МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
ДОНЕЦЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
ІМЕНІ ВАСИЛЯ СТУСА
ФАКУЛЬТЕТ ІНОЗЕМНИХ МОВ

Ольга Залужна

НАВЧАЛЬНО-МЕТОДИЧНИЙ ПОСІБНИК

для самостійної роботи з дисципліни
«Соціолінгвістична варіативність англійської мови»
для здобувачів другого (освітньо-професійного) рівня вищої освіти
спеціальності 035 Філологія
спеціалізації 035.041 Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно),
перша – англійська
освітньої програми Англійська та друга іноземна мови та літератури
(переклад включно)

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З-246

Друкується за рішенням вченої ради факультету іноземних мов
(протокол № 12 від 10.06.2022 р.)

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З-246 Навчально-методичний посібник для самостійної роботи з дисципліни «Соціолінгвістична варіативність англійської мови» для здобувачів другого (освітньо-професійного) рівня вищої освіти / укладач : О. О. Залужна; ДонНУ імені Василя Стуса. Вінниця, 2022. 128 с.

Навчально-методичний посібник спрямований на керування самостійною роботою здобувачів другого (освітньо-професійного) рівня вищої освіти в рамках вивчення дисципліни за вибором здобувача вищої освіти «Соціолінгвістична варіативність англійської мови». Самостійна робота здобувачів є основною формою оволодіння навчальним матеріалом у вільний від обов'язкових навчальних занять час, яка передбачає виконання здобувачами освіти позапланових завдань під методичним керівництвом викладача, але без його / її безпосередньої участі.

Метою є надання здобувачам можливості ознайомитися із різноманітністю та багатоплановістю територіальних та соціальних варіантів англійської мови (передусім Британським та Американським варіантами); отримати знання про варіативність як мовне явище і вміння орієнтуватися у різноманітних діалектних та соціолектних варіантах англійської мови; акцентувати увагу на соціальних відмінностях у використанні мови, характері зв'язків мови із суспільством, взаємодії мов у дво- та багатомовних суспільствах, специфіці використання англійської мови, як засобу міжнаціонального спілкування; розглянути форми свідомого впливу суспільства на мову; окреслити методи та прийоми соціолінгвістичного дослідження мови для подальшого використання у власних дослідженнях.

Навчально-методичний посібник призначений для здобувачів освіти спеціальності 035 Філологія спеціалізації 035.041 Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно), перша – англійська освітньої програми «Англійська та друга іноземна мови та літератури (переклад включно)».

УДК 811.111'27(075.4)

The limits of my language mean the limits of my world.
Ludwig Wittgenstein

Language is the road map of a culture.
It tells you where its people come from and where they are going.
Rita Mae Brown

You can never understand one language until you understand at least two.
Geoffrey Willans

If you talk to a man in a language he understands, that goes to his head.
If you talk to him in his own language, that goes to his heart.
Nelson Mandela

Language is the blood of the soul into which thoughts run and out of which they grow.
Oliver Wendell Holmes

Language is not a genetic gift, it is a social gift.
Learning a new language is becoming a member of the club –
the community of speakers of that language.
Frank Smith

The English language is nobody's special property. It is the property of the imagination:
it is the property of the language itself.
Derek Walcott

England and America are two countries separated by a common language.
George Bernard Shaw

When I read some of the rules for speaking and writing the English language correctly,
I think any fool can make a rule, and every fool will mind it.
Henry David Thoreau

Never make fun of someone who speaks broken English. It means they know another language.
H. Jackson Brown, Jr.

ЗМІСТ

ВСТУПНІ ЗАУВАЖЕННЯ

Навчально-методичний посібник спрямований на керування самостійною роботою здобувачів другого (освітньо-професійного) рівня вищої освіти Донецького національного університету імені Василя Стуса в рамках вивчення дисципліни за вибором здобувача вищої освіти «Соціолінгвістична варіативність англійської мови». Самостійна робота здобувачів є основною формою оволодіння навчальним матеріалом у вільний від обов'язкових навчальних занять час, яка передбачає виконання здобувачами освіти позапланових завдань під методичним керівництвом викладача, але без його / її безпосередньої участі.

Соціолінгвістика – міждисциплінарна наука, яка вивчає зумовленість мовних явищ і використання мовних одиниць соціальними факторами. У курсі розглядаються сучасні соціолінгвістичні теорії й залежність природи мовленнєвих відношень від соціолінгвістичних змінних. Особлива увага приділяється соціальній і територіальній стратифікації англійської мови, як найбільш вагомому наслідку впливу соціальних факторів на мовний континуум.

Мета – ознайомити здобувачів освіти із різноманітністю та багатоплановістю територіальних та соціальних варіантів англійської мови (передусім Британським та Американським варіантами); сформувати у здобувачів освіти знання про варіативність як мовне явище і вміння орієнтуватися у різноманітних діалектних та соціолектних варіантах англійської мови; акцентувати увагу на соціальних відмінностях у використанні мови, характері зв'язків мови із суспільством, взаємодії мов у дво- та багатомовних суспільствах, специфіці використання англійської мови, як засобу міжнаціонального спілкування; розглянути форми свідомого впливу суспільства на мову; окреслити методи та прийоми соціолінгвістичного дослідження мови для подальшого використання у власних дослідженнях.

Основними **завданнями** курсу *Соціолінгвістична варіативність англійської мови* є:

1. Окреслити коло сучасних загальнотеоретичних соціолінгвістичних питань та напрямів дослідження; сформувати цілісне бачення терміносистеми соціолінгвістики, її взаємозв'язків та перетинів з іншими науками.

2. Сформувати у здобувачів вищої освіти комплекс теоретичних знань стосовно структури, соціофонетичних, семантичних, граматичних, стилістичних особливостей англійської мови.

3. Розвинути лінгвістичну компетентності з питань функціонування територіальних та соціальних варіантів англійської мови.

4. Ознайомити здобувачів вищої освіти з ситуативно-стратифікаційною варіативністю англійської мови.

У результаті вивчення навчальної дисципліни здобувачі освіти повинні **вміти:**

- визначати, систематизувати мовні явища, виходячи із загальних закономірностей мовної системи та функціональних аспектів мовних одиниць;
- орієнтуватися у різноманітних діалектних та соціолектних варіантах англійської мови;
- володіти інформацією щодо специфіки використання англійської мови як засобу міжнаціонального спілкування;
- розрізняти форми свідомого впливу суспільства на мову та розуміти причини та механізми цього впливу;
- використовувати методи та прийоми соціолінгвістичного дослідження мов загалом та англійської мови зокрема;
- працювати з теоретичними та лексикографічними джерелами з соціолінгвістики;
- вільно орієнтуватися у сучасному лінгвістичному інформаційному просторі, володіти інформацією щодо кола актуальних завдань та перспективних напрямів сучасної лінгвістики.

Вивчення «Соціолінгвістичної варіативності англійської мови» передбачає формування та розвиток у здобувачів освіти компетентностей та результатів навчання відповідно до освітньої програми спеціальності 035 Філологія 035.041 «Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно)», перша – англійська освітньої програми «Англійська та друга іноземна мови та літератури (переклад включно)».

Компетентності, які покликана формувати ця дисципліна з-поміж іншого містять:

- здатність бути критичним і самокритичним;
- здатність до пошуку, опрацювання та аналізу інформації з різних джерел;
- уміння виявляти, ставити та вирішувати проблеми;
- здатність працювати в команді та автономно;
- здатність до абстрактного мислення, аналізу та синтезу;
- навички використання інформаційних і комунікаційних технологій;
- здатність до адаптації та дії в новій ситуації;
- здатність проведення досліджень на належному рівні;
- здатність генерувати нові ідеї (креативність);
- здатність вільно орієнтуватися в різних лінгвістичних напрямах і школах;
- здатність осмислювати мову як полісистеми, розуміти еволюційний шлях розвитку вітчизняного і світового мовознавства;
- здатність критично осмислювати історичні надбання та новітні досягнення філологічної науки;

- здатність здійснювати науковий аналіз і структурування мовного / мовленнєвого матеріалу з урахуванням класичних і новітніх методологічних принципів;
- усвідомлення методологічного, організаційного та правового підґрунтя, необхідного для досліджень та / або інноваційних розробок у галузі філології, презентації їх результатів професійній спільноті та захисту інтелектуальної власності на результати досліджень та інновацій;
- здатність застосовувати поглиблені знання з мовознавства та перекладознавства для вирішення професійних завдань;
- здатність вільно користуватися спеціальною термінологією в обраній галузі філологічних досліджень;
- усвідомлення ролі експресивних, емоційних, логічних засобів мови для досягнення запланованого прагматичного результату.

Результати навчання:

- оцінювати власну навчальну та науково-професійну діяльність, будувати і втілювати ефективну стратегію саморозвитку та професійного самовдосконалення;
- застосовувати сучасні методики і технології, зокрема інформаційні, для успішного й ефективного здійснення професійної діяльності та забезпечення якості наукового дослідження в конкретній філологічній галузі;
- оцінювати й критично аналізувати соціально, особистісно та професійно значущі проблеми і пропонувати шляхи їх вирішення, аргументуючи власну точку зору;
- аналізувати, порівнювати і класифікувати різні напрямки і школи в лінгвістиці;
- оцінювати історичні надбання та новітні досягнення мовознавства;
- характеризувати теоретичні засади (концепції, категорії, принципи, основні поняття тощо) та прикладні аспекти обраної філологічної спеціалізації;
- збирати й систематизувати мовні факти, інтерпретувати й перекладати тексти різних стилів і жанрів;
- здійснювати науковий аналіз мовного матеріалу, інтерпретувати та структурувати його з урахуванням класичних і новітніх методологічних принципів, формулювати узагальнення на основі самостійно опрацьованих даних;
- дотримуватися правил академічної доброчесності;
- доступно й аргументовано пояснювати сутність конкретних філологічних питань і власну точку зору на них як фахівцям, так і широкому загалу, зокрема особам, які навчаються;

- обирати оптимальні дослідницькі підходи й методи для аналізу конкретного лінгвістичного матеріалу;
- використовувати спеціалізовані концептуальні знання з обраної філологічної галузі для розв'язання складних задач і проблем, що потребує оновлення та інтеграції знань, часто в умовах неповної/недостатньої інформації та суперечливих вимог;
- планувати, організовувати, здійснювати і презентувати дослідження та / або інноваційні розробки в конкретній філологічній галузі.

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ПРОГРАМА НАВЧАЛЬНОЇ ДИСЦИПЛІНИ

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Тема 1. Соціолінгвістика як наука: визначення, основні поняття і методи дослідження.

Тема 2. Варіативність. Мовний регістр. Типи соціолінгвістики.

Тема 3. Типи мовної варіативності. Варіативність мов світу. Основні діалекти.

Тема 4. Варіативність мов світу за межами країн походження: причини, існуючі класифікації. Національні варіанти англійської мови.

Тема 5. Креолізація та піджнізація.

Тема 6. Креольські мови та піджини на базі англійської мови.

ЗМІСТОВИЙ МОДУЛЬ 2

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Тема 11. Мовна політика: визначення, співвідношення національної та мовної політики.

Тема 12. Правовий, конфесійний, навчально-педагогічний статус мов, мовне планування.

МЕТОДИ І ФОРМИ КОНТРОЛЮ, КРИТЕРІЇ ОЦІНЮВАННЯ ЗНАНЬ ЗДОБУВАЧІВ

Організація та оцінювання навчання визначена «Порядком оцінювання знань здобувачів вищої освіти у Донецькому національному університеті імені Василя Стуса» та «Положенням про організацію освітньої діяльності у Донецькому національному університеті імені Василя Стуса».

До основних методів контролю належать:

- опитування;
- реферати, презентації, творчі проекти, індивідуальні завдання;
- тестування;
- розв'язання практичних завдань, задач, ситуацій;
- спостереження;
- індивідуальне завдання.

Залік не є обов'язковою формою підсумкового контролю через можливість здобувачів отримати 100 балів протягом семестру сумарно за всі види навчальної діяльності. За кожен з двох модулів здобувач може отримати по 50 балів, що є середнім арифметичним значенням балів, отриманих протягом кожного модулю за кожний вид роботи (аудиторна робота, самостійна робота та модульний контроль). Залік передбачений для здобувачів, які не набрали 60 балів протягом семестру або бажають покращити поточний результат.

Таблиця 1

Нарахування балів, які отримують здобувачі освіти

Змістовний модуль 1* (50 балів)			**Змістовний модуль 2* (50 балів)**			**Загальна кількість балів**
Аудиторна робота	*СРС*	*МКР*	*Аудиторна робота*	*СРС*	*МКР*	
Макс. 50 балів	Макс. 50 балів	Макс. 50 балів	Макс. 50 балів	Макс. 50 балів	Макс. 50 балів	Макс. 100 балів

**Примітка: Сума балів за аудиторну роботу (50 балів), СРС (50 білів) та МКР поділена на три.*

Результати навчальних досягнень за навчальною дисципліною здобувачів вищої освіти здійснюється за критеріями, що запроваджені в університеті за 100-бальною шкалою, шкалою ЄКТС та національною шкалою, що доводяться до відома здобувачів освіти на першому занятті.

Таблиця 2

Критерії оцінювання аудиторної роботи здобувачів освіти

Оцінка		Стисла характеристика обсягу і якості знань, умінь і навичок
A	45–50	здобувач освіти відповідає на питання, повністю розуміючи його суть, логічну послідовність підпунктів, із залученням великого обсягу фактичного матеріалу. Відповідаючи на додаткові питання, здобувач освіти демонструє навички аргументації та творчого обстоювання власної думки, використовує переконливі та доречні факти, вдається до широких порівнянь та узагальнень, які підтверджують вільне володіння матеріалом. Здобувач освіти наводить висловлювання відомих людей, пов'язаних з питанням. Мова відповідає рівню оцінки.
B	42–44	здобувач освіти відповідає на питання, загалом розуміючи його суть; структура відповіді логічна, використовується великий обсяг фактичного матеріалу. Відповідаючи на додаткові питання, здобувач освіти переконливо викладає власну думку із використанням загальних фактів та прикладів. Мова відповідає рівню оцінки.
C	38–41	здобувач освіти відповідає на питання, загалом розуміючи його суть; структура відповіді логічна; фактичний матеріал достатній для об'єктивного висвітлення проблеми. Відповідаючи на додаткові питання, Здобувач освіти переконливо викладає власну думку із використанням загальних фактів та прикладів. Мова відповідає рівню оцінки.
D	34–37	здобувач освіти відповідає на питання, загалом розуміючи його суть; структура відповіді логічна; фактичний матеріал достатній для об'єктивного висвітлення проблеми, але здобувач освіти демонструє труднощі. Відповідаючи на додаткові питання, здобувач освіти використовує недостатню кількість фактів та прикладів. Мова відповідає рівню оцінки.
E	30–33	здобувач освіти відповідає на питання, недостатньо розуміючи його суть; нелогічна структура відповіді свідчить про слабку підготовку; фактичний матеріал недостатній для об'єктивного висвітлення проблеми. У здобувача освіти виникають труднощі під час відповіді на додаткові питання. Мова відповідає рівню оцінки.
FX	0–29	Здобувач освіти відповідає на питання, недостатньо розуміючи його суть; нелогічна структура відповіді ускладнює викладення фактів; фактичний матеріал недостатній для об'єктивного висвітлення проблеми, здобувач освіти плутає факти, події, поняття, відповідає невпевнено. Здобувач освіти не може відповісти на додаткові питання. Мова відповідає рівню оцінки.

Таблиця 3

Критерії оцінювання самостійної роботи здобувачів освіти
(Презентація та обговорення результатів індивідуальної роботи:
міні-презентація або доповідь-реферат**)**

Оцінка		Стисла характеристика обсягу і якості знань, умінь і навичок
1	2	3
A	45–50	За результатами самостійної роботи добувач освіти робить доповідь, повністю розуміючи суть теми, демонструє логічну послідовність підпунктів, із залученням великого обсягу фактичного матеріалу. Відповідаючи на додаткові питання, здобувач освіти демонструє навички аргументації та творчого обстоювання власної думки, використовує переконливі та доречні факти, вдається до широких порівнянь та узагальнень, які підтверджують вільне володіння матеріалом. Здобувач освіти наводить висловлювання відомих людей, пов'язаних з питанням. Мова відповідає рівню оцінки.
B	42–44	За результатами самостійної роботи добувач освіти робить доповідь, у цілому розуміючи його суть; структура відповіді логічна, використовується великий обсяг фактичного матеріалу. Відповідаючи на додаткові питання, здобувач освіти переконливо викладає власну думку із використанням загальних фактів та прикладів. Мова відповідає рівню оцінки.
C	38–41	За результатами самостійної роботи добувач освіти робить доповідь, у цілому розуміючи його суть; структура відповіді логічна; фактичний матеріал достатній для об'єктивного висвітлення проблеми. Відповідаючи на додаткові питання, здобувач освіти переконливо викладає власну думку із використанням загальних фактів та прикладів. Мова відповідає рівню оцінки.
D	34–37	За результатами самостійної роботи добувач освіти робить доповідь, у цілому розуміючи його суть; структура відповіді логічна; фактичний матеріал достатній для об'єктивного висвітлення проблеми, але здобувач освіти демонструє труднощі під час висвітлення проблеми. Відповідаючи на додаткові питання, здобувач освіти використовує недостатню кількість фактів та прикладів. Мова відповідає рівню оцінки.
E	30–33	За результатами самостійної роботи добувач освіти робить доповідь, недостатньо розуміючи його суть; нелогічна структура відповіді вказує про слабку підготовку; фактичний матеріал недостатній для об'єктивного висвітлення проблеми. У здобувача освіти виникають труднощі під час відповіді на додаткові питання. Мова відповідає рівню оцінки.

Закінчення таблиці 3

1	2	3
FX	0–29	За результатами самостійної роботи добувач освіти робить доповідь, не розуміючи його суть; нелогічна структура відповіді свідчить про слабку підготовку; фактичний матеріал недостатній для об'єктивного висвітлення проблеми. Здобувач освіти відповідає на питання, не розуміючи його суть; нелогічна структура відповіді ускладнює викладення фактів; фактичний матеріал недостатній для об'єктивного висвітлення проблеми, здобувач освіти плутає факти, події, поняття, відповідає невпевнено. Здобувач освіти не може відповісти на додаткові питання. Мова відповідає рівню оцінки.

Таблиця 4

Критерії оцінювання МКР здобувачів освіти

Оцінка		Стисла характеристика обсягу і якості знань, умінь і навичок
A	45–50	Із 50 тестових питань здобувач освіти дає правильні відповіді на 45–50 питань.
B	42–44	Із 50 тестових питань здобувач освіти дає правильні відповіді на 42–44 питання.
C	38–41	Із 50 тестових питань здобувач освіти дає правильні відповіді на 38–41 питання.
D	34–37	Із 50 тестових питань здобувач освіти дає правильні відповіді на 34–37 питань.
E	30–33	Із 50 тестових питань здобувач освіти дає правильні відповіді на 30–33 питання.
FX	0–29	Із 50 тестових питань здобувач освіти дає правильні відповіді на 0–29 питань.

Таблиця 5

Шкала оцінювання: національна та ECTS

Сума балів за всі види навчальної діяльності	Оцінка ECTS	Оцінка за національною шкалою	
		для екзамену, курсового проєкту (роботи), практики	для заліку
90–100	**A**	відмінно	зараховано
82–89	**B**	добре	
75–81	**C**		
69–74	**D**	задовільно	
60–69	**E**		
0–59	**FX**	незадовільно з можливістю повторного складання	не зараховано з можливістю повторного складання

ОРГАНІЗАЦІЯ САМОСТІЙНОЇ РОБОТИ

Самостійна робота здобувачів є важливою формою оволодіння навчальним матеріалом у вільний від обов'язкових навчальних занять час за розкладом. Ця форма організації навчального процесу передбачає виконання здобувачами позапланових завдань під методичним керівництвом викладача, але без його безпосередньої участі.

Під час самостійної роботи здобувач має стати активним учасником навчального процесу, свідомо ставитися до оволодіння теоретичними та практичними знаннями.

Види самостійної роботи здобувачів освіти, форми контролю та звітності

Види самостійної роботи студентів	Форми контролю та звітності
1. Вивчення обов'язкової та додаткової наукової літератури.	1. Активна участь у різних видах аудиторних занять.
2. Виконання домашніх завдань.	2. Перевірка рівня виконання завдань для самостійного опрацювання.
3. Підготовка індивідуального завдання.	3. Перевірка індивідуального завдання (мініпрезентація за темою).

Індивідуальні завдання передбачають підготовку протягом семестру мініпрезентацій або доповідей-рефератів за однією із запропонованих тем:

1. World Englishes: British English
2. World Englishes: American English
3. World Englishes: Canadian English
4. World Englishes: Carribean English
5. World Englishes: Australian English
6. World Englishes: New Zealand English
7. World Englishes: South African English
8. World Englishes: South Asian English
9. World Englishes: Indian English
10. World Englishes: Nigerian English
11. World Englishes: Ugandan English
12. Language situation in the USA
13. Language situation in RSA
14. Language situation in New Zealand
15. Language situation in Australia
16. Language situation in India
17. Language situation in Sierra-Leone

18. Language situation in Nigeria
19. Language situation in the Irish Republic
20. Language situation in Wales
21. Language situation in Scotland
22. Language situation in Northern Ireland

Вимоги до індивідуальних завдань: презентація на 7–10 хвилин або доповідь-реферат на 5000–10000 слів.

ПОЛІТИКА ЩОДО ДОТРИМАННЯ ДЕДЛАЙНІВ ТА ПЕРЕСКЛАДАННЯ

Завдання для самостійної роботи з кожної теми виконуються здобувачами вищої освіти протягом тижня до наступного практичного завдання. За невчасне виконання завдань кількість балів зменшується в два рази незалежно від часу затримки.

Здобувачі, які навчаються за індивідуальним графіком, повинні здавати завдання відповідно до узгодженого графіку очно, у окремих випадках дозволяється використання технічних засобів комунікації, таких як корпоративна пошта Outlook, платформа Moodle, також можуть використовуватися такі засоби комунікації, як Microsoft Teams, Skype тощо.

ПОЛІТИКА ДОТРИМАННЯ АКАДЕМІЧНОЇ ДОБРОЧЕСНОСТІ

Усі види робіт повинні виконуватися здобувачем вищої освіти самостійно, не допускається присвоєння авторства на чужі твори, привласнення чужих ідей, думок та результатів праці, а також використання у своїх працях чужого твору / чужої праці без посилання на автора, інформація повинна бути достовірною і правдивою.

Під час написання письмових тестів та модульних робіт забороняється списувати та використовувати мобільні пристрої.

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2. TEDx Talks – https://www.youtube.com/channel/UCsT0YIqwnpJCM-mx7-gSA4Q
3. Linguistic Society of America – khttps://www.linguisticsociety.org

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14. Плунгян Владимир – Мертвые языки. Електронний ресурс [Режим доступу] : https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vyhowKGRCBU

ENGLISH IN THE MODERN WORLD

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Status as an official language. The extent to which English is spoken in a country is not always reflected in the constitutional status of the language. For instance, in the United States English is not the official language on a federal level though it is in many individual states. There is also a de facto and a de jure meaning of the term ‘official’. If a language is de jure official then its status is anchored in the constitution and issues concerning the language are a matter for the supreme court of the country in question. A de facto official language is one which is treated as if it were legally official, that is it may have the same status in public usage, in government, in education and may receive a similar amount of state support.

