

SOCIOLINGUISTICS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

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PREFACE

Praise be to Allah Swt. for His blessings and abundance of Grace and Guidance, I can complete the preparation of this book. Sociolinguistics is an interdisciplinary science, namely the disciplines of sociology and linguistics, two fields of science that each play a different role. Sociology pays attention to social relations between people in their society, as individuals and groups. Sociology is an objective and scientific study of humans in society along with social institutions and social processes that exist in society. Sociology tries to find out how society happens and continues to exist. By studying social institutions and all social problems in one society, it will be known how humans socialize in their society. Linguistics is a field of science that studies language or a field of science that takes language as its object of study. This book explains that sociolinguistics is a branch of linguistics that is interdisciplinary with sociology and with the object of research on the relationship between language and social factors in a speech community. Sociolinguistics is more concerned with the details of actual language use, while the sociology of language deals with social factors that are reciprocal with language or dialect. Sociolinguistics focuses its attention on how language functions in society, explaining the ability of humans to play language rules appropriately in diverse situations. In language teaching in schools, sociolinguistics has a big role. Internal language studies will produce objectively descriptive language descriptions, in the form of a grammar book.

If the internal study is done descriptively, it will produce a descriptive grammar. If the study is done normatively, it will produce a normative grammar book. These two grammar books have different results, then if they are used in language use, they will also have different problems. If a descriptive grammar book is used in teaching, then the

difficulty is that the language variety that must be taught is the standard language variety, even though the book also records the results of the nonstandard variety. The dimensions of the problem discussed in sociolinguistics, namely: (1) the social identity of the speakers, (2) the social identity of the listeners involved in the communication process, (3) the social environment in which speech events occur, where speech events occur whether in crowded public places or in a room where someone is worshiping, (4) synchronic and diachronic analysis of social dialects, the choice of dialect related to the social status of its users, (5) different social assessments by speakers and speech form behavior, (6) the level of linguistic variation and variety, and (7) the practical application of sociolinguistic research. The author realizes that many parties have faithfully accompanied, guided, and helped and motivated the author in completing this book. The author would like to express his appreciation and gratitude, hoping that all the good deeds that have been given so far will become good deeds and good deeds and will be rewarded by Allah SWT.

Tanjungpinang

Writer

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CHAPTER 1

Historical Linguistics

A. The Terms of Historical Linguistics

What is historical linguistics? What is meant by this term is not linguistic history which describes the development of linguistics from the beginning to the present. To understand the term historical linguistics, we must pay attention to two things. The first is that a language will always change and develop (Crystal, 1992: 328). This will happen even though there are institutions that try to set standards even though there are schools that teach a form of language that is considered good to the next generation. That language is always changing can be seen clearly if we examine the written texts contained in a language and if these texts come from several different centuries.

The second thing that we must pay attention to to understand the aims and objectives of historical linguistics is that in two or more languages we often encounter words that are similar, both in form and in meaning. There may be two causes for this. First, there is the possibility that one language has taken words from another language. For example, now in Malay we often encounter words like video and computer, which clearly come from English. But there is another possibility. Take a look at the following examples from English and German:

English	meaning	German	meaning
this	This	dies	This
that	That	das	That
then	Then	Denn	Then
bro	Brother	brother	Brother
other	other	order	or
bath	bathe	baden	bathe

From this example, apart from the apparent similarity in form and meaning, there is another interesting phenomenon, namely that wherever

there is a /θ/ sound (which is written th) in English, then in German there is a /d/ sound. This phenomenon is called regular correspondence. If we find several types of regular correspondence between two languages and many examples of each type, then we can conclude that the two languages are allied.

The main aim of historical linguistics is to research the things described above, namely the history of the development of a language and determining the genealogical relationship between several languages to produce a classification of all the languages that form one family (Mahsun, 2007: 16). Historical linguistic experts assume that all the languages that form one family were once one language. Some of the language speakers moved to other places and the languages of the two groups of speakers changed in different ways. If we look again at the examples above, the oldest German and English examples are more similar to examples of ancient German than to modern English.

B. The Ancient English

We also know from historians that ancient English speakers moved from continental Europe to the island of England around 450 AD (*Hammarström, Harald; Forkel, Robert; Haspelmath, Martin, ed. (2019). "Old English (ca. 450-1100)". [Glottologist 4.1](#). Jena, Germany: Max Planck Institute for the Science of Human History*). In other words, before 450, most likely, Old English and Old German were one language. Unfortunately, this language does not yet have a writing system, so there is no concrete evidence about this. Another example, the language group consisting of French, Spanish, Italian and Portuguese is called the Romance Languages. These languages all developed from Latin. In this case we are more fortunate because we have many texts in old form so we can clearly see the process of development.

