: At this stage, the success or failure of the planning is assessed. If the changes effected are generally accepted by the populace and are put into use, then the process is considered successful. If on the other hand people protest or ignore the changes, then the process has failed.

Summary

This unit focused on the concept of language planning. The two types of language planning and the different stages involved in them have been comprehensively discussed.

Post - Test

1. What is Language Planning? Mention and discuss the two types of language planning
2. Enumerate and discuss the different stages involved in language planning.

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