In many countries which have been colonies of England there is more than one official language, whether de jure or de facto, that is English and one or more native languages. For instance, in India, Hindi and English are official plus a further local language in states where Hindi is not the native language (although some southern states have denounced Hindi altogether while other states and Union territories have opted for English as their official language despite being non-Hindi-speaking). In Kenya, Swahili and English are official. In Canada, English and French are official in all areas under federal jurisdiction but there are also a series of regionally recognized First Nations languages, though none is constitutionally anchored.

Furthermore, the Province of Quebec has French as its only official language at the provincial level and it is only in areas of federal jurisdiction that English has official status. Regionally recognized languages are common in former colonies in Africa, for example Nigeria and Zambia. However, Cameroon only recognizes English and French officially and Ghana only English. The Philippines has a Spanish and American colonial background and English is an official language along with Filipino. In Ireland, English is the second official language (after Irish, specified in the constitution) although in practice it is the first. England itself does not have an official language as it has no written constitution; however, de facto this is English.

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English as a Second Language is a reference to the teaching of English to individuals who wish to acquire a knowledge of the language for a variety of different reasons. The approach is much broader here than with English for special purposes and is frequently concerned with evolving and testing optimal methods of teaching the language.

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English for Special Purposes is a reference to the teaching of English with a strong focus on the specialist needs of specific learner groups. The particular focus determines such matters as the range of vocabulary and discourse skills communicated to learners.

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Non-native English is any variety of English spoken by those individuals who did not acquire the language under natural conditions in early childhood (*see* native speaker). Historically, this contrasts with settler English in overseas colonies which was spoken, for example in Canada, Australia, South Africa, and so on, by individuals who had acquired the language natively, usually in England, and transferred this to their children at the new location, this then continuing there through the generations. Settler English contrasts with non-native English in many parts of Africa and Asia which was and is acquired by speakers of another language coming into contact with English, usually through the education system in their country. This may lead to a distinct variety of English arising, a second-language variety, which is then used by later generations, some members of which may become native speakers if they are only exposed to this variety in their early childhood through their parents adopting the variety as the home language, a phenomenon to be observed in Singapore and to an increasing extent in South Asia. Even if this does not take place, a second-language variety can stabilize and become focussed, often incorporating structural innovations in grammar and lexis which are shared by the speech community which uses the variety. Non-native English, as spoken by immigrant populations in anglophone countries, has also been studied to see how non-native speakers pick up vernacular features around them, cf. Drummond's studies of Polish speakers' use of colloquial English in Manchester.

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Englishes. This word is now used as a countable, qualifiable noun, cf. *Canadian English, Hong Kong English, Welsh English, East Anglian English,* and often refers to groups of varieties, for example *New Englishes, Asian Englishes, Celtic Englishes*.

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World English is a general term referring to English as spoken throughout all five continents. The reference is usually to that core of language which is common to all varieties of English and which contains no specific features of any one variety. This amount of English is frequently that used by non-natives as a lingua franca when they are communicating with each other. The use in the plural, that is as *World Englishes*, has gained currency in recent years and refers to international, non-native forms of English which are not bound to settler varieties overseas or traditional dialects of

English. The term deliberately does not imply a connection with British or American English nor does it suggest an association with English cultural history. Although not explicitly stated, the term seems to exclude historically continuous forms of English such as Canadian or Australian English. In the European context, the term *Euro English* (in the singular) can sometimes be found with similar connotations. References to 'World English(es)' are often seen in the context of teaching English as an international language, for the purpose of global communication. There are dedicated journals dealing with matters which fall within the scope of World English, such as *World Englishes* and *English Today*. There are also corpora dedicated to the collection of data on standard English from different countries, notably those contained in the *International Corpus of English* project and in others such as the *Santa Barbara Corpus of Spoken American English* or the *Australian National Corpus*.

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New Dialect Formation is a historical process whereby a new focussed variety arises from a series of dialect inputs, for example in New Zealand in the late nineteenth century. The analysis of this process has been primarily associated with the work of the British sociolinguist Peter Trudgill who has postulated the following stages: (1) rudimentary levelling, (2a) extreme variability, (2b) further levelling, (3) focussing. Thus, new dialect formation has as its beginning a mixture of dialects and as its end point a single new dialect. In the context of New Zealand, new dialect formation took place after the initial immigration of speakers from different regions of the British Isles. This was a process of dialect mixture in which, over just a few generations, a focussed variety arose which was then uniform and distinct from any other existing varieties of English. While the progression from input to output is uncontroversial, the question of just what input features survived into the later focussed variety has been a matter of scholarly debate. Trudgill's stance is deterministic: the quantitative representation of features across speakers of input dialects (given in percentages) determines whether they become part of the output (with an appeal to linguistic markedness to explain the survival of minority variants such as schwa in the trusted lexical set). For example, if a feature was used by more than 50 per cent across the English, Scottish and Irish communities of early anglophone New Zealand, then it survived. For this to have worked, early anglophone New Zealand society would have had to be uniform with contact among all speakers. Trudgill did not consider the status of immigrants (the English generally emigrated as families, the Irish and Scots as individuals) or local concentrations (Scots in Otago and Southland, Irish in Westland, Nelson, Hawke's Bay and Auckland). Importantly, he disputed the role of social factors for the young in following generations, for example the fact that New Zealand was a British colony and hence south-east English features would have been favoured by later generations; he also vigorously rejected any embryonic

identity function for the combination of features which emerged in the later focussed variety. In addition, there is no evidence that in a scenario where sociolinguistic factors apparently played no role the quantitative occurrence of a feature across the early communities would determine its survival. It might very well be that in such a situation, if it ever obtained, the survival of features might be random. Other critical assessments of Trudgill's views have been presented. Many scholars postulate that new dialect formation took place at different locations and have examined the rise of overseas varieties from this perspective: Dollinger is an example discussing early Canadian English; Bekker has considered the situation in the north of later South Africa in the late nineteenth century; Wolfram, Carter and Moriello examine the emergence of Hispanic English in the Atlantic South of the United States. Schneider in his examination of post-colonial English deals with the issue as well. The New Dialect Formation model has also been applied to analysing non-standard varieties within Britain.

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New Englishes is a cover term, in use since the early 1980s, which refers to varieties of English spoken in countries which have a colonial past but no significant numbers of settlers who would have transmitted native-speaker English to later generations. In such countries, typically located in Africa and Asia, the standard of English can be high, due to the promotion of the language in primary education. Indeed, in cases like Singapore, near-native competence appears to have been reached by large sections of the population and for a significant proportion English is now the language of the home. New Englishes show a strong influence of the background languages spoken in a region, for example of Hokkien Chinese, Malay or Tamil in Singapore. English is frequently acquired in an unguided fashion in regions with 'New Englishes' (language shift). Because of the often restricted nature of the input, certain features may be at a premium: topicalization through fronting to highlight new information in an exchange (*It's wedding of my brother soon*); left dislocation of the given information can also be found (*My brother, there is wedding soon*). Also, characteristic is the backgrounding of morphology and complex syntax as is the preference for word order over inflection and for parataxis over hypotaxis. Use of intonation rather than syntax in interrogative sentences (*You like new car?*) is also common, as is an adherence to natural order in syntax (*He drink much wine when he come home* rather than *After he come home, he drink much wine*).

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Overseas varieties is a cover term for any variety of English outside the British Isles; the term does not refer to Scottish or Irish English. These varieties arose primarily due to emigration as in North America and the Southern Hemisphere (South Africa,

Australia and New Zealand). However, in parts of Africa and Asia, where there was a colonial administration but not significant numbers of settlers, second-language English was, and still is, spoken by the native population, for example in Nigeria, Kenya, India, Singapore and Malaysia. The extent to which English is used in these countries now and the level of competence speakers have depends on different factors, chiefly the status of English in the particular post-colonial country and its use in education and public life. Table 14 lists factors which have determined the shape of different kinds of overseas varieties. The term 'overseas' is geographical and should not be interpreted as implying any anglocentricity.

Factors determining overseas varieties

(1) Dialect input and the survival of features from a mainland source or sources.
(2) Independent developments within the overseas communities, including realignments of features in the dialect input.
(3) Contact phenomena where English speakers coexisted with those of other languages.
(4) An indirect influence through the educational system in those countries in which English arose without significant numbers of native-speaker settlers.
(5) Creolization in those situations where there was little or no linguistic continuity and where virtually the only input was an English-lexifier pidgin, based on English, from a preceding generation.

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New World varieties is a cover term for English spoken in the Caribbean, United States and Canada. The English concern with the New World and the beginning of English settlement there did not start in earnest until after 1600. Sir Humphrey Gilbert reinforced the English claim to eastern Canada by travelling to Newfoundland in 1583; English settlements arose along the eastern coast of the later United States, for example at Jamestown in Virginia in 1607. Finally, the English established a bridgehead in the Caribbean with the settlement of St Kitts and Barbados in the south-east in the 1620s. The seventeenth century brought a considerable expansion of the English presence in the New World, often to the detriment of claims by other European powers, for example England took Jamaica from the Spanish in 1655 (formally ceded in 1670) and obtained New York (then New Amsterdam) from the Dutch in 1664. There was competition with the French for hegemony in Canada throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, which led in 1774 to the establishment of the large French-speaking province Quebec, which became part of the Canadian Federation in 1867. Among the motives for the original settlement of North America was the desire for political and religious freedom by the Puritans in New England in the early seventeenth century, and the wish to gain land and hence economic improvement. Later emigration, that is after the eighteenth

century, was motivated purely by economic necessity as with the large exodus of southern Irish to the United States in the second half of the nineteenth century.

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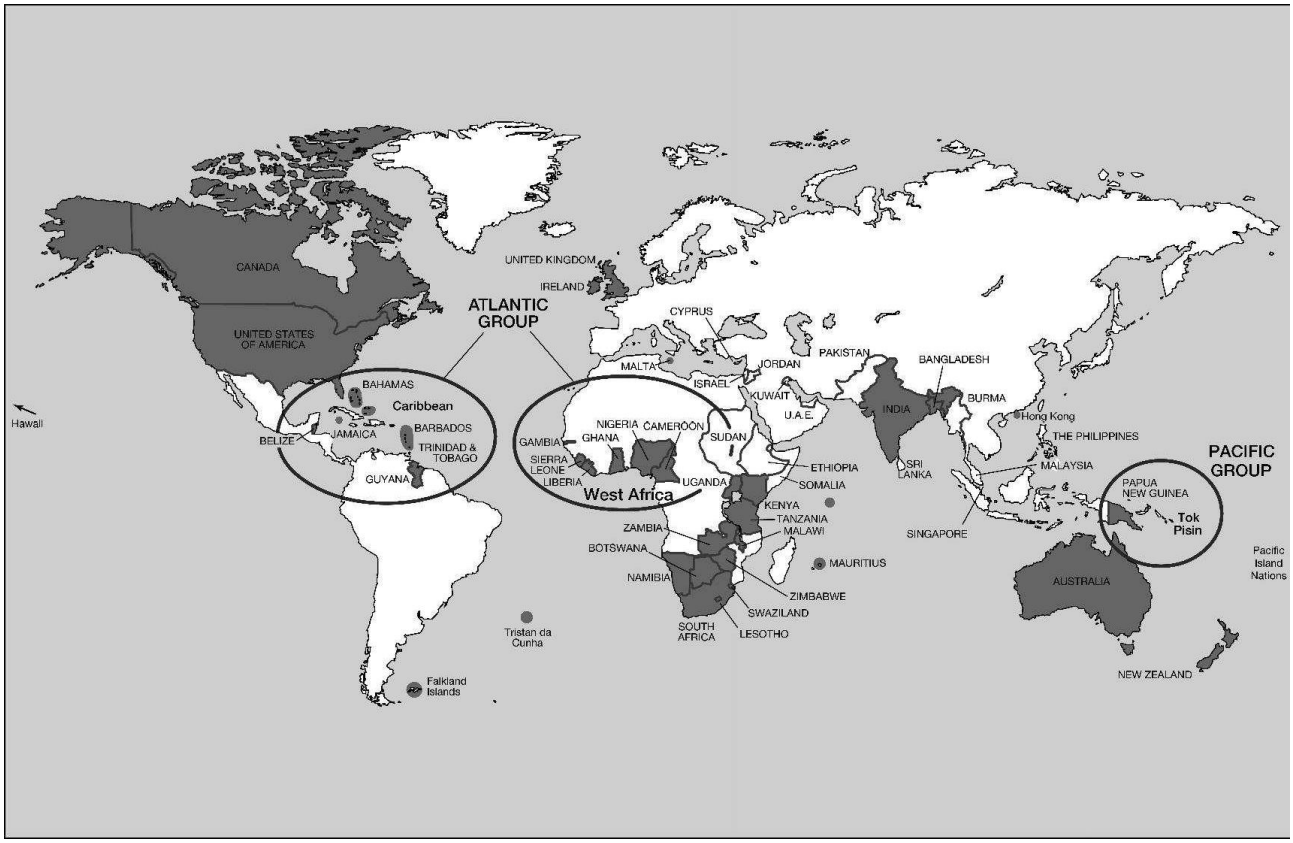
Settlement patterns. The development of English at overseas locations depended on the speakers emigrating and the kinds of English they transported. The nature of the conditions at the new locations also played an essential role. The former colonies differ greatly in their size, climate, topography, economy and demography and these are factors which determined the characteristics of new forms of English there. Early settlement overseas was naturally in coastal areas. In general, these regions show the most conservative type of English. This is as true of the east of Ireland as it is of the Atlantic coast of the United States and Canada. The further history of English at new locations is determined by migration routes taken. In the United States there was initially a general movement down along the Atlantic coast and somewhat inland with a fan-like spread into the interior beyond the Appalachians with a later movement across from the east coast to the region of the Great Lakes. With the Lewis and Clark expedition (1804–1806) a mid-west to northern route to the Pacific was established opening up the west to white settlement in the nineteenth century. In Canada, given the geography of the country, the position was different. The early settlement of Newfoundland by Irish and West Country immigrants and that of Nova Scotia did not lead to a comparable diffusion into the interior. Instead, later immigration occurred through the ports in the St. Lawrence estuary and from there into south-central Canada. In South Africa the topography allowed for a much more evenly distributed pattern of early settlement by British immigrants in the Western and Eastern Cape. These settlers carried more vernacular varieties of English whereas the later settlement of the Natal in the Durban area after 1848 was characterized by an increasing standardness of the imported varieties. The north of South Africa and other interior parts of southern Africa were explored and settled later in the nineteenth century as were regions of West and East Africa. For Australia the area of initial white settlement was the south-east of the country (present-day New South Wales) with the west around Perth and the north following later. In New Zealand organized settlement after the Treaty of Waitangi in 1840 was fairly evenly distributed across the two islands.

AREAS OF THE WORLD WITH PIDGINS AND CREOLES



LANGUAGE CONTACT WITH ENGLISH

Varieties of English can be classified as 'high-contact' and 'low-contact' varieties (labels favoured by the British sociolinguist Peter Trudgill). Speakers can come in contact for a number of reasons. Formerly, invasion by a foreign power led to contact between invaders and the invaded. More recently, immigration to a country, frequently in search of work, is a common cause of contact. The results of language contact depend on a variety of factors, not least the relative social standing of the groups involved, the question of power and prestige for the speakers, the relatedness of the languages in contact and the age of the speakers who experience the contact. Contact can be transient or intensive, it can be short-lived or last centuries. It can lead to language shift (one of the languages is abandoned by its native speakers). The levels of language involved (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary) and the way in which they are affected can lead to different results in different situations. The effects of contact are most obvious in lexical borrowing. Phonological and grammatical features may also stem from contact, but this can be more difficult to demonstrate, especially for syntax as often there is not only one explanation for the features in question.

Classification of language contact scenarios

(1) Indirect 'cultural' contact, no speaker interaction (English and other languages today). Contact, but little if any bilingualism (French and Middle English in late medieval times).	Only loanwords, 'cultural borrowings'. No effect on the grammar of the receiving language.
(2) Contact with strong speaker interaction. Approximation of one or both languages (late Old English and Old Norse).	Koinézation or dialect levelling, some structural permeation with typologically similar languages.
(3) Contact with language shift (Irish > English; Bhojpuri/Tamil > English [South Africa]; Native American languages > English [United States, Canada]).	'Speech habits' of outset transferred to target, grammatical interference found in non-prescriptive environments (without formal education).
(4) Contact but restricted input, unguided acquisition (with creoles in the Caribbean and many islands of the Pacific), no continuity of indigenous languages.	Pidginization, grammatical restructuring; creolization, if the pidgin is continued as the mother tongue of a later generation.

Major contact scenarios in the anglophone world

Country	*Language(s)*	*Contact variety*
England	Jamaican Creole	British Black Creole
	South Asian languages British Indian	Pakistani English
	Chinese	British Chinese English
Wales	Welsh	Welsh English
Scotland	Scottish Gaelic	Contact Scottish English
Ireland	Irish	Contact Irish English
Channel Islands	French	Channel Islands English
Gibraltar	Spanish	Gibraltar English
Malta	Maltese	Maltese English
Canada	Quebec French	Quebec English
	Inuktitut	Inuit English
United States	Spanish	Chicano English, New York Latino English, other Hispanic varieties
	French	Cajun English
	German	Amish English
	Yiddish	Yiddish English
West African states	Bantu languages of the area	Cameroon, Nigerian, Ghanaian, Liberian, Sierra Leone English
East African states	Bantu languages of the area	Ugandan, Kenyan, Tanzanian, English
Southern African states	Bantu and Khoisan languages of the area	Namibian, Botswana, Zimbabwean English, Zambian, Malawi, Lesotho, Swaziland English
South Africa	Afrikaans	Afrikanns English
	Bhojpuri, Tamil	Indian South African English
	Bantu and Khoisan languages of the area	Black South African English
Australia	Aboriginal languages	Aboriginal Australian English
New Zealand	Maori	Maori English
India	Indo-Aryan and Dravidian languages	Indian English
Pakistan	Urdu, Panjabi, etc.	Pakistan English
Malaysia	Malay	Malaysian English
Singapore	Chinese, Malay, Tamil	Singlish
Hong Kong	Cantonese, Mandarin	Hong Kong English
The Philippines	Tagalog (and other Austronesian languages)	Taglish

PIDGINS AND CREOLS

During the colonial period pidgins arose in contact situations, typically trade, between Europeans – soldiers, sailors, tradesmen – and native populations. The latter were more or less forced to develop some form of communication with the former. This consisted of a much restricted form of the colonial language as it initially served the sole purpose of communicating with the colonists. The lexicon of a pidgin is usually taken from the lexifier language (the European one in question) and its grammar may derive from native input (such as the languages of West Africa during the slave trade with the Caribbean and America) and from vernacular varieties of English. The further development of a pidgin is a creole, the first language of a later generation, although this stage does not have to be reached if there is no necessity or pressure to develop a native language. If a creole does arise, its speakers may develop their own grammatical structures apparently using an innate blueprint which many linguists assume speakers have from birth.

The process of pidginization is very common in any non-prescriptive situation in which a common means of communication is called for. Such a variety can die out quickly once the situation which gave rise to it no longer obtains. If the situation does continue to exist, then the pidgin is likely to survive. The steps from restricted to extended pidgin and further to creole are only taken in very few instances. Hence the grammatical restructuring typical of creoles is normally only carried out by a small number of input pidgins.

Scenarios for the development of pidgins and creoles.

Social situation	*Linguistic correlate*
(1) Marginal contact	Restricted pidgin
(2) Nativization	Extended pidgin
(3) Mother tongue development	Creole
(4) Movement towards more standard language (not necessarily input language)	Decreolization

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THEORIES OF PIDGINS ORIGIN

Various theories have been proposed in the last hundred years or so. There are basically five which show a degree of overlap.

(1) *The baby-talk theory* At the end of the nineteenth century Charles Leland (1824–1903), when discussing China coast pidgin English, noted that there were many similarities with the speech of children such as the following features: (i) a high percentage of content words with a correspondingly low number of function words; (ii) little morphological marking; (iii) more flexible word classes than in adult language

(with much conversion); (iv) a reduced set of contrasts in the area of pronouns; (v) a minimal number of inflections. Later linguists, notably Otto Jespersen (1860–1943) and Leonard Bloomfield (1887–1949), maintained that the characteristics of pidgins resulted from imperfect mastery of a language. These views are not supported nowadays and are not entirely free of racism.

However, the observed features are often characteristic of pidgins. (2) *Independent parallel development theory* This maintains that the obvious similarities between the world's pidgins and creoles arose on independent but parallel lines due to the fact that they (nearly) all are derived from languages of Indo-European stock and, in the case of the Atlantic varieties, due to their sharing a common West African substrate. Furthermore, scholars like Robert Hall (1911–1997) specified that the similar social and physical conditions under which pidgins arose were responsible for the development of similar linguistic structures.

(3) *Nautical jargon theory* As early as 1938 the American linguist John Reinecke (1904–1982) noted the possible influence of nautical jargon on pidgins. On voyages overseas many nationalities were represented among the crews of ships. This led to the development of a core vocabulary of nautical items. Later pidgins show many of these lexical items irrespective of where they are spoken. Thus, the word *capsize* appears with the meaning 'turn over' or 'spill' in both West Atlantic and Pacific pidgins. Other nautical terms, which are general words in pidgins, are *heave*, *hoist*, *hail*, *galley*, *cargo*. This theory does not account for the many structural similarities between pidgins with different lexifier languages.

(4) *Monogenesis/ relexification theory* This view maintains that all pidgins can be traced back to a single proto-pidgin, a fifteenth-century Portuguese pidgin, called *sabir* (from the word for 'know'), which itself was probably a relic of the medieval *lingua franca* which was the common means of communication among the Crusaders and traders in the Mediterranean area. *Lingua franca* survived longest on the North African coast and is attested from Algeria and Tunisia as late as the nineteenth century. The monogenesis theory maintains that when Portuguese influence in Africa declined, the vocabulary of the then established pidgins would have been replaced by that of the new colonial language which was dominant in the area, for example English or French. As the Portuguese were among the first traders in India and South-East Asia a similar situation is assumed: the vocabulary of the original Portuguese pidgin was replaced by that of a later European language (relexification). In this process the grammatical structure of pidgins would not have been affected by the switch in vocabulary. Thus, the obvious structural similarity of all pidgins would go back to the grammar of the proto-pidgin. This theory does not explain why pidgins have analytic grammars: there are a number of marginal pidgins (Russenorsk, Eskimo Trade Jargon) which cannot be connected with Portuguese and which are nonetheless analytic in structure.

(5) *Universalist theory* This regards the similarities as due to universal tendencies among humans to create languages of a similar type, that is analytic languages with a simple phonology, SVO syntax with little or no subordination, and with a lexicon which makes maximum use of polysemy (and devices such as reduplication) operating from a limited core vocabulary.