The language of origin of several of these languages is called the parent language (Hasrah, Aman and Shahidi, 2011: 25). Languages that

develop from a parent language are called derivative languages or daughter languages. If we do not have evidence of the existence of a parent language in the form of written text, then the parent language is called a proto language. So, returning to the examples above, Latin is the parent language of French, Spanish, Italian and Portuguese. These four languages are derivative languages from Latin. The parent language of English and German, as well as Dutch, is called Proto Germanic. This language is a proto language because we have no evidence in the form of written texts regarding the existence of that language.

To investigate how a language breaks into two or more, historical linguists also pay attention to the differences between dialects. Two dialects of one language are two different forms of that language even though the speakers still understand each other. If speakers of two dialects are separated from each other, then over time the two dialects will turn into two different languages if the speakers do not understand each other.

If we investigate one or many dialects, we can describe the specific characteristics of those dialects to give an idea of their main characteristics. We can also look for geographic boundaries between two shapes to produce a map. Work with this latter aim is called dialect geography. All research related to dialects is called dialectology. Until now what has been discussed is geographical dialects, namely dialects found in different geographical areas. But there are other possibilities too. In England almost all educated people, especially those from the nobility, used a dialect called received pronunciation. In every region of England, people who were less educated or who came from the lower classes, There are two dialects used, namely geographical dialect and received pronunciation. The distribution of the two dialects is not according to geographical facts but according to social facts, namely heredity and education. If there are differences in dialects like this, then the dialect is called a social dialect.

Returning to the whole topic of historical linguistics, the field is sometimes also called comparative linguistics, but that is actually a

misnomer. The comparative method is one of the methods used by historical linguistic experts. Another term for historical linguistics is diachronic linguistics. This term is the opposite of the linguistic term synchronic. Synchronic linguistics is the investigation of a language at a certain time without paying attention to changes in that language.

Recently, linguists have become increasingly aware that if we consider a language or a family of languages as an isolated system, then the results of our research will be meaningless. Usually, languages influence each other, both related languages such as Javanese and Indonesian, as well as languages that have no genealogical relationship, such as Malay and English, or Indonesian, Malay and Dutch. So contact between languages must also be researched by historical linguistic experts.

In this book we will review historical linguistics using three theoretical models. First of all, we will discuss the opinions and findings of a group of experts called the Neogrammarians. This group of experts moved widely in the 19th century. Then we will review the position and new discoveries of linguists who are now called structuralists. This theoretical position became common in linguistics in the 20th century, until 1965. The last theory that influenced historical linguistics was transformation-generative grammar. This series of theories began to become common in 1965.