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ORIGIN OF THE TERM

The following are the main views on the origin of the term 'pidgin'. (1) A Chinese pronunciation of *business*. This is known as a term for any action or occupation, cf. *joss-pidgin* 'religion' and *chow-chow-pidgin* 'cooking', and could have been used for a language variety which arose for trading purposes. (2) Portuguese *ocupaiçao* meaning 'trade, job, occupation'. This suggestion is supported by the fact that the Portuguese were among the first overseas traders. However, the shift from the original word to /pɪdʒɪn/ is difficult to explain phonetically. (3) A form from the South American language Yayo '-pidian' meaning 'people' (a claim made by David Kleinecke in 1959). This form occurs in tribal names like 'Mapidian', 'Tarapidian', and so on. This claim rests on a single occurrence of the word 'Pidians' in a text from 1606. But it has been pointed out this might be a spelling error for 'Indians'. (4) Ian Hancock suggested in 1972 that the term derives from 'Pequeno Portugues' which is used in Angola for the vernacular Portuguese spoken there. This view is semantically motivated, seeing that the word 'pequeno' is often used to mean 'offspring', in this case a language derived from another. Phonetically, the shift to /pɪdʒɪn/ is not implausible. (5) The Hebrew word 'pidjom' meaning 'barter'. This suggestion is phonetically and semantically plausible. However, it hinges on the distribution of a Jewish word outside Europe and its acceptance as a general term for a trade language.

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CREOLE

A term used to describe a pidgin after it has become the mother tongue of a certain population. This development usually implies that the pidgin has become more complex grammatically and has increased its vocabulary in order to deal with the entire set of situations in which a native language is used. The increased complexity of creoles is attained through the restructuring of material provided by the pidgin as there is normally no other source of input at the time of creolization.

The term 'creole' comes from French 'créole, criole', in its turn from Spanish 'criollo', itself from Portuguese 'crioulo' which goes back to an Iberian stem meaning 'to nurse, breed, bring up'. The present meaning is 'native to a locality or country'. Originally, it was used (seventeenth century) to refer to Africans born in Brazil, later a

slave born in the colonies. The term then came to refer to the customs and language of those in the colonies and later to any language derived from a pidgin based on a European language, typically English, French, Portuguese, Spanish or Dutch. Now the term refers to any language of this type, irrespective of what the input language has been.

In the scholarly literature there are many definitions of creoles; the following are three main types. (1) *External definition* By this is meant that factors outside a language determine whether it can be labelled a creole or not. External definitions are favoured by some scholars, such as John Holm, who, when examining the varieties of English in the Caribbean, stated: 'no particular set of syntactic features alone will identify a language as a creole without reference to its sociolinguistic history'. (2) *Acquisitional definition* This sees a creole as the language of a generation which developed it from a considerably reduced and imperfectly acquired form of a (colonial) lexifier language. This definition stresses the break with the native language(s) of previous generations. (3) *Structural definition* According to this definition a creole is a language which has undergone considerable restructuring with respect to the lexifier language and probably with regard to the substrate native language(s) as well, if it/they provided input. Restructuring involves a movement towards analytical type and a simplification of morphology (independent morphemes are used for bound morphemes in the grammar of the lexifier language; the latter may be present but afunctional). Restructured languages generally show SVO word order and pre-specification in dyads, that is adjective + noun and genitive + noun. In verb phrases markers for tense and aspect generally precede the verb in question. In fact, basilectal varieties of creole English have no verbal inflections.

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CREOLIZATION

A process whereby the children of pidgin speakers only have a reduced code as their linguistic input and hence remould the pidgin so that it can function as their native language. Implied here is that the input pidgin is expanded to fulfil all functions of a natural language: syntax and vocabulary are greatly extended by restructuring of the input. The external circumstances for creolization typically obtained on plantations in the early colonial period when slaves and their families were kept in relative isolation. This is true of the Caribbean in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Some linguists assume that creolization involves the activation of innate linguistic knowledge and that this provides structures not available in the input pidgins, or at least explains the similarities in default values for many linguistic parameters such as word order or syllable form. The latter fact is often assumed to account for the structural similarity between creoles in the Atlantic and Pacific areas which have not been in contact with each other in history.

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DECREOLIZATION

The process by which a creole loses its characteristic features and substitutes these by those from a standard language it is in contact with (usually, but not necessarily, its lexifier language). This is one view of how African American English developed in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, losing many of those features which are viewed as prototypical of a creole.

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PIDGINS AND CREOLES, ENGLISH-LEXIFIER

The table below lists the main pidgins/creoles in the English-speaking world divided by geographical region. In several cases the status as a creole is contested, that is the variety is regarded as a pidgin.

ATLANTIC

West Africa

West African Pidgin English

Krio	Sierra Leone
Liberian Creole	Liberia
Ghanaian Pidgin	Ghana
Nigerian Pidgin	Nigeria
Kamtok	Cameroon
Fernando Po Creole (Pichinglis)	Bioko (Equatorial Guinea)

Caribbean

North Caribbean; South, South-East United States

Bahamian	Bahamas (north Caribbean)
Gullah	Sea Islands of South Carolina and Georgia
Afro-Seminole	Brackettville (Texas)
early African American English	United States

East/South-East Caribbean

East Caribbean Creole	Leeward Islands
East Caribbean Creole	Dutch Windwards Islands
East Caribbean Creole	Virgin Islands
East Caribbean Creole	Trinidad and Tobago
Bajan	Barbados

West Caribbean

Jamaican Creole	Jamaica
West Caribbean Creole	Cayman Islands (south of Cuba)

Western Rim

Belizean Creole	Belize
Bay Islands Creole	Coastal Honduras (Central America)

		Limón Creole	Costa Rica
		Miskito Coast	Nicaragua
		Central American Creole	San Andrés y Providencia
	Southern Rim		
		Sranan	Suriname
		Saramaccan	Suriname
		Ndjuka	Suriname
		Guyana	Guyana
PACIFIC			
	Central		
		Hawaiian Creole	Hawai‘i
	South		
		Pitkern and Norfuk	Pitcairn and Norfolk
	South-West		
	Melanesian Pidgin English		
		Tok Pisin	Papua New Guinea
		Pijin	Solomon Islands
		Bislama	Vanuatu
	Australia		
		Australian Aboriginal Kriol	Northern Territory of Australia
		Torres Strait Creole	North of Australia

REGIONAL VARIETIES OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

EUROPE

English in Europe Native varieties of English are spoken in continental Europe in (i) the Channel Islands, (ii) Gibraltar and (iii) Malta. The degree of association with England varies: in the first two locations it is very strong while in the last it is much weaker, especially because the inhabitants of Malta primarily speak Maltese and the country has been independent from Britain since 1964. However, there are local non-English vernaculars in the Channel Islands (Guernésiais and Jersiais, forms of Norman French on Guernsey and Jersey respectively) and in Gibraltar (Llanito, a mixture of Andalusian Spanish and English).

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British English is a commonly found term for English in England and often used indiscriminately for English spoken throughout the island of Britain. The difficulty is that there is no common variety of English across England, Wales, and Scotland, especially because the latter shows varieties, along the continuum of Scottish Standard English to Scots, which are very different from forms to the south in England. The term 'British English' is often used in contrast to American English. In this sense the reference is to non-vernacular, relatively 'standard' varieties in southern England, especially in their written form.

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Estuary English is a term, invented by the teacher David Rosewarne and first used in 1984 in a newspaper article, which has since been taken up by academics and the general public. It is a label for varieties of English intermediate between RP and cockney. The term is intended to highlight the fact that many non-vernacular inhabitants of London and the Home Counties move on a cline between the two varieties just mentioned, especially as RP is not necessarily viewed positively in all circles in present-day Britain. The estuary referred to is that of the River Thames and the popularity of the term has certainly to do with the alliteration of the two words of which it consists. The features generally associated with Estuary English can be shown in two tables, one demonstrating its difference to Cockney and one illustrating its difference to RP.

Some lexicalized features may also appear in Estuary English, for example the pronunciation of final /-k/ in words ending in *-thing*, for example *something* [sʌmθɪŋk]. Cluster simplification may also be found as in /nt/ > /n/ intervocalically, for example *twenty* [tweni], *plenty* [pleni].

In recent decades there has been an increasing encroachment of Cockney features into RP. While it is true that features like H-dropping and TH-fronting are stigmatized, there are signs that others, such as HAPPY-tensing, final T-glottalling and possibly L-vocalization as well as yod coalescence, are gaining acceptance among RP speakers.

Features of Estuary English/RP and Cockney.

Estuary English / RP	***Cockney***
no H-dropping no TH-fronting no MOUTH- monophthong no intervocalic T-glottalling intervocalic	H-dropping, for example *hand* [and] TH-fronting, for example *think* [fɪŋk] MOUTH-monophthong, for example *town* [t_ːn] T-glottalling, for example *pity* [pɪʔi]
Estuary English	***Cockney Received Pronunciation***
variable HAPPY-tensing, for example *pretty* [ˈprɪti]	no HAPPY-tensing
vocalization of preconsonantal, final /l/, for example *help* [heʊp]	no vocalization of preconsonantal, final /l/
final T-glottalling, for example *cut* [kʌʔ]	no final T-glottalling
yod coalescence in stressed syllables, for example *tune* [tʃuːn]	no yod coalescence in stressed syllables
some diphthong shift in FACE, PRICE, GOAT, for example [faɪs], [prɒɪs], [gʌɔt]	no such diphthong shift

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Northern English. The north of England is somewhat more conservative in its phonology compared to the south and has not gone through many of the changes found in the latter area. The two most obvious of these are (1) the lowering of Early Modern English /ʊ/ to /ʌ/, for example [kʊt] for [kʌt] *cut* (see foot-strut split); (2) the lengthening of low vowels before voiceless fricatives, for example [pas] for [pɑːs] *pass*. Some varieties have not undergone the Great Vowel Shift, retaining /u:/ for a subset of the MOUTH lexical set. The FACE and GOAT vowels are [e:] and [o:] respectively in the lower north, but in the far north the diphthongs [iə] and [uə] are found. The vowels of the FORCE and NORTH lexical sets can have open realizations, for example *course* [kɒːs]. Other features apply to sub-varieties of the north, for example the fronting of mid-back vowels in Hull as in *home* [ho:m]. Wales is a general survey of northern English.

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Scottish English. A constituent part of the United Kingdom, in the north of Britain, with an independent legal and educational system and after the Scotland Act of 1998 its own parliament as part of the devolved system of government. Scotland has an area of 78,000 sq km and a population of approximately 5.3 million. The capital is Edinburgh

in the east while Glasgow in the west is the largest city. Most of the population lives in the Central Belt, the broad region between the two major cities. South of this is the Borders area immediately north of the border with England. North of the Central Belt are the mountainous Highlands which are often linked with the western Islands in contrast to the Lowlands further south. Orkney and Shetland are two groups of islands in the far north and dialectally separate from mainland Scotland. English is the de facto official language with Scottish Gaelic and Scots two further languages with a long history in Scotland; there are also many other languages in present-day Scotland due to recent immigration just as in England. The label *Scotland* is connected with Latin *Scotii* which was originally a term for the Irish, who settled the western coast of Scotland and Christianized it before England was converted from the south in the seventh century CE. Scotland has an English tradition which goes back to eighth-century Anglian which spread up from the south during the Old English period. This yielded Scots in the area of present-day south-central Scotland. The historical advance of English in Scotland was at the cost of Gaelic which was pushed back out of the Lowlands into the Highlands north of the Firth of Forth and into the south-west where it survived into the eighteenth century. A further language, Norn, derived from Old Norse, was spoken on the Orkney and Shetland islands and to a lesser extent on the adjacent mainland; it finally disappeared in the eighteenth century. Distinctive urban varieties are found in major cities, above all Glasgow and Edinburgh. The term 'Scottish Standard English' covers supraregional varieties which are closest to southern English English. The features listed below apply to strongly vernacular varieties.

Phonology (1) The GOOSE vowel may be monophthongal, not distinctively long and generally fronted to a mid high position, for example *soon* /sun/ [sʉn]. (2) The STRUT vowel is normally lowered and unrounded, for example *cut* [cʌt] but the members of this set need not always be the same as those in southern English English. (3) There is a tendency for short front vowels to be lowered, for example *bit* [bet], *sick* [sek]; this includes the final vowel in HAPPY: [hape] (western Central Belt, otherwise more raised). (4) A distinction between /a/ and /ɑ:/ is not usual, with a central /a/ the more common realization of both the TRAP and the BATH vowels (length depends on the scottish vowel length rule). (5) Glottalization of /t/ is frequent, especially in final position, for example *that* [ðaʔ]. (6) /θ/ has a common realization prevocalically as [h] as in *think* [hɪŋk]; intervocalically /ð/ appears as a tap [ɾ], for example in *brother, mother,* in Glasgow vernacular varieties. (7) /r/ is often slightly retroflex and close to a fricative; it may be devoiced in final position and occasionally rolled, especially in emphatic contexts. (8) /l/ is usually velarized in syllable codas. (9) A lack of vowel length contrasts is common so that words like *full* and *fool* may be homophones (*see* Scottish vowel length rule). (10) The *wh* sound [ʍ] still distinguishes words like *which* and *witch*. (11) /e/ corresponds to English /o:/ in words like *home*, *ghost* (Old English /ɑ:/ was fronted and

raised in Scotland). (12) There is a distinction between front and back short vowels before /r/ as in *germ* /dʒɛrm/ and *burn* /bʌrn/ and also a further distinction among pre-rhotic short front vowels so that *fern* and *fir* have different vowels (except in Edinburgh). (13) The inherited sound /x/ is found in traditional varieties (closer to Scots) and in many place names and family names where speakers of Scottish Standard English may also have the fricative, though this is recessive, for example *Murdoch* [mʌrdɔx] / [mʌrdɔk]. The absence of Old English palatalization of /k, g/ has meant that there is a /k, g/ – /tʃ, dʒ/ contrast in word pairs like *kirk* and *church*, *rigg* and *ridge*.

Morphology (1) Differences in the distribution of regular and irregular verbs, for example *sellt* 'sold', *tellt* 'told', *writ* 'wrote'. (2) Old nasal plurals are still found, for example *een* 'eyes', *shin* 'shoes'. (3) *Yous* or *yous yins* occur as second personal pronouns. (4) The clitic *-na/-nae* corresponds to *not*, for example *She cannae (= cannot) leave now*. *He isnae (= isn't) at home*.

Grammar (1) Modal *will* tends to stand for both *shall* and *may*. (2) The passive is often formed with *get*: *I got told off* and *get* expresses necessity in sentences like *You've got to speak to her*. (3) Epistemic *must* is used positively and negatively: *She must not be Scottish* (= *She can't be Scottish*). (4) Future negation is formed with independent *not* rather than the clitic form of modal and *not*: *She'll not go home* (= *She won't go home*). (5) Singular verbs occur with plural nouns, for example *My glasses is broken*. (6) Singular nouns occur after measure words, for example *Twenty pound, Ten mile away*.

Lexis There are borrowings from Gaelic, *loch* 'lake', *sonsy* 'healthily attractive' and Old Norse, *bairn* 'child', as well as many Scottish usages such as *outwith* 'outside', *pinkie* 'little finger'. The major lexicographical works are (1) *A Dictionary of the Older Scottish Tongue* from the twelfth to the end of the seventeenth century, (2) *The Scottish National Dictionary* (from 1700 to the present day). *The Concise Scots Dictionary* is an abridged work with material from the first two dictionaries. There is an online version of (1) and (2). A major survey of Scots is *The Linguistic Atlas of Scotland* (resulting from the former research project 'The Linguistic Survey of Scotland' located at the University of Edinburgh); it consists of two volumes on lexis and one on phonology.

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Welsh English is spoken in Wales is closer to southern English English than are either Scottish or Irish English. The language has been spoken in southern Wales from at least the early Middle Ages. In addition, Anglo-Norman (the medieval form of French in England) was strong in this area. The anglicization of Wales, especially in southern urban centres has proceeded steadily since the Acts of Union (1535 and 1542, more accurately the Laws in Wales Acts) passed during the reign of the Tudor king Henry VIII.

Phonology (1) Long vowels tend to occur only in stressed syllables. (2) There is little distinction in length among low vowels in words like *grand* and *grass* which show

a central [a]. (3) A central schwa is found for the /ʌ/-vowel in words like *cut*, *but* /kət/, /bət/. (4) Long final vowels occur such as /iː/ in *sorry* /sɒriː/. (5) Yod before /uː/ is often deleted as in *regulate* /rɛgʊleɪt/. (6) Southern Welsh English is *h*-less whereas Northern Welsh English tends to be *h*-ful. (7) Northern varieties may also show dental realizations of /t, d, n/ due to Welsh influence. (8) In the south a clear /l/ is commonly used for all positions (initially and finally) whereas in the north a velarized /ɬ/ is found. (9) In the south-west initial fricative voicing, for example *first, four* with /v-/ is found. (10) After short stressed vowels, consonants can be lengthened, for example *thinble* [θɪmmbl̩]. (11) Welsh English is non-rhotic so that NEAR and CURE show falling diphthongs. (12) Considerable pitch movement is common across different varieties of Welsh English.

Grammar and lexis (1) Left dislocation is used for highlighting sentence elements, for example *Books on linguistics he is keen on reading*. (2) Multiple negation occurs as in *We don't speak no English in the home*. (3) *As* can function as a relative pronoun, *The woman as went abroad*. (4) *Them* acts as a demonstrative adjective, *Them men who sing so well*. (5) *Isn't it?* is a general tag, for example *I've heard the word, isn't it?* (6) A non-standard use of *there* + adjective, for example *There's nice to see you*. (7) Inversion in embedded sentences, for example *I don't know what is that*. There are also a few specific Welsh lexical items such as *bach* and *gel* as terms of endearment.

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Orkney and Shetland English. Varieties of English spoken in the two groups of islands off the north-eastern shore of Scotland, known together as the Northern Isles, with an area of 1,468 sq km; the main towns are Kirkwall and Lerwick respectively. These islands were under the strong influence of Old Norse from the ninth century onwards after the islands were conquered by the Vikings. A form of Old Norse – Norn – survived until the eighteenth century. English exists as a continuum between Scottish Standard English and the traditional dialect of the islands. The Scottish vowel length rule applies more to English in Shetland than in Orkney. Front vowels, especially in the KIT set, have lowered realizations. Shetland English shows a complementary distribution of consonants and vowels maintaining equal syllable rhyme length as in *back* [bak:] and *baulk* [ba:k] (a relic of Norn and still a feature of Norwegian and Swedish). Retroflexion of /s/ after /r/ is found in words like *force, purse, nurse* all with [−ɻ ʂ]. The NORTH and FORCE lexical sets are distinguished. MOUTH words have a range from /u/ to /əu/. The STRUT vowel is generally rounded, for example *done* [dɔ̈n]. The stops /t, d/ tend to be realized as dentals. WH is generally [ʍ] and in west Shetland it can be [kw], leading to hypercorrections like [ʍin] for *queen*. Among the salient grammatical features are (1) the use of non-standard verbal *-s* in the plural; (2) *be* rather than *have* as an auxiliary; (3) the presence of a second person singular pronoun: *du/dee* (Shetland) and *thu/thoo*

(Orkney); (4) lack of modal/auxiliary + negator contraction, for example *A'm no ready yet*; (5) archaic plural forms, for example *een* 'eyes' *shụn* 'shoes', *kye* 'cows'.

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British Black English is a term for the varieties of English spoken by the black population of England. It usually refers to the type of English used by the descendants of Jamaicans who came to England in the 1950s and 1960s and who mainly settled in the London area. It is a continuum of varieties with the most basilectal form showing typical features of Caribbean creoles such as syllable-timing, TH-stopping, a reduced vowel system lacking systemic length distinctions, retention of *unu* as a second person plural pronoun and post-velar pre-ASH palatalization, for example *gyal* for *girl*. The term 'British Creole' is also common in the literature.

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Cockney is the urban dialect of London, covering a range of vernacular varieties. The name derives from 'cocks' egg', that is something impossible, a self-debunking term used by Londoners for their own speech. Cockney developed separately from the precursor varieties of RP which had their origin in the late medieval English of the capital. In the early modern period these varieties became a closely-knit set of prestigious sociolects used in official quarters and in the educational system. Cockney continued many changes which have their roots in late Middle English, for instance it has carried the great vowel shift further than RP. Cockney is also known for rhyming slang.

Phonology (1) H-dropping, for example *hand* [and]; (2) TH-fronting, for example *think* [fɪŋk]; (3) MOUTH-monophthongization, for example *town* [tɛːn]; (4) intervocalic T-glottalling, for example *pity* [ˈpɪʔi] and final T-glottalling, for example *cut* [kʌʔ]; (5) vocalization of preconsonantal, final /l/, for example *spilt* [spɪʊt]; (6) variable HAPPY-tensing, for example *pretty* [ˈprɪʔi]; (7) yod coalescence in stressed syllables, for example *tune* [tʃuːn]; (8) diphthong shifts in FACE, PRICE, GOAT, for example [faɪs] (RP: [feɪs]), [prɒɪs] (RP: [prais]), [gʌɔt] (RP: [gəʊt]).

Some lexicalized features may also appear in Estuary English, for example the pronunciation of final /-k/ in words ending in *-thing*, for example *something* [sʌmθɪŋk]. Cluster simplification may also be found as in /nt/ > /n/ intervocalically, for example *twenty* [tweni], *plenty* [pleni].

In recent decades there has been an increasing encroachment of Cockney features into RP. While it is true that features like H-dropping and TH-fronting are stigmatized, there are signs that others, such as HAPPY-tensing, final T-glottalling and possibly L-vocalization as well as yod coalescence, are gaining acceptance among RP speakers.

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Gaelic and Highland English is a term for varieties of English spoken in the north of Scotland either by speakers of Scottish Gaelic or by people whose non-too-distant ancestors used this language. These varieties show the influence of Scottish Gaelic, chiefly in syntax, and are distinct from Scots, spoken in the south, east and north-east of Scotland. It is also distinct from Scottish Standard English.

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Irish English is a cover term for varieties of English spoken in Ireland. There are a sufficient number of shared features on all levels of language across the forms of English throughout the entire island to justify a single term on a top level (see Hickey 2012b [3.3] for a discussion of such areal features in Ireland). On the next level below this, a distinction can be made between English in Ulster (both Ulster English and Ulster Scots) and varieties in the south. The latter can in turn be subdivided into (i) an east-coast dialect area, from Dublin to the south-east corner, reflecting the period of earliest English settlement, and (ii) the south-west, west and north-west which are areas in which the Irish language survived longest and where varieties are spoken which show many features deriving from the historical shift from Irish to English. In the following a presentation of consensus features for most varieties in Ireland is given with regional distinctions mentioned where necessary; see also the comments on northern Irish English in Irish English, northern.

Pronunciation (1) TH-stopping, usually as dental stops, though alveolar stops are common in the rural south, for example *thin* [t̪ɪn/tɪn], *this* [d̪ɪs/dɪs], and are generally stigmatized. The dental stops may well be a transfer from Irish where the realizations of /t, d/ are dental; fricative realizations are more common in the north though they are found in final position in reading styles in the south. (2) T-lenition normally results in an apico-alveolar fricative [t̺] in intervocalic and post-vocalic, prepausal position, for example *city* [sɪti̺], *cut* [kʌt̺]. The apical [t̺] is distinct from the laminal [s] so that *kit* and *kiss* are not homophones. Lenition extends to [ʔ, h, r] or zero in local Dublin English. (3) Rural vernaculars still distinguish between [ʍ] (voiceless) and [w] (voiced) so that *which* and *witch* would not be homophones. (4) Again conservative varieties have an alveolar [l], including older supraregional speech, but more recent varieties show velarization or pharyngealization of syllable-final /l/. (5) /r/ is now retroflex [ɻ] in young supraregional speech but used to be a bunched, velarized variant [ɹ˞]. (6) Vowels generally show less diphthongization than in southern English English, but in young female speech the GOAT-vowel can be [əʊ]. (7) The TRAP and BATH sets are distinguished more by length than quality and a retracted [ɑː] in the latter set is not used: [tɹap/tɹap], [baːt̪/baːt̪]. (8) The STRUT vowel is retracted and maybe slightly rounded, that is [stɹʌ̈t̺ / stɹɔ̈t̺].

Morphology (1) A distinction between second person pronouns is normal either by using *ye* [ji] (non-vernacular) or *youse* [juz], *yez* [jiz] (vernacular) for the plural; singular *you* is reduced to [jə] colloquially. (2) Verbal *-s* is common in the third person plural: *The boys always gets up late* (see iterative habitual below) and categorical with existential *there* in nearly all speech styles: *There's lots of cars outside*. (3) *Them* is used as a demonstrative: *Them cars are really fast*. (4) *Amn't* is widespread as contracted *am not*, for example *Amn't I great now?*

Syntax Many aspectual distinctions exist: (i) the *after*-perfective reports a recent action of high informational value: *He's after smashing the window*. (ii) The resultative perfective reports that a planned action has been completed and avails of the word order Object + Part Participle: *She has the soup made* 'She has finished making the soup'. (iii) The durative habitual is expressed in southern Irish English via *do* + V-*ing*: *She does be worrying about the children* (in the north via *bees*, *see* Irish English, northern); the iterative habitual is expressed via verbal *-s*: *They calls this place City Square*. The use of these habituals is generally confined to vernacular varieties or a vernacular mode with supraregional speakers. (iv) Subordinating *and* has a concessive or restrictive meaning: *We went out walking and it raining*. (v) Clefting by fronting a sentence element, introduced by *It's*, is widespread: *It's to Dublin he's gone today. It's her brother who rang up this morning*. The sources of these structures have been the subject of much scholarly debate: (i) and (iv) are calques on Irish structures; (ii) may also be, given the same word order and meaning in Irish; (iii) may have received support from the category of habitual in Irish, the exponence of which is very different, however; (v) in its range was probably influenced by Irish where clefting is very common.

Vocabulary Irish English lexis can derive from English dialect input, for example *mitch* 'truant', *chisler* 'child', *hames* 'mess' (of Dutch origin) or from archaic pronunciation, for example [baul] (admiringly) for *bold* and [aul] (affectionately) for *old*, *eejit* /iːdʒət/ for *idiot*. Word pairs with complementary meanings are often confused: *ditch* is used for *dyke*, *bring* for *take*, *rent* for *let*; *learn* can be used for *teach* colloquially (*That'll learn ya*). Older usages are also found, for example *mad* for 'angry with', *sick* for 'ill', *bold* for 'misbehaved'. Phrasal verbs can have meanings not found elsewhere, for example *give out* 'complain'. Words can stem from Irish, for example *cog* (< Irish *cogair* 'whisper'), *twig* (< Irish *tuigim* 'understand'), *brogue* 'country accent', *gob* 'mouth', *smithereens* 'broken pieces', *blarney* (place name) 'flattery, sweet talk'. Many Irish words are used directly, for example *ciúineas* 'silence', *piseog* 'superstition' (Anglicized as *pishogue*), *sláinte* 'health' or *plámás* 'flattery' (the practice of interspersing one's speech with the odd Irish word is known as using the *cúpla focal*, Irish 'couple of words'). Specific uses of English would include *crack* (< Irish *craic*, itself a borrowing from English) 'social enjoyment', *yoke* 'thing, device'. Some Irish words appeared in American English in the nineteenth century, for example *slew* (< Irish *slua* 'crowd').

The phrase *so long!* may be from Irish *slán* ‘goodbye’ with the velarized [ɬ] suggesting an initial unstressed syllable: [sˠɬɑːn]; *phoney* could perhaps be related to Irish *fõinne* [fɒːnʲə] ‘ring’ and originally be a reference to the sale of fake jewellery. *Galore* ‘plentiful’ (only used predicatively) < *go leor* ‘enough’ and *whisk(e)y* < *uisce beatha* ‘water of life’ could be from Irish or Scottish Gaelic.

Pragmatics Agreement and ease of exchange are highly valued in Irish discourse and a number of pragmatic markers are frequently used to realize these features: (i) *sure* (reassurance), for example *Sure, it won’t take you that long*; (ii) sentence-final *then* (tacit agreement), for example *I suppose it might be safe, then*; (iii) *grand* (reassurance, agreement), for example *You’re grand the way you are. That was a grand cup of coffee*; (iv) *just* (mild disagreement), for example *Just, he wasn’t go to pay for it after all*; (v) *now* (hedging device), for example *Okay, I have to go, goodbye now*. There is also a widespread use of focuser *like*, for example *They’d go into the houses, like, to play the cards*.

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Northern Irish English is spoken in the north of Ireland, both within Northern Ireland and ulster as a whole. English in this region has four main sources: (1) settlement before 1600 which survives in the speech of people in the west of the province and which has been influenced by Irish; (2) Ulster Scots which is a distinct variety stemming from Scots brought from Lowland and Western Scotland from the seventeenth century onwards; (3) general northern English which came with the English settlement, especially in the centre of the province, again from the seventeenth century onwards; and (4) varieties of English in Donegal in the west of Ulster which show many contact features due to the historical shift from Irish to English.

Northern Irish English can be distinguished from southern Irish English by its intonation, a fall-rise in pitch with stressed syllables and a high-rising terminal in declarative sentences, especially in Belfast. Segmental features include (i) /u/ fronting to a mid high vowel [ʉ], for example *soon* [sʉn], and as the end point of the MOUTH diphthong, that is [maʉθ]; (ii) an ingliding diphthong in the FACE lexical set, for example *save* [seəv]; (iii) a lack of vowel length in ulster Scots which has spread to other varieties, for example *fool* and *full*, both [fʉl], a feature related to the Scottish vowel length rule in Scots; (iv) the lowering of short front vowels, for example *hid* [hɛd], *head* [had]; (v) the tendency to lengthen short low vowels, with retraction before nasals and raising before velars: *family* [fɑːmli], *bag* [baːg]; (vi) a high starting point for the PRICE vowel, for example *fly* [flɛɪ]; (vii) the occurrence of [θ] and [ð] in the THIN and THIS lexical sets (only found sporadically in the south of Ireland in syllable codas and often just in a reading style). Note that the northern retroflex [ɻ] is no longer a delimiting feature as this realization of /r/ has arisen (independently) in the south in the past few decades.

A specifically syntactic feature of the north is the use of inflected *be* for the habitual: *The lads bees out a lot*.

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American English, influence on English in England. Throughout the twentieth and into the twenty-first century there has been a pervasive infiltration of American words into English in England, the more general of which coexist with their British counterparts. Some of these words are part of passive knowledge among speakers of English in England, for example *gas* 'petrol', while others are indeed used, for example *movie* 'film'. The former group often consists of words which have a different meaning or a different semantic range in English in England, this blocking the adoption of the American meaning, for example *trailer* 'caravan' only means (with reference to vehicles) 'articulated attachment to a car for transporting goods, material, etc.' in English English.

The following examples consist of the American word followed by the traditional British word: *movie / film; mental / insane; can / tin; garbage / rubbish; gas / petrol; mad / angry; filling station / garage; elevator / lift; reel / spool; trailer / caravan; I guess / I think; truck / lorry; lumber / timber; French fries / chips*. In some cases the American term has successfully ousted the British one as in the case of *radio* for *wireless*. Certain prepositional verbs have become part of English English without users realizing their origin: *to put sth. over; to get sth. across; to stand up to; to go back on*. A few imports from American English have occurred without their being an exact English equivalent already, for example *okay* (nineteenth century, f uncertain origin), *phoney* (possibly of Irish origin in the United States).

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Euro-English is a collective term used to refer to second-language varieties used transnationally by Europeans. Whether this constitutes a focussed variety of its own is a matter of debate in the relevant literature.

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Llanito [janito] is a form of Andalusian Spanish, used in Gibraltar, which shows the strong influence of English, especially in vocabulary. The term 'Llanito' is sometimes used for a person from Gibraltar.

NORTH AMERICA

THE USA

American English is a collective term for varieties of English spoken in the United States, perhaps excluding vernacular forms in Hawai‘i. It encompasses native speaker varieties and includes ethnic varieties such as African American English and first language Chicano English. Historically, American English has its roots in the English of early seventeenth-century settlers on the eastern coast. First-language English emigrants who arrived in the following century, notably the Ulster Scots are also taken to have had a formative influence on American English and their speech has a direct continuation in Appalachian English. Still later emigration groups, for example southern Irish of the nineteenth century are not assumed to have influenced mainstream American English apart from donating a few words. The larger numbers of other European nationalities which emigrated to the United States throughout its history, for example Germans, Scandinavians, Dutch, French, Poles and Italians along with Jews from various countries, did not play a decisive role in the emerging profile of American English.

The European history of North America begins with the discovery of Central America by Christopher Columbus in 1492 when he landed on the Bahamas. Various parts of the coast of North America were discovered at the beginning of the sixteenth century. Between 1584 and 1586 Sir Walter Raleigh began his attempts to colonize North Carolina (then part of ‘Virginia’ named after Queen Elizabeth I), including the first unsuccessful settlement on Roanoke Island. British colonization continued in the following years with the firm establishment of British rule at the beginning of the seventeenth century (Jamestown, Virginia 1607; Plymouth, New England, 1620; The Massachusetts Bay Colony (at the site of later Boston, 1630). Some other European countries were also directly involved in the conquest of America: the French in Canada but also the Dutch in New York (the city, founded in 1625, was called New Amsterdam until 1664).

Among the earliest states were those of the historical area of New England (not the name of a present-day state): Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island (Maine was later formed from northern Massachusetts and Vermont from an area between east New York state and west New Hampshire). New York state occupied an inland area immediately west of New England. Immediately south of New England were the four middle states of Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland and Delaware. The remaining states belonged to the South: Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia. This group formed the original thirteen colonies.

The eighteenth century saw the emigration of approximately a quarter of a million Ulster Scots from the north of Ireland to the colonies. These often settled in frontier regions, such as western Pennsylvania and further south in the inland mountainous regions of the colonies, founding varieties later recognizable as Appalachian English.

In 1776 the Thirteen Colonies declared independence in a military struggle against England. British rule ended after a disorganized and uncoordinated campaign against the rebellious Americans in 1777 which led to the Treaty of Paris (1783) conceding American sovereignty over the entire territory from the Great Lakes in the north down to Florida in the south. After independence the United States consolidated territories inland from the Atlantic coast and in 1803 purchased over 2 million sq km in central North America from the French for 15 million dollars, *see the* Louisiana purchase.

The colonization of North America proceeded from east to west (for both Canada and the United States). The western states were settled in the nineteenth century, first by pioneers then by farmers and other settlers. The Gold Rush of 1848 led to the rise of California as a unit within the United States (just as the 1858 gold rush in British Columbia put it on the map that year, later joining the Canadian confederation in 1871). The last of the states to be founded were those in the region immediately east of the Rocky Mountains such as Wyoming (1890) and Utah (1896) and the more southerly states such as Arizona (1912) and Oklahoma (1907). Further territorial extensions were achieved by the annexation of land from Mexico (with the Peace of Guadalupe in 1848), with the purchase of Alaska from Russia in 1867 and with an American presence on Hawai‘i from 1878 onwards. The development of the states in the nineteenth century suffered a setback with the Civil War of 1861–1865, ostensibly caused by the refusal of the Southern states to abolish slavery, which they claimed was necessary for their plantation economy, and their attendant temporary secession from the Union.

Today the United States consists of a federation of 48 contiguous states along with Alaska and Hawai‘i (to give 50). It has an area of 9.3 million sq km and a population of over 300 million. The ethnic composition is approximately 87 per cent white (including about 10 per cent Hispanics in increasing numbers), and 11 per cent African Americans. The capital is Washington, District of Columbia (on the border of Maryland and Virginia). English is de facto the official language of the United States but it does not have this status in the federal constitution.

Various immigrant groups have differentially retained their original languages, for example Italians and Jews (Yiddish). Immigrants vary greatly in the degree of language maintenance they exhibit, for example small groups like the Estonians show a high degree while the Ukrainians and the Irish have little or none. Of more recent origin are the many immigrants from Asian countries, for instance the Chinese, Japanese and Korean populations, especially on the west coast. The largest ethnic group in the present-day United States are the Latinos (Hispanics), chiefly in the south-west, now in excess of 35 million.

The traditional dialect regions of the United States are the following. (1) The North-East with Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, Vermont and Maine (the New England area, see above); (2) The Inland North consisting of up-

state New York, northern Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, eastern Wisconsin and most of Michigan, this area enclosing the migration routes into the region of the Great Lakes in the nineteenth century, especially after the opening of the Erie Canal in 1825; (3) The North Midland, stretching from Pennsylvania across to Southern Illinois; (4) The South Midland, a band lying south of this, approximately from Maryland across to eastern Oklahoma; (5) The South encompassing all the states from Virginia through North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia to Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana across to eastern Texas. A separate midland region is usually assumed; it is posited in the *ATLAS OF NORTH AMERICAN ENGLISH* and consists of an intersection of Lower North and Upper South in the classification offered by Carver but not generally accepted now. The five divisions just given encompass the eastern half of the present-day United States. The western half, all the states west of a line from Texas to North Dakota do not show comparable dialect differentiation, probably because the entire west was settled at a much later stage. Nonetheless, the following areas can be recognized: (1) Upper Midwest (Minnesota, northern Iowa and western Wisconsin); (2) South-West (New Mexico, Arizona, southern California, Nevada, Utah and Colorado); (3) West, the region from the Midwest, extending through the Great Plains and the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific coast. Within these broad regions there are recognizable subareas, usually relic areas which preserve early dialect input features, for example Scots-Irish traits in Appalachian English.

US inhabitants are highly mobile and internal migration has been responsible for the spread of features, for example the Southern rural form *fixin' to* as in *She's fixin' to go to church now* has recently spread from rural to urban areas in Oklahoma in the face of migration into the state. The following remarks refer to broadly supraregional speech in the United States, what is often termed 'General American (English)'. For speakers across the United States this is a non-regional accent though it may have evolved from Midwest accents or at least is closest to the accents of this area. Vernaculars of the Inland North are clearly distinguished from General American by their participation in the northern cities shift. There are different registers of supraregional speech in the United States forming a continuum from most to least colloquial. Certain features are present in colloquial registers, for example quotative 'like', which do not occur in higher registers.

Pronunciation (1) Presence of non-prevocalic /r/ (absent in southern vernaculars and recessively in the north-east). (2) Tensing of /a/ in pre-nasal position, frequently with nasalization of the vowel. (3) Intervocalic /t/ commonly realized as a tap [ɾ]. (4) Frequent unrounding of /ɔ/ to [ɑ, a] making items of the LOT lexical set sound very different from English English. (5) No retraction of low vowels before voiceless fricatives or nasals, for example *grass*, *dance* both with [a:] or [ə: / ɛə] in the latter word by pre-nasal tensing. (6) Absence of T-glottalization and H-dropping. (7) Word stress patterns

can be different from English English, for example *aˈdult* : *ˈadult*, *ˈdirect* : *diˈrect*, *ˈaddress* : *adˈdress* : *ˈinquiry* : *inˈquiry*.

Grammar (1) Increased use of unmarked adverbs. *He's awful tall. That's real funny. I near crashed the truck.* (2) Use of *do* for questions and negative sentences is more common than in England (equivalents given in brackets). *Did he have a chance to do it?* (*Had he a chance to do it?*). *Do you have you enough money? No, I don't* (*No, I haven't*). *He doesn't have a driving licence, sure he doesn't?* (*hasn't he?*). (3) A large number of phrasal verbs with different meanings from English English: *hold off* (= *restrain*); *figure out* (= *understand*); *check out* (= *leave*); *get through* (= *finish*); *count in* (= *include*); *stop by* (= *visit briefly*). (4) Differences among prepositions: *aside from* (= *besides*); *in back of* (= *behind*); *for* (= *after*), for example *The school was named for him*. *on* (= *in*), for example *I live on George Street*. *in* (= *into*), for example *He ran in the kitchen*. *than* (= *from*), for example *She is different than her sister*. *through* (= *from … to*) *Monday through Friday*. (5) Lack of prepositions with expressions of time and the verb *write*: *I met him* (*on*) *Tuesday*. *I wrote* (*to*) *her last week*. (6) Pronominal usage allowing 'he' after 'one': *One never does what he should*. *One always deceives himself*.

Vocabulary Some American vocabulary reflects older English usage, for example *mail* for *post* (compare *Royal Mail* in England with the older form), *fall* for *autumn* (a French loan), though this probably is the case in only a minority of forms. In the following the first word corresponds to American, the second to British usage, but note that the American words are often found in English English as well: *apartment* / *flat; trash can* / *dustbin; attorney* / *solicitor, barrister; baby buggy* / *pram; bartender* / *barman; bug* / *insect; bus* / *coach; cab* / *taxi; candy* / *sweets; check* / *bill; chips* / (*potato*) *crisps; preacher* / *clergyman; clerk* / *shop assistant; coed* / *female student; store* / *shop; corporation* / *company; diaper* / *nappy; dishpan* / *washing-up basin; eraser* / *rubber; corn* / *maize; drugstore* / *chemist's; dumb* / *silly; elevator* / *lift; fall* / *autumn; first floor* / *ground floor; gas station* / *petrol station; first name* / *Christian name; flash-light* / *torch; French fries* / *chips; freshman* / *first year student; garbage* / *rubbish; grade* / *gradient; jelly* / *jam; liquor* / *spirits; highway patrolmen* / *mobile police; high school* / *secondary school; hood* / *bonnet; kerosene* / *paraffin; lumber* / *timber; mail* / *post; movie* / *film, picture; movies* / *cinema, pictures; muffler* / *silencer; doctor's office* / *surgery; pacifier* / *dummy; parking lot* / *car park; penitentiary* / *prison; period* / *full stop; pitcher* / *jug; realtor* / *estate, influence on English in England agent; roadster* / *two seater; roomer* / *lodger; section* / *district; sedan* / *saloon; quarter* / *term; sidewalk* / *pavement; sophomore* / *second year student; slingshot* / *catapult; highway* / *motorway; streetcar* / *tram; subway* / *underground; suspenders* / *braces; taffy* / *toffee; truck* / *lorry; trunk* / *boot; turtleneck* / *poloneck; undershirt* / *vest; vacation* / *holidays; weather bureau* / *met office; school* / *college; ride* / *drive; rise* / *raise; cookie* / *biscuit; faucet* / *tap*.

Word formation This is an innovative sphere of American English, though it is not always possible to state whether a new form derives solely from American usage, cf. the use of derivational suffixes: *-ster: gangster, oldster; -ician: beautician, cosmetician; -ee: escapee, returnee; -ette: roomette; drum-majorette; -ite: socialite, sub-urbanite; -ize; to winterize, to itemize, to fictionalize*. Conversion as a word formational process is widespread as in English English. *a bug – to bug; resource – to resource; commercial* (adj.) *commercial* (noun); *hike* (verb) – *hike* (noun). There are also frequent instances of back-formation, for example *jelly > to jell; enthusiasm > to enthuse; bachelor > to bach*. In the sphere of computing American English is virtually the only source of new English terms, for example *flatscreen, central processing unit, hard disk, USBstick, solid-state drive, compact disc, graphics card, mainboard, broadband, cloud computing*.

The spelling of American English has been a concern since the late eighteenth century when Noah Webster, the father of American lexicography, brought out his *Dissertations on the English Language* (1789) in which he suggested separating American from British English. Certain spelling changes proposed by Webster are older forms, such as *-er* for *-re* (cf. *theater*) or *-or* for *-our* (cf. *honour*) and not all of Webster's suggestions became part of American English spelling, for example his proposal that one write *oo* for *ou* in words like *soup* and *group*. In general, American English has single instances of sonorants in past forms of verbs, for example *traveled, labeled, occured*, as well as single letters in many spellings of neo-classical formations in English, for example *program* (British *programme*), though *diagram* is the spelling in both British and American English. Shorter forms of words are also preferred, for example *dialog* for *dialogue* and spellings in *-nse* are found for *-nce* in British English, for example *defense, offense, license*. *F* can replace *ph*, for example *sulfur* versus *sulphur*, while *f* or *w* can correspond to *gh*, for example *draft* versus *draught* and *plow* versus *plough*, and *in-* equates to *en-* in *inquiry* (British *enquiry/inquiry*) and *inclosure* (British *enclosure*).

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African American English is a reference to varieties of English used in the United States (referred to in Canada as African Canadian English) by people who are wholly or partially of African descent. This accounts for over 10 per cent of the population, the figures depend on the definitions of African American: the United States Census Bureau gave the total population 'Black or African American alone or in combination' in 2010 as 13.5 per cent or some 42 million; 'Black or African American alone' was given as 12.6 per cent or 39 million. The majority of African Americans are the descendants of slaves taken by the British from West Africa to America to work on the plantations of the South. Initially, the transportation was via the Caribbean, then directly to the south-east coast of the later United States. Although there was a concentration of

African Americans in the rural South, the migration to the large cities of the inland north in the early twentieth century meant that urban African American varieties developed outside the South. Because these were severed from the historical core area they have frequently undergone developments not shared with the original varieties in the South. Varieties of African American English embody a large number of non-standard features on all levels of language. Some of these are almost conventional stereotypes and their frequency varies greatly – some are indeed quite rare. There is also a range of sub-varieties, for example with young/urban/hip hop contrasting with rural/traditional, and they have characteristics of their own. Furthermore, most of these features are not distinctive and are shared with many other non-standard varieties.

Pronunciation (1) Consonant clusters in non-initial position are reduced to a single segment: *test* [tes], *desk* [des] *looked* [luk], *talked* [tɔːk]. (2) Non-prevocalic /r/ is absent: *car* [kaː], *party* [paːti]. (3) Frequent deletion of final /l/, particularly before labials or word finally with auxiliaries: *help* [hɛp], *he'll be home* [hi bi hoːm]. (4) Stopping of initial /ð/ to either [d̪] (dental stop) or [d] (alveolar stop): *this* [d̪ɪs], *there* [d̪ɛːr]. (5) In word-final position /θ/ is frequently shifted to [f] (also found in cockney English); this shift is also found for /ð/ (→ [v]) in word-internal position: *bath* [baːf], *teeth* [tiːf] *brother* [brʌvə]. (6) Velar nasals are realized as alveolars: *She's comin' tomorrow*. (7) The distinction between short /ɛ/ and /ɪ/ is frequently lost before nasals (also in southern white American English). The neutralization is to the raised vowel [ɪ]: *pen, pin* [pɪn]; *ten, tin* [tɪn]. (8) Glide reduction with /ai/, a feature typical of the Upper South, is also found in African American English before voiced segments: *five* [faːv], *time* [taːm]. (9) Initial stress is often found with words with non-initial stress in other varieties, e.g. ˈ*police*, ˈ*define*.