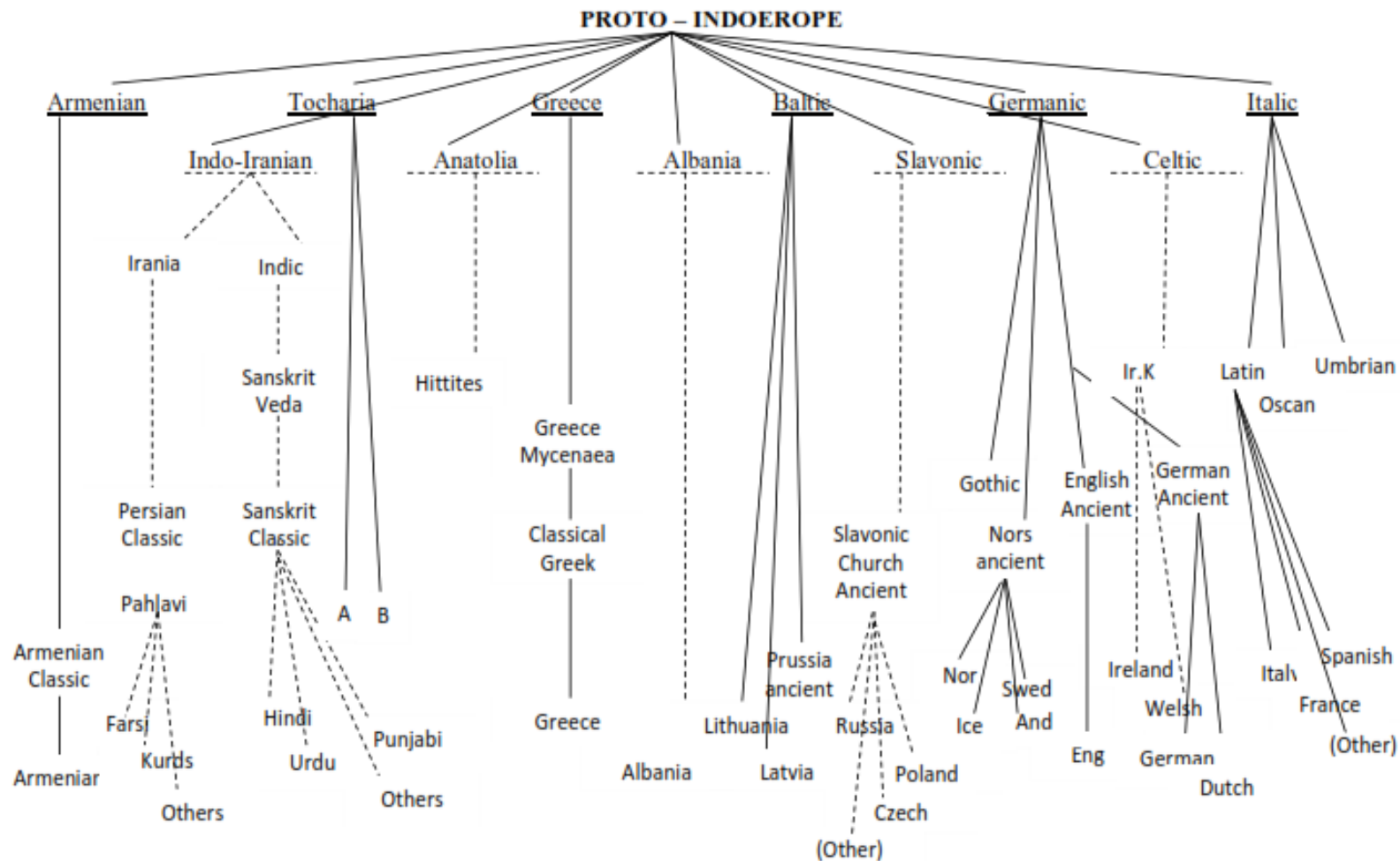
After reviewing several sets of theories and their respective contributions to historical linguistics, we will discuss the relationship between sociolinguistics and historical linguistics, then we will discuss dialectology. After that we will discuss specifically the Austronesian language family, namely the family of which Malay, Javanese and most other regional languages in Brunei, Malaysia and Indonesia are members.

CHAPTER 2

Framework Of Grammarian Theory

A. Grammarian History

There were two things that encouraged scholars in the 19th century to research the history of language development. The first is the desire to explain the irregularities that exist in modern European languages, for example the formation of past tense in English verbs by vowel changes (such as sing-sang) which is different from the general process that uses the ending -ed. The second thing that drives such research is the desire to explain the apparent similarities between several European languages, for example between English, German and Dutch, or between Spanish, Portuguese, Italian and French. In the 18th century, Europeans discovered texts in Sanskrit in India. Once the language is learned, So the similarities between Sanskrit and Classical Greek and Classical Latin are clearly visible. So in the 19th century, a group of scholars called Neogrammarian could form a hypothesis regarding the Indo-European language family. This language family consists of Germanic languages, Romance languages, Greek, Indian languages which are derivatives of Sanskrit, Slavic languages (Russian, Polish, and several other languages in eastern Europe), and several other languages, most of which are no longer used



B. Theory of Neogrammarian

Neogrammarian theory is based on two principles, namely sound change and analogy. These sound changes are symptoms that occur in the sound system. According to Neogrammarian theory, if there is a change in sound, then the change will occur in any place in a certain sound environment without exception. As an example of sound changes in the history of German, where every time there is a vowel sound /o:/ with a vowel sound /i/ in the following syllable, the vowel sound /o:/ is pronounced /Ö:/. In Middle German all vowels were in unstressed syllables, including /i/ and /ə/. After this second change occurs, the sound /Ö:/ has the status of a separate phoneme and is no longer an allophone of /o:/ because the environment that determined it has disappeared. This kind of sound change, which consists of splitting one phoneme into two or more phonemes is called phonemic split. Such changes are called conditional changes because they are limited to certain environments or conditions. Meanwhile, unconditional sound changes occur in a phoneme in all environments. If the new sound produced is not in that language before, it will result in a change in the pronunciation of a phoneme, for example the phoneme /r/ in Indonesian is pronounced {ɾ} in some areas of Sumatra and Kalimantan because there is no {ɾ} phoneme in Indonesian, then the identity and use of the phonemes are not affected by the change in speech. Such changes are called conditional changes because they are limited to certain environments or conditions. Meanwhile, unconditional sound changes occur in a phoneme in