Grammar, general (1) Negative concord (the agreement of all polarity items with each other within a clause) serves the purpose of intensifying a negation, for example *I ain't givin' nothin' to nobody*. (2) Existential *there* is replaced by *it*: *It ain't no football pitch at school*. (3) Plurals are not marked if preceded by numerals. *He here for three year now*. (4) The genitive is not necessarily marked with /s/ (as position is sufficient to indicate this category) *I drove my brother car*. (5) A formal distinction is frequently made between second person singular and plural: *you* [juː] (singular) and *y'all* [jɒːl], derived from *you* + *all* (plural); this is also a general southern feature.

Grammar, verbal syntax (1) Third person singular -*s* is variably omitted. *She like my brother*. (2) The copula is deleted in equative sentences, that is those of the form X = Y. *She a teacher. They workers in the factory*. (3) *Come* has been grammaticalized as a type of auxiliary. Often labelled 'indignant' *come* because it denotes disapproval: *He come tellin' me some story* 'He told me some false story'. (4) *Like to/liketa* has often the meaning of 'almost'. *She liketa fell out the window*. 'She almost fell out of the window.' (5) Bare subject relative clauses occur, for example *He the man (who) got all*

the cars. (6) Double modals are found occasionally within the same verb phrase: *He might could do the work. She may can do the work*. This is probably an inherited feature from Scots-derived dialects originally brought to the United States in the eighteenth century which then diffused into the language of the African-American population. (7) The number of verb forms is reduced: the past has typically one form, based either on the simple past or the past participle: *I've already ate. He drunk that stuff before*.

Grammar, verbal aspect (1) Uninflected *be* marks habitual aspect *They be out on the street at night*. 'They are always out on the street at night.' Bailey & Maynor, following Weinreich, Labov & Herzog, distinguish between one form, *be*1, which is *African American English, terms for* 19 derived through deletion of *will/would*, and another, *be*2, which does not show an underlying modal and which takes *do* support: *He be in his office tomorrow*. (*He will*…) but *He be in his office every morning*. (*He does be*…). (2) An iterative aspect is expressed by *steady*: *They steady talkin' outside our house*. 'They are always talking outside our house.' (3) Stressed *been* occurs to indicate the remote past *I ˈbeen travel to New York*. 'I travelled to New York a long time ago.' *Jodie, she ˈbeen married to Chuck*. 'Jodie has been married to Chuck for a long time.' (4) The unstressed past participle form of *do*, *done* [dʌn], is used to signal a completed action: *He done cook the food*. 'He has cooked the food.'

Vocabulary Some items are clearly of West African origin, such as *buckra* 'white man', *tote* 'to carry', *goober* 'peanut', *yam* 'sweet potato' (note: the origin of *jazz* is unknown). Semantic extensions of existing English words are: *homies* 'close friends; prisoner inmates', *bloods* 'other blacks', *whities* 'white people', *bad* 'good, admirable', *cool* 'good, neat', *hip* 'knowledgeable', *dude* 'male' (often disparaging). Some of these usages have diffused into general American English and from there to other languages, for example, *cool*.

Pragmatics In-group language is characteristic of black street gangs in the major northern cities of the United States (such as New York, Philadelphia, Chicago). Discourse structure is quite different from that of white Americans. Verbal insulting can take on ritual forms and volatile, rhythmic eloquence is known as *rappin*'.

Sources of African American English. African American English can be traced back to forms of English which developed in the seventeenth century in the Caribbean after the slave trade had been started by European powers. This trade consisted of transporting native Africans from West Africa to the islands of the Caribbean where they worked on the plantations for their English masters. Later, with crowding on smaller Caribbean islands, such as Barbados, black slaves were moved to the southern coast of the present-day United States and put to work on tobacco and cotton plantations.

Diaspora varieties of African American English. In the early nineteenth century some African American slaves from the southern United States left the country and settled elsewhere. The groups which then arose constitute diaspora which are assumed

to have retained features of African American English of the time. Diaspora communities were established in the north-west of the Dominican Republic on the Samaná Peninsula, in the Bahamas and in eastern Canada in Nova Scotia. The slaves who left the United States with the assistance of the American Colonisation Society settled in West Africa and founded the state of Liberia.

Terms for African American English. The present-day label (2013) is a development in terminology which has a considerable history. African American Vernacular English was simplified to the current term by removing 'Vernacular' and thus gained a broader reference. Prior to this, the brief use of 'Afro-American', which did not imply equal status of both elements, was discontinued. The label 'Black English Vernacular' or just 'Black English' was found in literature in the 1960s and early 1970s, most notably in William Labov (1972) *Language in the Inner City: Studies in the Black English Vernacular*. The term 'Negro speech' occurs in Wolfram (1969) *A Sociolinguistic Description of Detroit Negro Speech* but was never widespread in linguistic literature. The linguistic term 'African American English' follows a preference in American society for 'African American' rather than 'black' as not all members of this ethnic group are the sole descendants of Africans. In other countries 'Black English' is a common label for the speech of those of African descent, cf. 'British Black English' and 'South African Black English'.

There are two major hypotheses concerning the origins of African American English: (i) the creolist hypothesis posits a creole which arose in the formative years of African American English due to the different linguistic backgrounds of slaves and the need for basic communication. This creole would have progressively lost its most basilectal features through a process of decreolization. (ii) the Anglicist or dialect hypothesis (see previous entry but one) which maintains that the non-standard features of African American English arose through contact with regional speakers from Britain and Ireland. The later segregation of the slaves meant that other features arose not found in the input forms. Nonetheless, it is true that many of the features of African American English also occur in dialects of the British Isles, for example grammatical features such as habitual Aspect, copula deletion or unmarked plurals after numerals and phonological features such as final cluster simplification and ask-metathesis. Recent research tends to stress compromise positions between the poles just outlined and the neo-Anglicist hypothesis emphasizes new features, for instance in urban African American English, not necessarily present among the input dialects.

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Southern American English is a reference to those varieties of English spoken in the South of the United States. The south already begins at Virginia in the central Atlantic coast and stretches through the Carolinas down to Georgia and then across Alabama,

Mississippi and Louisiana to eastern Texas. The latter area on the Gulf of Mexico is known as the Lower South because historically the South (of the original Thirteen Colonies) is now the south-east of the United States. Linguistically, the South would include the inland states West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Arkansas and Oklahoma. Florida, which was for a long time under Spanish control, does not historically belong to the linguistic South. Upper Southern speech is found in Kansas, Missouri and lower Indiana and Illinois. Given that the South is such a large area many of the statements about its features may not be true for all Southern varieties.

Phonology (1) A salient feature is the breaking of short vowels and the general lengthening / diphthongization of vowels (popularly termed 'Southern Drawl') with the flattening of the diphthongs /ai/ and /au/ (*see* /ai/ and /au/, realization of). Breaking involves a slight offglide towards the end of a vowel articulation, for example *bin* [bɪɪn], *done* [dʌən]. These developments are part of the southern shift in which the /i:/ in *meet* and the /e:/ in *mate* are retracted and lowered with the /ɪ/ in *bid* and the /ɛ/ in *bed* shifting upwards and to the front, diphthongizing in the process. The mid and high back vowels /u:/ and /o:/, as in *boot* and *boat* are fronted considerably. (2) The pen-pin merger involves the raising of the /ɛ/ to /ɪ/ before nasals and is widespread across the entire South. (3) The assimilation of /z/ to /d/ before /n/ is a widespread feature, especially in the Lower South: *wasn't* > *wadn't*; *business* > *bidness* (*see* z-stopping, pre-nasal). This may be a relic dialect feature as it occurs in the British Isles as well, for example in south-east Ireland which had early input from the south-west of England. (4) The lack of a length distinction for /ɪ/ and /i:/ before /l/ rendering pairs like *feel* and *fill* homophones. Other features such as the stop realization of /ð/ may be more indicative of African American than of a Southern vernacular.

Grammar (1) Counterfactual *liketa*: *It was so cold, I liketa froze*, historically from *like to have*. (2) *Y'all* as a second person plural pronoun: *Where y'all goin'?* (3) *A*-prefixing: *The wind was a-blowin' hard all day*. (4) Auxiliary *done*: *I done crash the truck*. (5) Non-standard distribution of *was* and *were*. *We was tryin' real hard all the time* (*see* verbal concord, non-standard). (6) Use of oblique pronoun forms to express relevance: *I made me a big pie*. (7) Inchoative *fixin*': *They're fixin' to mend the road*. (8) Distal locative adverb *yonder*: *Those fields yonder need drainin*'. (9) Copula deletion, as in *They workin' in town these days*, is found in older white Southern speech and in African American English.

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Chicano [tʃɪˈka:noʊ] English is a reference to vernacular varieties of English spoken by Spanish immigrants in the south-west of the United States. Most of these are from Mexico ('Chicano' apparently derives from this name). There is a long association of the south-west of the present-day United States with Mexico. At the beginning of the colonial period in the seventeenth century the entire area of western North America

was called New Spain and under Spanish control. With the foundation of the United States (declared 1776, acknowledged 1783) and the Louisiana Purchase (1803) the country spread to two thirds of its present-day geographical extent and with the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo which concluded the Mexican–American War (1846–1848) the United States terminated Spanish Mexican control of the west. However, there has been a steady influx of Mexican immigrants to the states bordering on Mexico (Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, California) and further north, for example to Nevada, Utah and Colorado. People from Central American countries have also been among these immigrants so that, at around 40 million, Spanish-speaking or Spanish-descent Americans constitute the major ethnic population of today's United States. Chicano English covers a range of varieties and applies to both L1 and L2 speakers of English. In its most basilectal form it shows considerable influence from (Central American) Spanish.

Phonology (1) Chicano English merges /a/ and /ɛ/, so *man* and *men* are homophonous and /i:/ and /ɪ/ merge into [i], so *ship* and *sheep* are pronounced the same. (2) The phonotactics of Spanish does not generally allow clusters in word-final position which means that words ending in a consonant cluster have this simplified: *most* /mos/, *felt* /fel/. (3) /z/ is devoiced in all environments, for example *easy* [isi], *was* [wʌs, was]. (4) word-final /m/ is realized as /n/, for example *jam* [ʤɛn]. (5) word-final /v/ is devoiced, for example *love* [lʌf], *have* [hɛf, xɛf], *wives* [waifs]. (6) Chicano speakers may realize /v/ as [b], for example *live* [lib], *invite* [inbait]. (7) /θ/ and /ð/ may be pronounced as /t/ and /d/, /s/ and /z/ or occasionally as /f/ and /v/, for example *think* may be [tink], [sink] or [fink]. (8) /ʤ/ may be realized as /j/ or vice versa, for example *joke* [jok], *you* [ʤu], *just* [jʌs], *yet* [ʤɛt]. (9) /r/ is usually realized as a flap, for example *ready* [ɾɛdi]. (10) They may be a collapse of /ʧ/ and /ʃ/, for example *chip* and *ship*, both /ʃip/. (11) Final /d/ may be devoiced, for example hid [hit].

Vocabulary Apart from actual Spanish words used in English because of code-switching Chicano English speakers may use words related in sound but different in meaning, so-called 'false friends', for example *molest* to mean 'disturb' based on Spanish *molestar* with this meaning. Other instances are extensions of English meanings, for example *barely* to mean 'just recently' as in *She barely rang her mother*.

Apart from the south-west, Spanish has a significant presence in Florida (ceded by Spain in 1819) and in New York where many Puerto Ricans can be found from emigration in the mid twentieth century.

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Afro-Seminole is a creole spoken by a few hundred speakers in present-day Oklahoma (Seminole County), Texas (Bracketville) and possibly in north Mexico as well. Ian Hancock suggested that Afro-Seminole is related to Gullah and that both are early creole forms of African American English.

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Hispanic English is a term used by Wolfram, Carter & Moriello when investigating the language of an emerging Hispanic community outside the more established areas of the United States with Hispanic communities such as the South-West, southern Florida or New York. Their investigation looks at the rise of permanent Hispanic communities in the mid Atlantic South.

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Native American English is a reference to varieties of English spoken by Native Americans. Whether these constitute independent, focussed varieties is uncertain.

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Appalachian English are the vernacular varieties spoken by the inhabitants of the southern portion of the Appalachian Mountains, a geological feature stretching from New Brunswick in Canada down to Alabama in the United States, running some distance inland parallel to the Atlantic coast. Appalachian English is also spoken in diaspora communities such as in so-called 'rust belt' cities of the Midwest and logging communities in the Pacific North-West. From south to north the Appalachians cover the north-eastern tip of Alabama, north Georgia, north-west South Carolina, east Tennessee and Kentucky, a small portion of west North Carolina, all of West Virginia and the west of Virginia extending northwards into Pennsylvania, upstate New York through Vermont, Connecticut and Maine into Canada. The Appalachians consist of various subareas, such as the Blue Ridge Mountains which in their southern end contain the Great Smoky Mountains (south-east Tennessee, north Georgia), a region where Appalachian English is particularly prominent. The south-central Cumberland Mountains contain the Cumberland Gap – at the juncture of Virginia, Kentucky and Tennessee – through which Europeans moved in the late eighteenth century initiating settlement west of the Appalachians.

Scots and Ulster Scots settlers who first began to arrive in the mid seventeenth century had a formative influence on later Appalachian English which lasted throughout the eighteenth century when tens of thousands of Ulster Scots settled in what was then the frontier area of the thirteen colonies. It developed in isolation and has maintained many relic features of its input varieties.

Phonology (1) non-standard initial /h/ in words, for example, *hit* for *it*. (2) Reduction of final *-ow* to rhotacized schwa, for example *yellow* [jɛlɚ], *fellow* [fɛlɚ].

Grammar (1) *A*-prefixing with present participles, for example *He kept a-beggin' for more*. (2) *Done* as a marker of perfective aspect, for example *They done left their farm*. (3) Double modals within a single verb phrase, for example *He might could come tomorrow*. (4) The use of *right* and *plumb* as intensifying adverbs.

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Jewish English is a general reference to English as used by Jews, more particularly by those in the United States who may be competent in Yiddish. The main characteristic of Jewish English in the United States would be a higher concentration of Yiddish loanwords.

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Lousiana Creole is a creole form of French spoken in southern Louisiana by people descended from early French settlers in the region (along with some Spanish).

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Lumbee English is English as spoken by more than 40,000 Native American Lumbee in North Carolina, mostly in Robeson County (the name derives from the Lumber River). The Lumbee have been speakers of English for more than two centuries and acquired the English dialects they were exposed to, showing features like *A*-prefixing and lexical elements like *airish* 'cool, breezy', *young 'uns* 'young children' which it shares with Appalachian English. It is unclear what native language(s) the Lumbee spoke originally. The popular notion that they are linked to the Lost Colony of Roanoke Island is not supported by scholars.

CANADA

In 1497 John Cabot landed in Newfoundland and so began the settlement of Canada by Europeans. Before this only native groups peopled the country. Some of their languages are still extant in small ethnic groups within present-day Canada, though almost all are at the verge of extinction, their position being similar to that of Native Americans in the United States. A special position is occupied by the Inuit in the arctic regions of northern Canada and since 1999 they have their own territory of Nunavut, lit. 'our land', within the Canadian Confederation. In 1534–1535 Jacques Cartier captured the areas of the St. Lawrence river for the French and in 1608 Samuel de Champlain founded Quebec. Until 1674 the administration of the French colony was a matter of a colonial company. After this the French crown took over the government of French Canada. In 1774 the Quebec Act established the province of Quebec officially. The Americans attempted unsuccessfully in 1775 to take over Quebec and many loyalist Americans came to Canada after the American War of Independence (1783) and settled in areas such as New Brunswick and Nova Scotia along with Upper Canada (present-day Ontario) and Lower Canada (present-day Quebec). Various centres of population developed in Canada. The Constitutional Act of 1791 acknowledged this and created two halves:

Upper Canada (mainly British) and Lower Canada (mainly French). The Americans tried once again in 1812–1814 to conquer Canada (unsuccessfully). The necessity to form a unity to oppose America led to the unification of Lower and Upper Canada with the Maritime Provinces (Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island) as the Dominion of Canada in 1867 (Newfoundland did not join until 1949). Later, other provinces were added from the land formerly granted to the Hudson Bay Company (Manitoba, Alberta and Saskatchewan). British Columbia joined in 1871. Canada remained a British colony (subject formally to the British crown) until the beginning of the twentieth century. In 1920 Britain recognized the right of Canada to sign international treaties on its own. At the Empire Conference in 1926 and later with the Statute of Westminster (1931) Canada attained, along with other dominions, formal independence from Britain but remained a member of the Commonwealth. The name *Canada* is of uncertain origin.

Canada, the second largest country in the world, has an area of just under 10 million sq km and a population of approximately 35 million. The capital is Ottawa on the border of Ontario with Quebec with a population of over 1 million; Toronto, with over 5 million in its metropolitan area, is the largest city. The country consists of 10 provinces and three territories. Of these Ontario with 13 million is the most populous followed by Quebec with over 8 million. The latter province is French-speaking as opposed to the remaining provinces. English and French are official languages along with a number of recognized regional languages. Most Canadians are the descendants of English/ Scottish/Irish immigrants (45 per cent) or of French immigrants (29 per cent). However, other ethnic groups are also represented such as Ukrainians (2.7 per cent), Italians (3.4 per cent), Germans (6.1 per cent), Dutch (2 per cent) and Poles (1.5 per cent) along with more recent immigrants in western Canada from Pacific rim countries, such as China, Japan, Korea.

Canadian English can be said to occupy an approximate position between American and British English. This can be explained historically, given that Canada was under the influence of Britain for very much longer. Language attitudes play a role here as Canadians do not wish to be mistaken for Americans. Nonetheless in pronunciation, Canadian English is far closer to American English and does not stand comparison with South African or New Zealand English vis-a-vis English English. In the study of Canadian English the concept of homogeneity has played a central role. Standard Canadian English is defined as urban, middle class, anglophone and it is used by speakers of a second generation or later. Linguistic variation removed from this widely accepted standard includes traditional dialect enclaves, such as Newfoundland, and perhaps still the Ottawa Valley with its Irish input as well as rural areas, which are generally understudied. Ethnic variation has so far, with the exception of close-knit Jewish and

Italian networks in Montreal, not been systematically studied, but see Hoffman and Walker.

Phonology A well-researched feature of Canadian English is CANADIAN RAISING by which is meant that the diphthongs /ai, au/ are pronounced as [ʌɪ, ʌʊ] before voiceless consonants and as [aɪ, aʊ] before voiced ones, for example *knife* [nʌɪf]: *knives* [naɪvz]; *house* [hʌʊs]: *houses* [haʊzɪz]. Canada is also known for its generalization of the LOT-THOUGHT MERGER due to a lack of vowel length differences with /ɔ ~ ɒ/, for example *Don* /dɒˋn/ and *dawn* /dɒˋn/. However, present-day scholarship sees the centralization and lowering of short front vowels as the main pan-Canadian feature, and this is regarded by Canadian linguists as the most salient feature of English in contemporary Canada.

Lexis Canadian English contains some elements from native languages such as *kayak* 'canoe of Inuit'; *parka* 'skin jacket with hood attached'. It also has lexical preferences over American English, some of which are, however, receding, for example *chesterfield* for *sofa*. The much quoted interjection *eh?* is supposed to be a shibboleth for Canadians but tends to be avoided because of its all-too-obvious character.

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Cajun English is a varieties of English spoken by descendants of Canadian French immigrants from Acadia (approximately present-day New Brunswick and Nova Scotia) in southern Louisiana. A section of the ethnic Cajuns also speak a specific variety of French, albeit restricted to the domestic and familiar domains. This is derived from Acadian French and has had a formative influence on Cajun English. For instance, there is not always a distinction in vowel length in words like *fill* and *feel* and there is a general tendency towards endstress in multi-syllable words, voiceless stops are not always aspirated, and th-stopping as well as vowel nasalization occurs. Cajun English has also incorporated elements of English varieties spoken in the same area, for example ask-metathesis, th-fronting and the monophthongization of /ai/.

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Newfoundland is a large island in eastern Canada at the estuary of the St Lawrence River with an area of 94,000 sq km and a population of under 500,000. The capital St John's is on the Avalon Peninsula in the south-east. The island had been visited by the Viking Leif Erikson around 1000 and was rediscovered by John Cabot in 1497. However, it was not until 1583, when Sir Humphrey Gilbert travelled there, that England renewed its claim to the island. In the following two centuries the island was used in the summer by fishermen, from the southwest of England and the south-east of Ireland, who availed themselves of the copious cod stocks on the Grand Banks shelf off the coast of Newfoundland (cf. the Irish for Newfoundland *Talamh an Éisc* 'Land of Fish'). The

scenario of migrant labour in the summer months meant there was continuous reinforcement of dialect input by so-called ‘transients’. Later permanent settlement evolved and temporary migration to Newfoundland for fishing came to an end. Newfoundland became a largely self-governing colony in 1855 and in 1949 joined Canada as its tenth province.

Initially, the English and Irish communities in Newfoundland were relatively separate and maintained features of their source regions. For instance, initial fricative voicing, as in *say, see* with [z-] or *first, far* with [v-], has been typical of traditional speakers of English descent as has *a*-prefixing, for example *a-been, a-come*. Pronoun exchange, the use of non-oblique forms in oblique contexts and vice versa, for example *Give ‘em to I*, is also a feature of south-west English in Newfoundland.

Features which are characteristic of the Irish community include dental stops for interdental fricatives, for example *think* [t̪ɪŋk], *father* [fa:d̪ə]; the weakening of word-final, postvocalic or intervocalic /t/, for example *night* [nait̚], *butter* [bʌtə̚]; the low degree of distinctiveness between /ai/ and /ɒi/ (cf. *bile* vs *boil* [bail] vs [bɑil]); the open vowel in the THOUGHT lexical set, for example *small* [sma:l]; an alveolar [l] in syllable codas and an epenthetic vowel in the syllable-final cluster /lm/, for example *film* [fɪləm], *helm* [hɛləm].

Some traits are common to both the English and Irish communities, for example a special form for second person plural pronouns (*ye* for ‘you.PL’ in the Irish community and *yous* more often in the English community); the presence of non-prevocalic /r/, sibilant fortition, as in *isn’t* [ɪdnt]; the use of non-standard verbal *-s*, for example *The girls likes going into town*; habitual aspect expressed by inflected *do* / inflected, invariant *be* (though not with a lexical verb), especially in interrogative and negated sentences, for example *Do she be sick a lot?* or *They don’t be at it much*. The perfective construction with *after* and present participle, as in *He’s after eating his dinner* ‘He has just eaten his dinner’, is an Irish feature which is found in both communities. Newfoundland English would appear to be losing the more marked of its Irish and English West Country features and adopting more supraregional features of Canadian English.

PACIFIC AREA

Languages spoken on the islands of the Pacific belong to one of two phyla (large sets of genetically related languages), the second of which is confined to the island of Papua New Guinea. (1) *The Austronesian language family*. Mainland South-East Asia (Vietnam and Cambodia show remnants from before the dissemination over the Pacific). Major west Pacific islands: *Taiwan (Formosan), Philippines, Indonesia, Malaysia, Madagascar* (an outlier with the language *Malagasy*). The island groups of *Micronesia, Melanesia*, *Polynesia* (islands east of Melanesia, south-east, south-central Pacific), central Pacific: *Hawai'i*; *Easter Island* (outlier off the coast of Chile). (2) *Papua New Guinea linguistic area*, consisting of a very large number of languages whose probable genetic relatedness has not been fully established.

Anglophone locations in the Pacific

Micronesia:

Guam (unincorporated territory of the United States)
Kiribati (Gilbert Islands)
Palau
The Federated States of Micronesia
The Marshall Islands

Melanesia:

Fiji
Norfolk Island (dependency of Australia)
Papua New Guinea (including the islands of the Bismarck archipelago)
Solomon Islands
Vanuatu (New Hebrides)

Polynesia:

New Zealand
Niue (in free association with New Zealand)
Tokelau (dependent territory of New Zealand)
Hawai'i
Cook Islands (in free association with New Zealand)
Pitcairn (dependency of the United Kingdom)
American Samoa
Samoa
Tonga
Tuvalu (Ellice Islands)

South-East of Japan

Bonin / Ogasawara Islands (Japan)

AUSTRALIAN ENGLISH

A collective term for the varieties of English spoken in Australia. This would include the speech of the descendants of white settlers as well as Aborigines and the newer emigrants of the twentieth and twenty-first centuries. Australia, the southern land, has known different colonial periods. British involvement in Australia really got underway with James Cook (1728–1779) who firmly established Australia as an object of colonial interest for Britain. In the last two decades of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth centuries some more explorations by the French and English were undertaken, for instance by Matthew Flinders (1774–1814) who circumnavigated Australia and favoured the use of that name rather than the older New Holland. Originally Australia was used as relief for overcrowded British prisons, for example the First Fleet in 1787 sailed with between 750 and 780 convicts on board; some 250 free persons also sailed. Britain established several penal colonies and by the first quarter of the nineteenth century most of the south-east coast of Australia had been settled by the British.

In Australia a large group of **native languages,** which had developed over thousands of years before the arrival of white settlers, were and still are spoken, albeit to a greatly diminished extent. The languages can be divided into two large groups: Pama-Nyungan and non-Pama-Nyungan. This term comes from the word for ‘man’ in two languages which are probably related but maximally removed from each other. The remaining languages are simply termed non-Pama-Nyungan and are typologically very diverse. Relationships are difficult to determine as no written records exist. The Pama-Nyungan languages are spoken in nine-tenths of Australia. Non-Pama-Nyungan languages are located in a small part of the Northern Territory.

At the start of the colonial period (late eighteenth century) there were probably more than 500 languages. According to the National Indigenous Languages Survey in 2005 only around 145 of the original 200–250 Australian languages remain today. Only five languages are spoken by more than 1,000 people, four of which are Pama-Nyungan. 19 languages have more than 500 speakers, 45 between 10 and 50 speakers, and 67 fewer than 10 speakers. Even the remaining robust languages are under threat, despite vigorous efforts being made to maintain them: estimates suggest that the number of surviving languages might decline by as much as 50 per cent, as the most critically endangered languages lose their last speakers in the next 20–30 years.

The main language is English, a large variety of native languages are spoken in small quantities by Aboriginal communities (native Australians). The white population derives traditionally from English or Irish/Scottish immigrants and is known as ‘Anglo-Celtic’. In the twentieth century there was immigration from other European and Middle Eastern countries, for example Greece, Italy and Lebanon. Furthermore, Australia feels the proximity to major Asian neighbours like China, Japan and Korea and has immigrant populations from these countries along with India.

There are different views on the origin of Australian English. One is that it was already an established variety when taken to Australia. Another is that it was in origin a mixed dialect, but that this mixing took place in England rather than in Australia. Yet another option is that some of the mixing took place in the cramped quarters on ships during the long voyage from England to Australia. But whatever varieties were spoken on first arrival in Australia these were subject to further developments on contact with speakers from areas outside the Home Counties in England, notably with Irish and to a lesser extent Scottish settlers. Initial /h-/ in Australian English supports this standpoint. It would appear to have been lacking in much nineteenth-century input (as in New Zealand) and to have been reinstated, perhaps due to contact with *h*-pronouncing speakers, notably Irish but also Scottish (especially in New Zealand), and some speakers from outside the Home Counties area, for example from East Anglia.

Australian English has a general south-east English flavour, it is non-rhotic and has strong diphthongal pronunciations in the FACE, TIME and GOAT lexical sets. By and large Australian English does not have features of Home Counties English which post-date early immigration, for example the realization of intervocalic /t/ as glottal stop as in *butter* [bʌʔə]. However, some features may occur probably due to later internal developments in Australia, for example the vocalization of /l/ as in *milk* [mɪʊk], though the later settlement of South Australia may have provided an impetus for this.

Varieties of Australian English have often been divided into three types labelled ‘Broad’, ‘General’ and ‘Cultivated’, but a more recent tripartite division is ‘Mainstream’, ‘Aboriginal’, ‘Ethnocultural’, based on somewhat different criteria. The following remarks apply chiefly to ‘General / Mainstream Australian English’ but are also valid for many other varieties.

Phonology (1) Australian English is non-rhotic. (2) Traditionally, short front vowels are noticeably raised compared to English English: *bad* [bɛd], *bed* [bed], a feature shared with other Southern Hemisphere Englishes, such as South African and New Zealand English. Of recent date is the lowering of short vowels, notably the TRAP vowel. (3) Many diphthongs are shifted somewhat when compared to values in southern English English, for example the onset of the FACE vowel is lowered: *made* [mæɪd], the onset of the TIME vowel is retracted: *high* [hɑe] and the onset of the CHOICE vowel is raised: *point* [pɔɪnt]. (4) MOUTH-fronting also occurs: *how* [hæo]. (5) T-lenition is found with many speakers in word-final, unchecked position, for example *about* [əˈbaʊt̻]. (6) Syllable-coda velarized /l/, as in *rule* [ru:ɬ], is frequently vocalized, particularly in South Australia. (7) goose-fronting, as in *rude* [rʉ:d], is widespread. (8) high-rising terminals are common especially with younger female Australians.

Morphology Many compounds are formed with typical first elements, for example *bush* as in *bushfire*, *bushman*. Many meanings are derived from the components which are used to form compounds, for example *outback* (from *out* and *back*); *weekender*

(from ‘to spend a weekend in a country house’). Back formations, such as *to verse* ‘play against in sports’ (from *versus*) also occur.

Vocabulary hypocoristics, for example *arvo* ‘afternoon’, *sickie* ‘sick leave’, *kiddo* ‘kid’, *jamies* ‘pyjamas’, *Aussie* ‘Australia’, *barbie* ‘barbecue’, *bickie* ‘biscuit’, *compo* ‘workers’ compensation pay’, *cozzie* ‘swimming costume’ are common and a hallmark of Australian vocabulary as is, perhaps, the very widespread use of the adjective *bloody*. There are not many loans from Aboriginal languages and these are generally cultural terms (*boomerang, corroboree, waddy*) or flora and fauna (*jarrah, kookaburra, kangaroo, koala, mallee*) along with about one third of Australia’s place names.

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Australian Aboriginal Kriol is a creole which developed in the area of Sydney during the period of initial settlement by English speakers in the nineteenth century. Kriol was then taken westwards and northwards with nineteenth-century demographic movements in Australia. It gradually receded except for the extreme north of Australia where it survived as a means of communication in the high-contact situation between English, native peoples and Asians. It is still spoken by about 30,000 people.

NEW ZEALAND

An island nation in the South-West Pacific, east of Australia. It consists mainly of two islands, the North and South Island, with an area of 268,000 sq km and a population of about 4.4 million. The capital is Wellington, while the largest city is Auckland with a metropolitan population of nearly 1.5 million. New Zealand was settled by Polynesians in the centuries prior to the colonial period. European discovery was by the Dutchman Abel Tasman in 1642. A century later, in 1769, James Cook took possession of the country for Britain. In 1840, with the Treaty of Waitangi between the English and the local Maori, New Zealand formally became a British colony with the seat of administration in Auckland, later in Wellington. The Westminster Statutes made provision, in 1928 and 1931, for the practical independence of New Zealand from the United Kingdom, although officially the English monarch is still the head of state as in Australia. English is the language of the vast majority while Maori is spoken by perhaps 100,000 people in present-day New Zealand (though levels of competence vary greatly). Maori English is a variety showing the influence of this language. Some 78 per cent of New Zealanders are of European and about 15 per cent of Maori descent. There are additional ethnic groups resulting from in-migration from various South Pacific island nations such as Niue and the Cook Islands as well as sizeable immigration from Asia.

New Zealand English is a southern hemisphere variety of English and arose during the nineteenth century, partially through input via Australia which may account for the many similarities between it and Australian English. Short front vowels are raised

considerably – even more than traditionally in Australian English – giving *man* [mɛn], *men* [mɪn], *dish* [dəʃ]. The BATH vowel is central to front, that is it does not show the retraction typical of RP. The NURSE vowel is rounded and there is noticeable goose fronting. Although it showed h-dropping in its earlier stages it appears to have lost this due to prescriptivism in schools. Twentieth century developments include the loss of the *which–witch* distinction and the complete spread of non-rhoticity. Of recent origin is the chair-cheer merger.

New Zealand English has been well studied because it is a recent variety (beginning in the mid nineteenth century) with available audio recordings of speakers born in the second half of the nineteenth century.

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Maori English are varieties of English as spoken in New Zealand by individuals with a Maori background, usually first language speakers but also those whose language competence is greater in English. Prominent features of these varieties are (1) devoicing of final /z/, for example *toys* [tɔɪs]; (2) lack of aspiration with /t/ in word-initial position; (3) th-stopping and some th-fronting, especially among younger speakers; (4) a tendency towards syllable-timing.

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Pasifika English. New Zealand has some 250,000 people whose families immigrated from various South Pacific islands, making up about 7 per cent of the present-day New Zealand population. The majority of these people come from four main islands or groups: Samoa, Cook Islands, Tonga and Niue. The first generation immigrants are second language speakers of English, their first language being the Polynesian language of their country of origin. New Zealand-born members of the community are often dominant in English rather than their heritage language. This leads to a complex situation of language contact which seems to be resulting in an emergent Pasifika ethnolect of New Zealand English among the younger members of these communities.

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Melanesian Pidgin English is an area of the South-West Pacific characterized by pidgins and second-language varieties rather than native-speaker, settler forms of English as in Australia and New Zealand. The term *Melanesian Pidgin English* is often used to refer to the assumed unified pidgin of the nineteenth century and to the present-day pidgins of the region spoken in Papua New Guinea (*Tok Pisin*), on the Solomon Islands (*Pijin*) and in Vanuatu (*Bislama*). It is arguable whether these are mutually comprehensible, particularly as they have been exposed to different European lexifier languages, for

example French in Vanuatu and German to a limited extent in Papua New Guinea. More important, however, is the difference in substrate input at the various locations.

Varieties which developed from Melanesian Pidgin English

Tok Pisin	Papua New Guinea	It exists as a creole, is available in a written form and has official status. It is important as a lingua franca as Papua New Guinea is linguistically highly diverse (it has the highest density of languages in the world).
Pijin	Solomon Islands	Spoken on these islands (immediately east of Papua New Guinea) by about half the population.
Bislama	Vanuatu	Vanuatu lies somewhat further away to the south-east of Papua New Guinea. Bislama has official status there, alongside English and French.

THE CARIBBEAN

The large sea and its islands between the southern coast of the United States and the northern coast of South America. It is bounded on the west by Mexico and the Central American states and is open to the east. The section between the east of Mexico and the south of the United States is the Gulf of Mexico and does not contain many islands. The Caribbean islands begin in the north with Cuba and the Bahamas and extend southwards to South America. The islands are divided into two groups, the Greater and Lesser Antilles. All the five major maritime powers of the colonial period – Spain, Portugal, England, France and Holland (The Netherlands) – were involved in the Caribbean, a fact which is evident in the linguistic legacies of the area. English is present in the Lesser Antilles in the Eastern Caribbean and in Jamaica which England wrested from Spain in the mid seventeenth century. In the Bahamas (in the north-east) and at various locations on the Caribbean rim English is also present, for example in Suriname (in the English-lexifier creoles Sranan and Saramaccan), in Belize and on the Miskito Coast of Nicaragua. There was a fair degree of inter-island movement among the British colonies in the Caribbean in the seventeenth and eighteenth century, especially for males – a fact which led to the dissemination of varieties from islands settled early such as Barbados.

The anglophone Caribbean was settled in the east in the early seventeenth century. English spread out from the island of Barbados (in the east) with speakers moving to other islands, first to smaller islands and later to Jamaica and other locations in the west. There are certain features in the Eastern Caribbean which derive from earlier forms of English and which may differ from those in the Western Caribbean. Features of Western and Eastern Caribbean Englishes.

Western	***Eastern***
On-glides are present: *face* [fies], *boat* [buot]	Off-glides of mid long vowels are common: *face* [feəs], *boat* [boət]
[ɒ:] and [a:] both merge as [a:], for example *jaw* and *jar* are homophonous	Distinction between [ɒ:] and [a:] is maintained
Does (doz) is not used	*Does (doz)* is used for habitual action
Progressive is only used for ongoing action	Progressive form of verb can indicate progressive or habitual, *He goin' home.*
The anterior marker can be *bin, ben, min, men* (in Jamaican Creole)	Anterior marker is *bin*
De, da (in Jamaican Creole), *a* is also general	Progressive marker is *a*
Future marker is *wi*	Future marker is *go*

Caribbean creoles is a set of related but not identical creoles spoken in the Caribbean and ultimately descending from the fragmentary English picked up by seventeenth and

eighteenth-century African slaves in the area which was then expanded by later generations to yield these creoles. They all show certain features, to a varying extent, for example (1) verbs for adjectives (an African influence), (2) calquing, (3) reduplication. Other traits can be traced to input varieties of English, notably the system of aspect, in particular habitual aspect, which is expressed using forms of *do* and/or *be*. The *do* form is taken to stem from so-called 'periphrastic *do*' as in *I do call you a liar* (different from emphatic usage today as in *I ˈdo read books on linguistics* where *do* is stressed). This peaked in usage at the end of the sixteenth and beginning of the seventeenth century, above all in the west country of England and in Ireland, both of which were sources of settlers in the Caribbean, the west country speakers coming from the hinterland of the port of Bristol.

One argument for the Caribbean and early African American English use of *do* / *do be* is that the form diffused from Irish English into these varieties, which investigated the extent and nature of contact between the Irish and black populations of America which began in the Caribbean (Barbados, Montserrat and to a lesser extent St. Kitts). Rickford also points out that there was considerable contact between Irish indentured servants and black slaves and that at a later stage a shift northwards, to mainland America, took place in the eighteenth century with the switch from earlier deportation to later emigration. The use of *be* in African American English and *does be* in Caribbean creoles would then reflect a differential influence of northern Irish English on the former and southern Irish English on the latter. This view has been contested because the chronology of aspect attestations does not match it, though late attestations do not necessarily mean that a structure did not exist earlier in spoken varieties.

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Jamaica is an island nation in the Caribbean with an area of 11,000 sq km and a population of approximately 2.9 million of which just under 1 million live in and around the capital Kingston. The Spanish were the first Europeans to take Jamaica (Columbus visited the island in 1494). In 1655 it came under British control and remained so until independence in 1962. Slaves were brought from West Africa to Jamaica as of the second half of the seventeenth century and quickly became the majority population; slavery finally ceased with the Slavery Abolition Act of 1833. During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries Jamaica was the leading producer of sugar grown on plantations which provided the isolated environment for the creolization of English. Today, English in Jamaica shows a continuum from the basilectal creole to forms of standard Jamaican English. The basilect exhibits typical creole features such as analytic grammatical structure (little or no inflections), simplified phonology (a lack of consonant clusters) along with syllable-timing. The comments below refer to basilectal varieties which are often referred to as 'patwa'; on urban creole).

Phonology (1) Loss of initial /h/ with partial restoration including hypercorrect insertion of non-etymological /h/, *hour* /hɑ/. (2) Cluster simplification, especially in initial and final position, for example *stand* /tan/. (3) Loss of non-prevocalic /r/ and monophthongization of rising diphthongs, for example *writer* /rata/. (4) Realization of /ə/ as /a/ or /ɪ/, for example *razor* /riɛza/, *heaven* /hɛvɪn/. (5) Metathesis of plosive and fricative, for example *ask* /hɑks/.

Morphosyntax (1) A frequent lack of agreement between subject and predicate. (2) No gender distinction with pronouns. (3) Absence of copula, for example *John ill*. (4) Absence of passive voice. (5) Reduplication for intensification: /huɑli huɑli/ 'full of holes', /taːk taːk/ 'talk all the time'.

Vocabulary Contains elements from languages present at one stage in Jamaica, for example *habble* (< Spanish *hablar*), *door-mouth* (< Yoruba *iloro enu* 'threshold', lit. 'porch mouth'). Jamaican English was transported to Britain with the influx of migrants after World War II and has maintained many of its features in urban communities in England.

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The Bahamas is an independent state of the Caribbean, officially the Commonwealth of the Bahamas, which consists of an archipelago of about 700 larger islands and over 2,400 smaller islands and reefs, covering about 14,000 sq km, only a small minority of which are inhabited. The Bahamas extend for some 1,200 km south of the United States to the eastern end of Cuba. New Providence is the main island with over 70 per cent of the total population of over 300,000 and is where the capital Nassau is located. Another major island is Grand Bahama in the north of the archipelago. The first Europeans arrived at the islands in 1648 and from 1670 it was under the control of the British and became a colony in 1717, gaining independence in 1973. English is the official language although over 80 per cent of the population, which is overwhelmingly of African descent, speak Bahamian Creole, an Englishbased creole.

Bahamian Creole, spoken by the Afro-Bahamian population, is non-rhotic and has stop realizations of the THIN and THIS lexical sets. A number of mergers are attested, for example the pen-pin merger and the near-square merger as well as variation in the realization of /v/ and /w/. Anglo-Bahamian often shows H-dropping, for example *harm* [arm], *hope* [oʊp], with H-insertion also found, for example *eggs* [hegz], *itch* [hɪʧ], possibly due to hypercorrection, though this is not entirely certain

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Barbados is an island state of the south-east Caribbean with an area of 431 sq km and a population of just under 300,000 with about 80,000 living in the capital Bridgetown. The British began to settle Barbados in 1627, establishing a colony there, three years after they arrived at St Kitts and Nevis (though the Spanish and Portuguese had visited

the island before). It became independent in 1966. In the beginning, during the homestead phase, only regional speakers from Britain were on the island working on plantations mainly producing tobacco. With the switch to sugar cane in the 1640s the need for a larger labour force which could deal with the harsh conditions and climate became obvious and the British decided to import black slaves from West Africa, thus initiating the influx of an African population into the Caribbean. English is the official language of Barbados and is generally heteronymous to English English. The basilectal form of English is known as Bajan (< Barbadian). It is different from Caribbean creoles and indeed there is disagreement about whether it should better be classified as a dialect of English. English on the island is rhotic, an exception among Caribbean Englishes. This could be due to West Country English or Irish influence from the period of early settlement. It also shows a shift of dental fricatives to /f, v/, rather than solely to /t, d/ as elsewhere in the Caribbean, for example *birthday, path*; with /-f/ and *bathe* with /v/. In the verbal system *do* [da] indicates the progressive, for example *You do sleeping?* The form *does* marks the habitual: *He does catch fish*. In the past, *did* often replaces *was*: *They did eating. Dat did a good picture*.

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Belize is a country on the Caribbean rim in the south-east of Yucatan peninsula, bordering with Mexico. About 23,000 sq km in size, it has a population of about 350,000 with about a fifth of that in the capital Belize City. The region was first settled in the seventeenth century by shipwrecked English sailors and soldiers. In 1862 the colony of British Honduras was formally established. The name was changed to Belize in 1973 and the country became independent in 1981. The official language is English, but Spanish is spoken by between a third and a half of the population. English-lexifier Belize Creole (Kriol) is widely spoken and exists in an urban form in the capital. It is closely related to Miskito coast Creole. Native American (Mayan) languages are also spoken by small numbers.

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Dominica is an island state in the Lesser Antilles (Eastern Caribbean). At 750 sq km in size and with a population of approximately 73,000, it is a former British colony and became independent in 1978 (after a spell in the short-lived West Indies Federation, 1958–1962) with English as the official language. However, the vernacular is a French-lexifier creole, Antillean Creole, also spoken on St Lucia and Trinidad and Tobago and related to Haitian Creole.

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Eastern Caribbean is a geographical reference to the small islands of the Eastern Caribbean, comprising the Lesser Antilles which stretch from the Virgin Islands in the

north, immediately east of Puerto Rico, to Trinidad in the south, just off the coast of South America. The anglophone islands in this group were among the first settled in the seventeenth century and are dialectally separate from other anglophone Caribbean locations such as Jamaica or the Bahamas, for example in retaining initial /h-/ not found elsewhere in the Caribbean and in showing a merger of /v/ and /w/.

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Guyana is a country on the Caribbean coast of South America with an area of 215,000 sq km and a population of approximately 800,000 of whom about 350,000 live in and around the capital Georgetown. The area of Guyana was discovered by Columbus in 1498 and settled by the Dutch in the sixteenth century. The Dutch colonies were ceded to the British in 1815. In 1966 the country gained its independence from the United Kingdom. The official language is English. An English-based creole (Guyanese) is spoken by about 60 per cent of the population. Its vocabulary contains items from English, Dutch and native languages.

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Panamanian Creole is a creole spoken in the Central American country of Panama, mostly on its Caribbean coast; also known as Colón Creole. It is similar to other English-lexifier creoles of the western Caribbean Rim such as Miskito Creole (Nicaragua), Limón Creole (Costa Rica) and Belizean Creole (Belize).

AFRICA

The Scramble for Africa is a term used to describe the division of Africa by European powers during the 1880s and 1890s. During this period, these powers established their political authority in Africa. From the mid 1870s the European powers showed a determination to expand inland from the African coast. The Berlin Conference of 1884–1885, ostensibly to deal with the future of the Congo, laid the foundations for the political division of Africa into zones controlled by European powers who drew up treaties relating to their spheres of influence and subsequently proceeded to conquer these militarily. British East Africa included the areas of present-day Uganda and Kenya. In South Africa Cecil Rhodes pushed northwards in the 1880s establishing later Rhodesia (Southern and Northern, present-day Zimbabwe and Zambia respectively). The area of Bechuanaland was roughly coterminous with present-day Botswana while Nyasaland equated with modern Malawi. The area of present-day Namibia became German South-West Africa. Togo and Cameroon became German colonies for a time (until the Treaty of Versailles in 1919 after Germany's defeat in World War I) as did tracts of East Africa known as Deutsch-Ostafrika 'German East Africa'. Most African countries became independent from their European colonizers in the mid twentieth century, often involving military struggle as the Europeans resisted independence movements, for example the French in Algeria or the Belgians in the Congo.