all environments. If the new sound produced is not in that language before, it will result in a change in the pronunciation of a phoneme, for example the phoneme /r/ in Indonesian is pronounced {ʀ} in some areas of Sumatra and Kalimantan because there is no {ʀ} phoneme in Indonesian, then the identity and use of the phonemes are not affected by the change in speech.

However, if an unconditional change occurs in a phoneme so that the phoneme becomes one with another phoneme that previously existed in the language, then the result is that two phonemes become one. This is called a unification or merger. An example of unification is in German. The /ei/ sound and the /i:/ sound in Middle German became /ai/ in modern German; the sound /ou/ and the sound /u:/ in Middle German become /au/ in modern German; and the sound /öü/ and the sound /ü/ in Middle German become /ö/ in Modern German:

Middle German	Modern German
/ˈvi:de/ “a kind of tree”	/ˈvaɪdə/ Weide
/ˈveide/ “meadow”	/ˈvaɪdə/ Weide
/mu:s/ “rat”	/maʊs/ Maus
/roux/ “smoke”	/raʊx/ Rauch
/ˈlu:te/ “person”	/ˈləʊtə/ Leute
/ˈfröüde/ “joy”	/ˈfrɔɪdə/ Freude

It was mentioned earlier that the two principles that underlie neogrammarian theory are sound change and analogy. An analogy occurs when speakers of a language treat an exception like a general or usual pattern. If changes in sound affect the sound system, then analogies affect the grammatical system. However, what drives analogical change is often a change in sound that occurred previously. For example, let's look at the history of plural formation in English nouns.

In Old English there were several groups or classes of nouns, each with its own system for forming case and singular-plural endings. One class of nouns can be represented by the word *stān* “stone”.

One sound change in Old English caused all unstressed vowels to become /ə/. Another change causes the /m/ and /n/ in the ending to disappear. As a result of these two sound changes, the inflections of stān class nouns in Middle English became much simpler. For this class of nouns, the distinction between singular and plural is still clear. But for other classes of nouns, after the sound change described above, the distinction between singular and plural is no longer visible. Examples of nouns that have lost their plural sign are the words wound "wound" and sorrow "sorrow". When a new noun enters English, the word in plural form has the ending -s.

Analogy has two types, namely analogical change and analogical creation. Analogical changes are changes that occur in the grammatical system. Analogical creation usually influences vocabulary. Several examples exist in English, for example the word hamburger has been formed from the words beefburger, cheeseburger, soyburger, and so on. This formation is actually wrong, because the word hamburger consists of hamburg (the name of a city in Germany) and the suffix -er. Another example, the word landscape is used as a model to form the words seascape, moonscape, and so on.

Returning to the matter of sound changes, because these changes occur without exception, the group of neogrammarian scholars proposed that the principle could be applied to reconstruct or reconstruct the initial stages of a language for which there is no written text. The method used for reconstruction is the comparative method or comparative method. The comparative method can only be used if there are two or more languages which are derivatives of the language to be rearranged. For example, we can reconstruct proto-Germanic using old English and urban German. If the two languages are compared, you will find many word pairs such as stan, stein "stone". These words are cognates, namely derivatives of words found in the parent language. From this pair of words, it can be concluded that /a:/ and /ei/ are a regular correspondence or equivalence. To make the

reconstruction, we have to look for a sound that can change to /a:/ in Old English and /ei/ in Old German. The sound usually suggested is /ai/.