East Africa. A large area encompassing countries from Ethiopia down to Mozambique on the Indian Ocean side of Africa. Three of these countries were former British colonies: Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania. The position of English there has been somewhat different from that in Southern and West Africa not least because of the long-standing indigenous lingua franca, Swahili. English was thus used as a supplementary language and not a primarily pidginized one as was the case in West Africa. Because the native languages of Eastern Africa frequently belong to the Bantu group there is in most instances a common substrate. Furthermore, English interacts with Swahili in this region so that code-switching and mixed forms result. In general East African English is non-rhotic and has a simplified vowel system with frequent syllable-timing.

Southern Africa. A distinction is made between South Africa – a country, officially called the *Republic of South Africa* – and Southern Africa – a region which consists of South Africa and the English-dominant countries Zimbabwe, Zambia, Malawi, Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland. English is also widely used in Namibia, former South-West Africa. The English language was first brought to South Africa at the end of the eighteenth century. It spread northwards during the nineteenth century with the colonial exploration of present-day Zimbabwe and Zambia (former Southern and Northern Rhodesia respectively). The area on the left of Lake Nyasa (in present-day Malawi) was affected by this and partly anglicized. This was also true of Bechuanaland (present-

day Botswana) which resisted incorporation into South Africa. The area of present-day Namibia came under German control later in the nineteenth century but was also affected by the spread of the English language from South Africa and by Afrikaans. Mozambique remained a dependency of Portugal (until 1975) and did not come under the influence of English.

West Africa. A reference to the set of nations on the coast of Western Africa from Gambia, in the north-west, to Cameroon in the south of the region. It is here that trade contacts were most intensive from the beginning of European involvement with the region onwards. Pidgins developed to a greater degree here than in other parts of Africa. Most of the countries of West Africa are former colonies of England (hence the official language of many of them is English) and the base for the pidgins spoken in this region is English, *see* West African Pidgin English. There are also more acrolectal (more formal) varieties which belong to the set of New Englishes, non-native forms of English which have become established as independent varieties in countries which were formerly colonies of England.

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English in Africa has a long and complicated colonial history. The west coast was first visited by the Portuguese in the late fifteenth century. In later centuries European countries established trading posts (for which they often paid ground rent to local rulers) or traded from on board their ships. Later the continent came increasingly to feel colonial pressure from major European powers. This development reached its peak in the nineteenth century with the scramble for Africa when the entire continent was divided up by the Europeans, usually with no regard for the demographic distribution of the indigenous peoples. Thus, the Belgians took a huge part of equatorial Africa calling it Belgian Congo (later Zaire now the Democratic Republic of the Congo). The Portuguese took Angola and the British took lands on the east and west coasts such as Kenya, Uganda and Nigeria, Ghana respectively. What was later to become the Republic of South Africa had an early Dutch and a later English presence. A German presence was to be found in the late nineteenth century (Germany was unified in 1871 and experienced colonial expansion in the following decades), for instance in Togo, Cameroon, in German East Africa (Deutsch-Ostafrika), but most German speakers went to South-West Africa (Deutsch-Südwestafrika), present-day Namibia. Some countries such as Cameroon have had periods under different colonial powers, in this case Britain, France and Germany. The result of this colonial vying for hegemony is that Britain largely prevailed (i) in West Africa, from The Gambia to Nigeria and partly into Cameroon, (ii) in East Africa (Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania) and (iii) in Southern Africa (South Africa, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Malawi, Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland). The English language developed differently depending on whether there were substantial numbers

of settlers, as in South Africa and Zimbabwe, who continued native speaker English at the particular African location.

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Afrikaans is a colonial language based on southern dialects of Dutch which developed in the Cape region of South Africa from the second half of the seventeenth century onwards. Its grammar has been simplified compared to Dutch, a fact which has led many linguists to believe that Afrikaans arose through a process of pidginization with later creolization. For this, inter-ethnic contact between colonists and their slaves (of African or South Asian origin) and Khoe workers may have been responsible. Decreolization would then have followed, much as with forms of African American English in North America. **Afrikaans English** is a variety of English spoken in South Africa by individuals whose first language is Afrikaans. Afrikaans English is not a single focussed variety so that not all features will necessarily be present in all forms.

Pronunciation (1) [a] is raised to [ɛ] which leads to a push shift for the mid vowels. (2) The lax high front vowel /ɪ/, as in *bit*, is centralized to [ə], except initially or after /h/. (3) Fronting of /uː/ and /ʊ/ to /y(ː)/ is not as prevalent as in other varieties because Afrikaans has phonemic /yː/ which inhibits the forward movement of high back vowels. (4) /ɑː/ may be raised and rounded to [ɔː] and hence front and unrounded as a hypercorrection in Afrikaans English: [äː]. (5) High off-glides can be reduced or lost entirely, for example *side* [sɑːd], but this does not hold for all speakers. (6) Consonants show final devoicing as in Afrikaans, for example *bread* [bret]. (7) Afrikaans does not have voiced sibilants or /θ, ð/ and the latter are commonly realized as stops with occasional replacement of /θ/ by /f/. (8) /r/ can be realized as an alveolar trill or tap (especially intervocalically). (9) Voiceless stops may lack aspiration. (10) Alveolar stops may be dental /t, d/ > [t̪, d̪]. (11) Epenthetic [h] can occur as a hiatus-breaker, for example in a word like *theatre*.

Morphology (1) There is a tendency not to mark verbs in the third person singular, for example *His temper flare up. Monday mornings when the school start*. (2) A tendency exists not to mark (non-punctual) verbs in the past *And all the sand blow against my legs*. (3) Demonstrative pronouns may reduce to one, for example *You can control that steps. Where can you get that contacts?* (4) Singular *it/there* can occur with plural referents. *It was funny things happening. There is some other instruments*.

Syntax (1) *Busy* is used in a much larger range of contexts (perhaps an extension based on Afrikaans *is besig om*…), for example *He is busy sleeping on the sofa*. *She is busy worrying about the children*. (2) Progressive forms of stative verbs are attested: *My mother was having her suspicions*. (3) The order of adverbials is different from other varieties of English: time, manner, place (from Afrikaans): *She went this morning by bus to town*. (4) Adverbials occur post-verbally before an object: *They demand now*

their rights. (5) Use of *now* for the immediate future: *I'll phone her now* or as an intensifier: *He's now really stupid*. (6) With WH-questions the interrogative word order is maintained in subordinate clauses, for example *I must just find out when is he coming. How can I tell you how was it?* (7) Deletion of verb markers and contracted forms of the verb 'to be' occur: *She looking tired*; *The wife play*.

Vocabulary Apart from specific terms from the region and direct borrowings from Afrikaans there are features which could be due to transfer or retention, for example the use of *learn* for *teach*. Afrikaans has only one word *leer* but dialects of English had, and some have, *learn* with an animate object in the sense of *teach*. Confusion may occur with sets of verbs with complementary meanings, for example *lend* and *borrow* (Afrikaans again has one word *leen* covering the semantic range of both these verbs). But again some dialects of English have *lend* in both senses. The inherited distinction of *less* and *fewer* (the former for non-countable nouns and the latter for countable ones) is not necessarily maintained, for example *Less students are studying Afrikaans these days* perhaps because Afrikaans uses *min* in both cases. However, the lack of this distinction could be due to its demise in more general varieties of English.

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West African Pidgin English is a form of pidgin English which was and still is spoken along the coast of West Africa from Sierra Leone to Cameroon, with the exception of Liberia where Liberian Pidgin English, a pidginized form of Liberian Settler English (spoken by the descendants of nineteenth-century repatriated slaves), is found. The use of a single term for pidgin English in this area is justified by the demographic and trade contacts which have always existed along the West African coast.

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Nigerian Pidgin English is a pidgin spoken by at least half the population of present-day Nigeria as a second language and possibly by a few million as first language (in which case it would strictly speaking be a creole). This pidgin arose through contact between the English and speakers of indigenous languages, particularly in the Niger Delta in the nineteenth century, a region where the concentration of speakers has always been greatest. Different varieties of the pidgin are spoken across Nigeria depending on the background languages of the regions. Nigerian Pidgin English forms a continuum with vernacular forms of Nigerian English and is related to the more general west African Pidgin English. It may show more basilectal features of pronunciation, for example final liquid deletion as in *botu* for *bottle*, *pipu* for *people* and epenthetic vowels to ensure CV-structures as in *futubol* for *football*. Lexical pitch distinctions may be carried over from background languages into varieties of the pidgin.

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Krio is an English-lexifier creole which developed in the nineteenth century among the freed slaves and their descendants in the area of present-day Sierra Leone, especially in the area around the capital Freetown. It was also transported to Bioko (an island belonging to Equatorial Guinea). Krio is closely related to west African Pidgin English. It has developed a written form and been used as a literary medium.

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Black South African English. Since the end of apartheid in the early 1990s and the establishment of black majority government in 1994 English has expanded greatly among the black population of South Africa. The varieties which have arisen show a considerable influence of the native background languages of speakers, chiefly Xhosa and Zulu (Nguni languages), the two main representatives of a number of Southern Bantu languages which also include three large Sotho languages (Tswana, Northern Sotho and Southern Sotho).

Typical features of Bantu languages emerge in Black South African English, for example syllable-timing, lack of systemic vowel length distinctions, lack of diphthongs in the FACE and GOAT lexical sets, non-rhoticity and TH-stopping. With the increased status of the blacks, these varieties may become more focussed and serve as linguistic identification for the aspiring black section of the South African population. Certainly varieties of Black South African English are more present in public life in contemporary South Africa, something which has prompted research into restandardization and more recently into structural convergence among varieties of English in South Africa.

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Kamtok is the name for the English pidgin spoken in Cameroon since at least the late nineteenth century. It is mutually intelligible with West African pidgin English. Like this it is non-rhotic, has stops in the THIN and THIS lexical sets and no vowel length distinctions. Kamtok has, however, more consonantal distinctions than other pidgins, for example it has [s, ʃ, z ʧ, ʤ], shows [h] and distinguishes [f] and [v]. Many vowels of English have been lost by merger to single sounds, for example /a, ɑː, ə/ > [a]: [man] *man,* [fada] *priest*, [agri] *agree,* /ɔː, ʌ/ > [ɔ] *god* [gɔd], *cut* [kɔt], /ɛ, ɜː/ > [e] *head* [het], *bird* [bet]. It also shows final devoicing (see last two examples). Kamtok is widely understood in Cameroon and may be used by as many as half of the over 20 million Cameroonians.

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Republic of South Africa is a large country occupying most of the lower extreme of Africa. It has an area of 1.2 million sq km and a population of approximately 49 million. The administrative capital is Pretoria, the judicial capital Bloemfontein and the legislative capital Cape Town. The largest city is Johannesburg, with over 3.8 million in its metropolitan area. Durban (KwaZulu-Natal) and Port Elizabeth (Eastern Cape) are other major cities. South Africa's post-apartheid constitution recognizes 11 official languages: English, Afrikaans; Xhosa, Zulu, Swati, Ndebele (Nguni languages); Southern Sotho, Northern Sotho, Tswana (Sotho languages) along with Tsonga and Venda. In 1652 the Cape of Good Hope was colonialized by Dutch navigators of the Vereenigde Oostindische Compagnie (VOC – the Dutch East India Company) charged with founding a victualling station on the route to the Dutch possessions in Asia. English was introduced in 1795 when the British occupied the colony in the name of the Prince of Orange who was a refugee in England at the time. In 1806 the British seized the Cape from the Dutch in a further pre-emptive move against Napoleon. In 1811 the British government started the systematic Anglicization of the Cape Colony and in 1814 instructed that English be made the sole official language. In 1840 Dutch was prohibited as a medium of instruction in schools and only reinstated as an alternative in 1892. In 1820 approximately 4,000 British emigrants landed at Port Elizabeth and settled in the Eastern Cape region. To escape the British and keep their slaves, many Dutch-speaking farmers (Voortrekkers) made the Great Trek across the Orange River, establishing the Republic of Natal in 1839 which was then annexed by the British in 1846; the Republics of Orange Free State (1854) and Transvaal (1852, north-east corner of the country) were not affected. The 1820 group was probably more rural than urban and contained many speakers from the London and the Home Counties. Lass sees the specifically southern features in South African English as deriving from the speech of this settler group. However, Bekker regards the late nineteenth century as the formative period for white South African English. Between 1848 and 1862 a second wave of settlement

occurred in Natal. Here the input from northern counties (Yorkshire and Lancashire) was noticeable as opposed to the southern influence during the 1820 settlement. Between 1860 and 1911 various indentured labourers from India arrived in South Africa and formed the basis for the later Indian-based population in the country. With the discovery of gold and diamonds in the 1870s and 1880s there was a major influx of immigrants who greatly outnumbered the old colonials. A new society arose, particularly in Transvaal, around the mining centres. Two Boer Wars (also called the South African Wars) were fought for influence in South Africa by the British and the Dutch during 1880–1801 and 1899–1902. The staunchly Afrikaner Nationalist Party came to power in 1948 and pursued an active anti-English policy in the third quarter of the twentieth century (mainly from 1958–1976), above all in education. It introduced formal apartheid (strict racial segregation) in the midtwentieth century. With the end of apartheid in 1994 a new era was ushered in with full participation of the native black population of South Africa. This has led to a greater presence of black south African English in public and the media which in turn has resulted in a destigmatization of its features as well as a convergence on the linguistic norms of the white population (*see* restandardization). The following remarks apply to white South African English and in a more restricted way to Afrikaans English.

Phonology (1) In general, South African English is non-rhotic: *car* [kɑː], *card* [kɑːd]. Some Afrikaans speakers show an obstruent /r/ stemming from their first language. Note that South Africa has 4 of the 6 southern features listed in Mitchell and Delbridge. (2) Centralization of the first element with the diphthongs /eɪ/ and /ɔʊ/, for example *may* /məɪ/, *go* /gəʊ/ (only the latter is true for RP). (3) Raising of front short vowels: *man* /mɛn/, a traditional Southern Hemisphere feature. However, as in Australia, this historical process may be turning around with lowering of these vowels, certainly of the TRAP vowel. (4) Schwa is frequently found for /ɪ/, for example *pin* /pən/ and in unstressed syllables, *wanted* /wɒntəd/, *see* kit-bit split. (5) The diphthong /ai/ as in *time* is often quite open: [taɛm, taːm].

Syntax The influence of Afrikaans may be noticeable, cf. the lack of prepositions with many verbs, for example *explain*, *reply*, *write*. The word *busy* is found as a progressive marker: *They were busy arguing*. There is a general purpose *is it?*: *He's gone abroad, is it?* or the common *ne* [nɛ] (from Afrikaans and with the same semantics as English *is it?*), initially used by blacks then by Afrikaans and English speakers. A positive use of *no* in sentence-initial position occurs, cf. *How are you keeping? No, we're well thank you*.

Lexis There are two main sources for loanwords in South African English: (1) Dutch / Afrikaans, for example *kloof* 'ravine', *kraal* 'animal pen', *veld* 'unenclosed land', *apartheid*; (2) native languages of the region, especially for flora and fauna, for example *impala* type of antelope. Sometimes there are special uses of English words, for example

shame as a positive exclamation meaning ‘how sweet’, as in A: *They’ve got a new pup*. B: *Shame!*. A use of ‘sorry’ as a signal of general hearer misfortune has been adopted from blacks and occurs increasingly in white English.

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South African Indian English is a term for varieties spoken by the descendants of Indians taken to KwaZulu-Natal (then simply Natal) between 1860 and 1911. During this period the British government of India allowed the recruitment of labour for other parts of the empire. The result was the movement of hundreds of thousands to other colonies: in the Indian ocean to Mauritius (1834) and in the Caribbean to British Guyana (1838), Jamaica and Trinidad (1844) and later other West Indian islands. The movement to Natal was part of this process; speakers of Bhojpuri (varieties of Hindi) from northern India as well as Tamil and Telugu speakers from southern India were the main groups involved. Smaller numbers of other ethnic groups – Gujarati, Marathi (Konkani), Sindhi (Meman) – arrived from 1875 onwards, mainly trading-class Indians from east-central areas. Nearly all the immigrants could not speak English. The language they learned first was the pidgin Fanagolo (which predates their arrival). Among themselves the Indians resorted to one of their native languages, typically Bhojpuri or Tamil. English would seem to have been presented to the Indians through missionaries, teachers and English-speaking owners of sugar plantations. Mesthrie thinks that the exposure to English was less thorough, consisting just of teachers and some other speakers of English in Natal, many of whom did not have it as their native language. Mesthrie suggests that for the nineteenth century there were as many non-native English contacts for the Indians as there were mothertongue contacts. The period of shift from domestic Indian languages to dominant native-like English is fairly recent for Natal, only getting under way after World War II with the general improvement of educational institutions: the ‘closed cycle of reinforcement’ is where parents (mothers in rural homes especially) learned English from their children who were carrying the language home from school.

Phonology (1) Syllable timing in informal speech. (2) Retroflexion of alveolars /t, d/ particularly in syllable-final, open position, for example *but* [bʌʈ], *bud* [bʌɖ]. (3) Use of dental stops /ʈ̪/ and /ɖ̪/ in the THIN and THIS lexical sets.

Grammar (1) Second person plural pronoun formed by eliding *you* and *all*: *Are y’all coming?* A possessive form also exists with genitive *’s*: *Is that y’all’s dog?* (2) Copula/auxiliary deletion is common: *Harry not there*. (3) Fronting can take place without clefting (topicalized element is moved to the front): *Banana you want; Near to Margate that is*. (4) Zero subject relative pronoun: *We talking about my friend Ø lives down there. I’m a man Ø I don’t go church at all*. (5) Preference of parataxis over hypotaxis: *I went to Derek – Derek filled that form in – he sent it*. (6) Relative clauses

precede the head noun of the main clause: *You can't beat that (= those) Vijay's-planted tomatoes*. (7) Non-inversion of subject and auxiliary in main clause *wh*-questions: *I don't know when is the plane going to land*. (8) Recasting of passives as actives in basilectal forms: *In TV that sees*. 'That can be seen on TV'. (9) Possessive for existential: *Small broom haven' got?*, 'Don't you have a small broom?', *Got one big dog there*. 'There's a big dog there.' (10) Word order of Indian languages can be maintained with titles, for example *Johnny Uncle*. (11) Reduplication of *wh*-words: *who-who* 'who of several people', *where-where* 'where of several places', *what-what* 'what of several things'. *Who-who's coming today? Where-where they sent you? What-what she told me I listened nicely*. 'I listened carefully to whatever she told me'. (12) Extended partitive genitive: *She put too much of nuts in the cake. There's too much of nonsense at work*. (13) Articles show the interplay of different elements: (*The* > *Ø*) *Food is lovely*. (presupposed + specific), *At the stall I bought one soda water*. (asserted + specific), *If they give us* (*a* > *Ø*) *chance*. (non-specific). (14) Aspectual structures (i): habitual with (a) *stay*, (b) invariant *be* or (c) *should* in the past. *They used to fight and stay*. 'They used to be continually quarrelling'. (15) Aspectual structures (ii): perfective with (a) *leave*, (b) *finish*: *She filled the bottle an' left it*. 'She filled the bottle up'.

ASIA

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Asian Englishes is a collective reference to forms of English spoken in South Asia and South-East Asia from Pakistan to the Philippines. There is a considerable range of English in these countries, from poor second language knowledge to near-native competence (recently in Singapore, for instance). A common trait of these varieties is that they have arisen not through large numbers of anglophone settlers but through exposure to English in public life, typically in education.

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Asian languages. The continent of Asia stretches from Turkey in the west to Japan in the east and from northern Siberia to Sri Lanka in the centre and Singapore in the south-east (with the island nations of Indonesia and the Philippines further south-east still). A great diversity of languages is found in this large area. The following list is approximate. (1) *West Asia*: (a) *Caucasian languages*, (b) *Indo-European languages*; (2) *Siberia*: (a) *Uralic languages* (*Finno-Ugric, Samoyedic, Yukaghir*), (b) *Paleosiberian languages*; (3) *Central Asia*: (a) *Altaic languages (Turkic, Mongolian, Tungusic)*; (4) *China*: (a) *Sino-Tibetan (Sinitic, Tibeto-Burman)*; (5) *Middle East, South Asia*: (a) *Indo-European*, (b) *Afroasiatic*, (c) *Dravidian*; (6) *South-East Asia*: (a) *Tibeto-Burman*, (b) *Tai-Kadai*, (c) *Austroasiatic (Munda languages, Mon-Khmer group)*, (d) *Miao-Yao (Hmong-Mien)*.

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Butler English is a variety of colonial English in India which stems putatively from the language used by Indian domestic servants when communicating with their British masters. It is claimed that it survived independence and continued in cities in the latter half of the twentieth century. It has distinctive features in pronunciation and grammar, for example the overuse of progressive verb forms in *-ing* and the use of *done* as an auxiliary to form the perfect.

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East Asia. A reference to the area which includes the densely populated countries China, Japan and Korea. English is a foreign language in this region and shows the heavy influence of background languages. There are some similarities among the genetically unrelated languages of East Asia, notably the lack of consonant clusters. Languages like Chinese have tone distinctions and Japanese has a pitch accent system (standard Korean does not have this) which can lead to intonational patterns not found in first-language varieties of English.

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Hong Kong is a former British colony in southern China in the province of Guangdong (Canton). Hong Kong Island came under British rule in 1848 with the regulations of the Treaty of Nanking. From the 1970s onwards, English and Chinese were both declared official languages in Hong Kong, but from the 1990s onwards the Hong Kong government has followed a policy of 'trilingualism and biliteracy', which recognizes spoken Cantonese, English, and Putonghua (Mandarin), and written Chinese and English. English is spoken as a first language by only 3.5 per cent of the population, compared to a total of 89.5 per cent for Cantonese (figures from the 2011 government census). However, English is spoken by some 43 per cent of the community as a second language, and plays an important role in written communication and international trade. It is an important language in secondary education and at the seven major universities, as well as other tertiary institutions. English is also used as a lingua franca between Chinese and non-Chinese. There have been investigations of the pronunciation of English by Cantonese speakers living in Hong Kong, which found that there were key areas of non-standard pronunciation including initial TH, consonant clusters, L-vocalization, sonorant conflation (involving [n] and [l] – a unique Hong Kong feature deriving from Cantonese) as well as non-native-like vowel values along with unusual rhythm and sentence stress. On the level of lexis Chinese (usually Cantonese) words are found in Hong Kong English, such as *taipan* 'business executive' or *pak choi* 'type of cabbage', as are calques such as *dragon boat*. Abbreviations are also common, for example *legco* 'legislative council', as are lexicalized expressions such as *short week* 'week without work on Sunday'.

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Singaporean English is a reference to a continuum of varieties found in Singapore, the most acrolectal of which is fairly close to general English English, the exonormative model (British is preferred over American spelling).