If there is a change in sound that occurs in more than one stage, then the order of the stages is usually important. For example, in Middle German there were three changes, namely /ei/--/i:/, /i:/--/ai/, and /ei/---/ai/. But if the order of changes is like that, then the results will not be in accordance with reality:

Middle German:

	/li:p/	/mi:n/	/leip/	/stein/	/liep/	/liet/
1.					li:p	li:t
2.	lap	play			lap	lait
3.			lap	stain		

Modern German:

/lap/	/play/	/lap/	/ʃtain/	lap	lait
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But if changes (1) and (2) are reversed, the results will match reality:

Middle German:

	/li:p/	/mi:n/	/leip/	/stein/	/liep/	/liet/
2.	lap	play				
1.					li:p	li:t
3.			lap	stain		

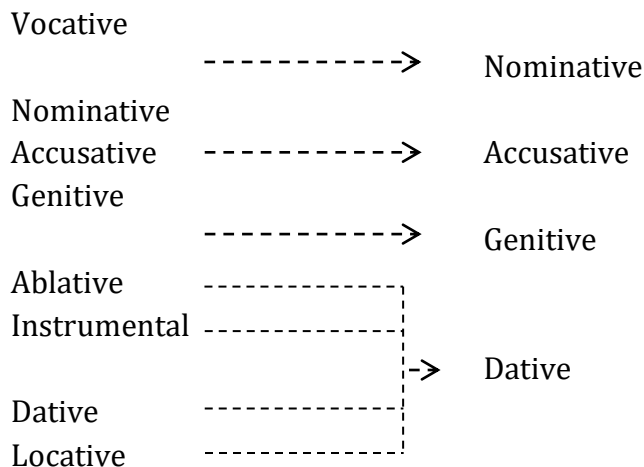
Modern German:

/laip/ /main/ /laip/ //ʃtain/ /li:p/ /li:t/

The reconstruction discussed above is sound reconstruction. Sound reconstruction is indeed the type of reconstruction most often carried out by the neogrammarian group. However, after producing a reconstruction of the phonemes of the Proto-Indo-European language, efforts were also made to reconstruct the morphological system and syntactic system of the proto-language. This work is also carried out by comparing grammatical systems that

exist in derivative languages. For example, by comparing the case systems that exist in Indo-European languages, including Sanskrit, Classical Greek, and Classical Latin, it can be concluded that in Proto Indo European there should be eight cases, namely vocative, nominative, accusative , genitive, ablative, instrumental, dative, and locative. In German,

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The reconstruction effort reached its peak when a neogrammarian named Schleicher published a story he wrote in Proto Indo-European, but his efforts were laughed at by other scholars. Such experiences can remind us of the nature of reconstruction work. We cannot know for sure how a phoneme sounds in a language that has been rearranged. With the use of grammatical forms, the same is true. Although there is vocabulary that can be believed to have existed in a proto-language, there must also be a lot of vocabulary that has been lost and is impossible to find again. Indeed, the reconstruction work had its drawbacks. But written documents that people later find often prove that what has been reconstructed by language experts, lots of truth. For example, some things reconstructed for Indo-European proto-language were proven correct by the discovery of texts in Hittite, which date from 2000 BC.

This kind of description is useful in providing a general idea of language relationships within a family. However, we must remember that

languages that exist today are not necessarily direct descendants of dialects or types of languages represented by texts from ancient times. For example, if Proto-Romance is reconstructed from Spanish, Malay, French, Italian, and Portuguese, the result will be slightly different from the classical Latin that existed in written form. But the difference is because the text is a formal form that is different from everyday language. Today's Romance languages should be direct descendants of the languages used every day.

CHAPTER 3

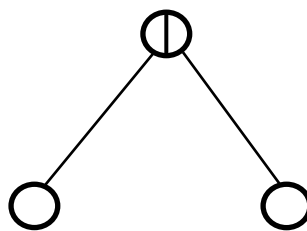
Structuralist Theory and Language Development

A. Structuralist

The theoretical framework now called structuralist or taxonomical began in Europe at the beginning of the 20th century with the linguist Ferdinand de Saussure. This theory was developed in Europe by the Prague school. In America, the structuralist theoretical framework began with Leonard Bloomfield and was continued by his followers until Charles Hockett, who was still famous until the 60s. The most important characteristic of this theoretical framework is the opinion that a language at any given time is a system where each element can only be explained in terms of its function and position within the system. If so, then a change in an element in a language system is also a change in that language system.

The splitting of a phoneme so that the phoneme becomes two phonemes was named secondary split by Hoenigswald (1960) and phonologization by Jakobson (1972). This can be described as follows:

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The merger of two phonemes into one is called dephonologization. This can be described as follows:

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