Phonology Features of basilectal varieties would include: (1) TH-stopping, for example *this* [dɪs], *thin* [tɪn]. (2) An inconsistent distinction of /l/ and /r/, for example *Singrish* 'Singlish'. (3) The reduction of word-final clusters, for example *stopped* [stɒp], which leads to considerable homophony. (4) Unaspirated stops in syllable-initial position. (5) Glottal stops for final consonants, for example *pick* [pɪ(k)ʔ], *bet* [bɛ(t)ʔ]. (6) Monophthongal realizations of the FACE and GOAT vowels. (7) Furthermore, /ɛ/ can equate to /a/ while /ɑ/ can to both /ɑː/ and /ʌ/ of southern English English. (8) Final devoicing of obstruents is usual, for example *five* [faɪf], *leg* [lɛk].

Grammar (1) Topicalization via left dislocation is common: *Today good weather lah*. (2) Copula deletion is frequent: *My brother* O *school teacher*. (3) Lack of redundant marking, for example with nouns after numerals: *New book twenty dollar*. (4) Various aspectual distinctions are made, for example progressive with *still*: *Late already, you*

still eat ‘It’s late already and you are still eating’. (5) *Is it?* is used as an invariant tag, for example *He watching television, is it?* (6) *Get* is used to express perfectivity or existence apart from possession, for example *He got go to Japan* ‘He has been to Japan’; *Here got very many people* ‘There are many people here’. (7) The article (definite/ indefinite) is frequently missing, for example *She got car or not?* ‘Does she have a car?’ (8) Pronouns may be missing with verbs in unambiguous contexts, for example *Always late!* ‘You are always late’. (9) Reduplication is common as an intensifier, for example *We buddy buddy* (close friends), *Where is you boy boy?* (boyfriend/ son) *Don’t always eat sweet sweet things*.

Pragmatics The particle *lah* is widely used and expresses solidarity, agreement or is employed to draw attention, for example *Your work very good, lah*.

GLOSSARY

accent A reference to pronunciation, that is the collection of phonetic features which allow speakers to be identified regionally and/or socially. Frequently it indicates that someone does not speak the standard form of a language, cf. *He speaks with a strong accent*.

accent bar A reference to the fact that a local accent is often an obstacle to social advancement and public acceptance.

acceptance In language planning, when speech communities agree to take on a particular variety of language suggested, engineered or imposed by the authorities.

accommodation A term from sociology (used primarily by Howard Giles) and applied to sociolinguistics, above all by the British sociolinguist Peter Trudgill. It assumes that when speakers are in face-to-face interaction with other speakers they will adapt their speech to that of their interlocutors, perhaps in an effort to make them feel at ease or to be socially accepted by them. If this accommodation occurs across an entire community then it can lead to new dialects which contain combinations of input features. Accommodation is taken to be responsible for the reduction in differences between dialects and for the rise of intermediate forms. It does not take place via the media. Additionally, individuals who leave a rural area, go to a city and return are accommodated to as they are regarded as being carriers of prestige forms by local inhabitants.

acquisition The process whereby children absorb linguistic information unconsciously and internalize it, using it later when they wish to speak the language in question – their native language. Acquisition is unconscious, largely unguided and shows a high degree of completeness compared to second language learning. A broader definition of the term would also include the unguided learning of a second language in a language contact situation.

acrolect In a post-creolization situation, the acrolect is the variety spoken mostly by those at the top of the social hierarchy or with the greatest educational status. This variety is closer to the lexifier language than the mesolectal or basilectal forms.

actuation In theories of language change, the trigger which initiates change. This can be the preference for a type of pronunciation or a certain grammatical structure among speakers of a group (an external trigger). The drive to regularize paradigms in morphology would be an example of an internal trigger and is typical of early language acquisition.

adaptation A stage which often follows borrowing in which foreign words are made to conform to the phonology of the receiving language, for example early French loans in English have initial stress (as is typical of the lexical stems in English), for example *certain, forest, hostel, malice,* but later French loans have not been adapted to this pattern, for example *prestige, hotel, police,* all with stress on the second syllable.

address system The set of rules which specify what forms are appropriate when speaking to others in a certain social context. In most European languages (except English

and Irish) there is a twofold system with one set of pronouns used for familiar address (*tu, toi, ta, ton* in French) and one for formal address (*vous, votre*). The range of each set differs among groups in any given society and between different countries but in general the former – t-forms – are used among friends and relatives and the latter – v-forms – with strangers.

adolescent speech The speech of individuals between puberty and their late teens. This is a stage in which young people find their bearings in society and establish their personality. It is also a period in which individuals vary in their use of language depending on what groups in their speech community they associate with or aspire to.

adopters, early and late For any instance of language change there will be (i) innovators, those who initiate a change and (ii) adopters who pick this up. The latter group can be divided into two with a small group of early adopters and a larger, more mainstream, group of late adopters. Only when the latter has adopted the change completely can it be said to have taken place fully.

advanced pronunciation A form of a variety which shows all features characteristic of this variety to the fullest degree, including the most recent changes. For example, advanced RP would show the merger of words like *poor* and *pour*, something which does not hold for all RP speakers.

age-grading A reference to the possible differential use of features across the lifetime of speakers. The key periods are adolescence and early adulthood. When individuals emerge from childhood at puberty they orientate themselves increasingly towards groups outside the family and they may adapt their realization of key variables depending on how they position themselves vis-a-vis these groups. For instance, whether individuals living in London shows th-fronting may depend on whether they wish to associate with groups who already have this feature. Later reorientation, for example when their employment leads to new associations, may involve removing this feature from their speech. However, there does not seem to be firm evidence for large groups varying in the same manner between adolescence and adulthood across a number of generations.

alternatives, lexical Some common words vary across major varieties of English, for example *faucet* and *tap*, *gas* and *petrol*, the first being American and the second British usage. In some cases, often because of the influence of American English, alternatives exist in one and the same variety, for example *rubbish* and *garbage* in English in England, although the latter word is traditionally regarded as American usage.

ambiguous A term referring to an item or structure with two or more possible meanings and which requires a context for its interpretation, for example the homonyms *bear* or *bank*.

anglocentric A term which implies that an approach or analysis, in language or literature, is biased towards England and takes the privileged status of English culture for granted. Much criticism is found in post-colonial studies of earlier stances in literature, and sometimes in linguistics, which are covertly, or even overtly, anglocentric.

anglophone A term used to refer to English-speaking countries or to pidgins and creoles which have English as their lexifier language.

areal linguistics The study of languages/varieties from the point of view of their geographical distribution and the possible clustering of features in certain areas. Shared features which are not traceable to common dialect input are normally the focus of attention.

argot A term for the speech of a particular group, for example a profession or trade; language specific to a certain group in society, usually one with low status, e.g. criminals. In general, it is deliberately secretive with vocabulary and phrases not readily comprehensible to others in contact with the group in question.

artificial language A language that has been deliberately created for particular purposes, such as Esperanto, created in the late nineteenth century as an attempt to devise an international language.

autonomy The level of independence a variety has when compared with other varieties. It is a term often used in relation to a dialect continuum.

back slang A kind of slang in which the order of sounds and/or letters is reversed, for example *yob* 'lout, hooligan' from *boy* in nineteenth-century English.

back-channelling Used in conversation and discourse analysis to refer to the supportive verbal noises and gestures that a hearer makes, such as 'mhm' or 'yeah'. Backchannels are sometimes referred to as minimal responses.

background language(s) A reference to language(s) which may be the first language(s) of sections of a population and which have a structural effect on forms of English which arise in a region. Background languages need not be indigenous languages, for example Chinese and Tamil in Singapore were themselves transported there through migration in the last few centuries. The notion of background language is similar to that of substrate in pidgin and creole studies.

basilect, mesolect, acrolect Terms from creole studies to refer to the varieties furthest away from, in the middle and nearest to the standard of the lexifier language respectively, for example as applied to varieties of English in Jamaica.

BBC English A popular reference to the accent known to linguists as received pronunciation. The reference arose because the institution referred to used only employ people with this accent of English.

bidialectism This term refers to a speaker's ability to use two or more dialects, and to know how to code-switch appropriately between these different varieties.

bilingualism (1) The ability to speak two languages with native-like competence. In individual cases one language will be dominant. The term is often used if someone

can simply speak a second language well and there is much debate on the degree of competence required in two languages for an individual to be classified as bilingual. There are other factors involved such as whether two languages are acquired simultaneously in early childhood or whether the second language is acquired at a later stage, often in adulthood due to such factors as emigration or marriage to a spouse with a different native language. (2) The term is also applied to societies and/or countries. Well-known examples of bilingual countries in the anglophone world are Canada and south Africa. There are differences here, however, as the English and Afrikaans communities in the latter country tend to show greater awareness and knowledge of the respective opposite language (South Africa is in fact multilingual, now recognizing 11 different official languages). In addition, the communities are interwoven in South Africa whereas in Canada there is a much stricter geographical separation of English and French.

boosters An expression of certainty by a speaker, which increases the overall force of an utterance, such as use of the phrase 'of course'. Often used in investigations of linguistic politeness.

broken English A general term to refer to basilectal forms of English in countries without historically continuous forms of the language, for example in India or Malaysia. The term is not a linguistic one, but enjoys wide currency in everyday speech.

catastrophic theory A view that change in pidgins and creoles is so rapid and complete that communication between generations can be impaired. This view is opposed to the notion of gradual and largely imperceptible language change.

change An alteration in the language system used by a social group. The term 'change' gains significance in contrast to 'innovation', the latter referring to an alteration, as in the pronunciation of a sound or the use of a new phrase or structure which does not hold for all speakers in a group and which does not change the system of the variety in question. When an innovation spreads to an entire community and is irreversible for a later generation one can speak of 'change'.

change from above Language change that comes from above the level of consciousness, usually because speakers want to sound like a higher status group; appears in more formal speech first.

change from below Language change that occurs without speakers being aware of it; appears in the vernacular first.

child-directed speech (CDS) The speech that adults use when talking to children.

closing A term used in *discourse analysis* to describe the turns which end a conversation.

code A word used in sociolinguistics to mean a variety of a language; it is intentionally neutral and does not specify if the variety is a particular dialect (e.g., 'Cockney') or a broader category (e.g., 'English'); compare with *language*, *dialect*, *register*, *genre*, and *style*. It is intended to be the most general and neutral of terms.

code-mixing Among bilingual individuals, the act of mixing elements, words and/or sentences, from one variety/language with those from another.

code-switching Moving from one language to another within a single sentence or phrase. It is found among bilinguals who feel it appropriate to change languages (or dialects in some cases) – perhaps to say something which speakers feel can best be said in the language switched to. Code-switching is normally divided into two broad types: (i) inter-sentential and (ii) intrasentential. The latter is governed by fairly strict rules concerning the points in a sentence at which one can change over, for example between clauses.

codification A process whereby variation in language is reduced and becomes fixed. It can be divided into *overt* and *covert* types, depending on whether there is explicit, formal codification, often encapsulated in grammars and dictionaries or on whether the codification is implicit, something speakers are aware of but which is not set out in writing. Former features which are excluded from a later codified norm usually become stigmatized, for example demonstrative *them* or *done* as a preterite.

cognate A word/form which is historically related to another, usually in a different language, for example English *heart* is cognate with Greek *kardia* because both have the same Indo-European root.

colloquial A term referring to a register of language which is informal, normally only spoken and which deliberately contrasts with written norms. Colloquial registers are innovative in that most instances of language change first occur in these.

colonial English(es) A collective reference to all varieties of English which were carried either from Britain or Ireland to locations overseas (after about 1600). These were the first language forms of English emigrants (deportees or settlers) and continued in an unbroken line at the new locations, for example in the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand. The English language in Scotland and Wales goes back to forms of Old English and in Ireland to forms of Middle English and are not subsumed under the present term.

colonial lag A term used to denote the supposed conservatism of dialects at a distance from the historical homeland such as colonial varieties of English. The reason proposed for the lag is that these varieties were cut off from the country of origin at some early point in their history and did not undergo those developments which took place there. Two lexical examples would be the use in American English of *mail* (*Royal Mail* in England shows the older form) and *fall* but *post* and *autumn* (both later French loans) in British English. A grammatical example would be the use of *gotten* (past participle of *get* in the sense of 'receive') in American English but *got* (the later shortened form) in British English (that American usage is the older can be shown by comparing prefixed forms of this verb in British English, cf. *beget – begot – begotten; forget – forget – forgotten*). Phonologically, the presence of non-prevocalic /r/ in American English can, to a certain extent,

be interpreted as a retention of early input. In Dublin English the presence of a long vowel /ɔ:/ before voiceless fricatives is a further instance, cf. *frost* /frɔ:st/, *lost* /lɔ:st/ (this vowel was shortened in the nineteenth century in England).

Historically, commentators on varieties of English outside Britain tend to highlight their conservative nature. For the forth and bargy dialect in Ireland Richard Stanyhurst remarked in 1577 on the similarity between that variety and Chaucerian English. For other varieties the supposed similarity to English of the Elizabethan era or to that of Shakespeare is asserted, cf. remarks on Appalachian English. Precisely what such labels mean is frequently not specified, the putative antiquity being the important point. A closer look at allegedly conservative dialects reveals that they are not simply preserved versions of input forms but have themselves gone through further processes. They can be inherited, that is overseas varieties continue processes initiated at their historical source, as with the raising of short front vowels in the Southern Hemisphere. Varieties at new locations obviously undergo independent developments which may be triggered by language/dialect contact or result from internal motivation within the language or are triggered by the new society using it. In addition, the specific nature of an overseas variety may rest substantially on dialect mixture, given settlers from different regions of Britain and Ireland.

common core theory A view that pidgins and creoles share a common stock of grammatical, and possibly phonological, features which can stem from (1) the original *lingua franca* of the Mediterranean area in the late Middle Ages which provided the initial input for all pidgins (and later creoles) or (2) the language universal nature of pidgins and even more of creoles.

communicative competence The ability to use the language one has acquired in actual communication. This concerns the mastery of pragmatics as opposed to that of a language's structure. The concept is associated with the American linguist and anthropologist Dell Hymes (1927–2009).

community of practice A concept from sociology which refers to those individuals who share a particular occupation or engage in a common activity. This has been analysed from a linguistic point of view to see whether language norms are determined by communities of practice and whether these can initiate language change.

competence and performance According to Noam Chomsky (1928–) in his *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965) competence is the abstract ability of individuals to speak the language they acquired in early childhood The competence of a speaker is unaffected by such factors as nervousness, temporary loss of memory, speech errors, etc. These latter phenomena are the domain of performance, the application of one's competence in the act of speaking. Competence also refers to the ability to judge if a sentence is grammatically well formed; it is an unconscious ability.

contact A term for a situation in which speakers of two languages or varieties are continually in contact with each other, either due to geographical or social closeness or both. The mutual influence which results from such contact can and does lead to changes in the structure – or at least in the lexicon – of one or both languages/varieties.

conflict model Based on a Marxist interpretation of society, whereby social classes are in conflict with one another owing to the unequal distribution of power in society. Contrast with consensus model.

consensus model Based on a functionalist view of society, whereby relationships between social classes are thought to be harmonious. A social theory that is in direct opposition with the conflict model.

convergence A term to indicate that two or more varieties/languages, which have been in contact in history, come to share structural features which then often become indicative of a certain area. The term is also employed when a feature or category may be the result of more than one factor in the history of a language/variety, for example the development of the habitual aspect in the Caribbean which could be due to both its existence in the background languages of Africans taken to the region and in the input varieties of the early English-speaking settlers.

cooperative principle An unspoken agreement between speakers in conversation to follow the maxims of conversation, to interpret sensibly what is said by one's interlocutor and in general to abide by the conventions of linguistic interaction in one's language.

covert prestige When speakers will use a non-standard variety more frequently as an in-group identity marker. Often associated with masculinity.

creole A term used to describe a pidgin after it has become the mother tongue of a certain population. This development usually implies that the pidgin has become more complex grammatically and has increased its vocabulary in order to deal with the entire set of situations in which a native language is used. The increased complexity of creoles is attained through the restructuring of material provided by the pidgin as there is normally no other source of input at the time of creolization.

creolization a process whereby the children of pidgin speakers only have a reduced code as their linguistic input and hence remould the pidgin so that it can function as their native language.

cross-cultural communication Often focused on in discourse analysis and the ethnography of communication, the study of communication that takes place when those who belong to different cultural groupings interact with one another.

crossing Rampton's (1995) term to signify when a speaker/group of speakers use fragments of languages which they do not speak themselves. It can be viewed as a type of code switching.

deficit approach In language and gender research, the perspective that women's language is deficient due to the linguistic practices that are associated with men's

speech being the norm. Women's language is thus negatively evaluated as weak and powerless.

depidginization A process by which a pidgin becomes more complex and acquires a more complicated language system.

descriptive A term referring to presentations and analyses of language which are not evaluative and do not attempt to prescribe usage.

deterioration Any alteration in the meaning of a word which leads to it being assessed negatively by speakers, for example *villain* originally meant 'rustic, inhabitant of a village' but came to mean 'scoundrel'. This development contrasts with *AMELIORATION*, an improvement in meaning.

dialect A term referring to a variety of a language spoken in a certain place, that is a geographically distinct variety of a language. There are urban and rural dialects. The boundaries between dialects are always gradual. Because 'dialect' does not necessarily refer to the social aspects of language, there is also the term sociolects. Dialects are generally different from the standard variety of a language in a particular country and thus are often stigmatized. But in fact, the standard is usually a dialect which by historical circumstance, for example by being spoken in the capital city, became the standard. Standards are codified orthographically and because of their official function have relatively large vocabularies but structurally they are on a par with dialects.

dialect continuum A continuous geographical region in which the transition from one dialect to the next is gradual, for instance the Romance dialects spoken on the northern coast of the Mediterranean from Spain through the south of France to Italy. An anglophone instance would be the dialects spoken between the north and the south of England.

dialectology and general linguistics Dialect geography originated on the basis of the Neogrammarian hypothesis that sound change was regular. The implication is that if a sound change takes place, it will take place in all cases which have the sound in question, or at least in such cases in which the sound occurs in a particular environment, that is sound change is rule-governed and exceptionless. In his studies, the early dialectologist Georg Wenker sought evidence for this, for example the change of word-initial /t/ (as in English *tide*) to /ts/ in German (as in *Zeit* 'time'). Although the claims concerning the rules of sound change are substantially correct, dialect situations are more complex and reveal that sound changes are not always exceptionless. Wenker, for instance, investigated a change of medieval German /u:/ to modern /au/ and found that it was not present in all areas where it could have taken place. In the mid twentieth century attempts were made, for instance by Brian Newton investigating Greek dialects, to show that the assumptions of generative linguistics could help explain the relatedness of dialects of the same language. This strand of research was not very fruitful, however, and was discontinued.

dialects and languages One way of characterizing 'language' and 'dialect' is to regard a language as a collection of mutually intelligible dialects. Mutual intelligibility is, however, not always a successful criterion for grouping dialects into languages, for example when deciding whether basilectal Scots is a dialect of English or indeed a language. Furthermore, cases like Norwegian and Swedish are for political reasons usually considered different languages but speakers of these languages can generally understand each other and communicate successfully. In addition, mutual intelligibility may not be equal in both directions. For instance, Danes generally understand Norwegians and Swedes better than the latter understand Danes.

difference approach In language and gender research, an approach which interprets the linguistic differences between women and men as a consequence of differences in the language that girls and boys learn during the socialization process. This can lead to miscommunication in later life.

diffusion A process of language change whereby linguistic forms and innovations are spread from one geographical area to another. *Relocation* diffusion involves innovations being carried by speakers migrating to new locations. *Expansion* diffusion involves innovations being passed on through day-to-day contact between speakers who have adopted the innovation and those who have not.

diglossia A linguistic situation in which there is a division between two languages/ varieties such that one variety (the so-called H variety) is used in public life, in the media, in schools and universities, and another variety (the so-called L variety) is used in the domestic sphere and among acquaintances. Examples of diglossic situations are found in Switzerland (Hochdeutsch and Schwyzerdütsch), in various Arabian countries (Classical Arabic and local Arabic vernaculars), Paraguay (Spanish and Guaraní, a native American language). The L- and H-varieties need not be forms of one language though this is normally the case. Diglossia can also involve creole varieties and more standard forms of English, for instance, in the Caribbean.

directives A speech act whereby a speaker attempts to get the hearer to do something. Directives are sometimes known as commands.

discourse(s) Traditionally used to mean language above the level of a sentence, though it can be used in a post-structuralist sense, following Foucault, whereby discourses are seen as 'practices that systematically form the objects of which they speak'. Frequently used in this latter manner in critical discourse analysis and recent language and gender studies. Another use of discourse is as a general categorization device for language used in a particular social setting, such as 'business discourse'.

dominance approach In language and gender research, an approach which interprets linguistic differences in women's and men's speech in terms of men's dominance and women's subordination. Dominance is reflected in linguistic practice.

donor language A language which is the source of words and/or structures borrowed by a further language, the receiving language. At present English is the donor language for much borrowing into other languages. During the Middle English

period, forms of French were donors of words which became established in English over the course of a few centuries.

ecology of language The study of language in relation to its broader environment. Work in this area is sometimes called ecolinguistics.

elaborated code A term coined by Bernstein in his work on educational disadvantage. An explicit 'superior' code that can be communicated by not gesturing to the immediate context. Contrast with restricted code.

elaboration In reference to the process of standardization, when a language is used in a greater and greater variety of functions, and thus the need for a near-uniform variety becomes more salient.

endangered language A language that is in danger of becoming extinct, often due to younger generations no longer learning particular varieties.

English-lexifier A term referring to pidgins and later creoles which derive the greater part of their vocabulary from English, although further levels of language (pronunciation, grammar) can show other influences or independent features.

error A phenomenon in foreign language usage in which speakers show some feature or structure which is not well formed in the target language but which is non-random, systematic and characteristic of a developmental stage in acquisition. In this sense the term can be used for both first and second (foreign) language acquisition. Examples of errors would be a plural like *sheeps* (for *sheep*) or a past form like *hitted* (for *hit*).

ethnicity A social identity variable utilized by sociolinguists in order to assess language variation.

ethnography of communication The study of cultural differences in acts of communication. This is a comprehensive term which goes beyond obvious differences in pronunciation or grammar to cover additional aspects such as formulaic use of language (for example in greeting or parting rituals), proxemics (the use of distance between partners in a conversation) and kinesics (the study of body movements used in communication).

ethnolect A variety of a language which is characteristic of a specific ethnic group, for example Chicano English in the south-west United States.

expletive A term or phrase which expresses abuse, swearing, offense, and so on. Vernacular varieties tend to have a larger range in this area than do non-vernaculars.

extranational variety A variety is extranational if it has significance in a country but stems from outside its borders. For instance, German is an extranational variety to Austrians, French is to Walloons and Dutch is to Flemings. Extranational varieties may be perceived as an undifferentiated type, as with the perception of English English by many Irish or of US English by Canadians.

eye dialect The use of non-standard spelling, rather than phonetic notation, in order to signify how language is being pronounced.

face A term coined by Goffman (1967), referring to the public self-image that individuals have when interacting with one another. Brown and Levinson (1987) split face into positive face and negative face as part of their politeness universals theory.

face-threatening act (FTA) Brown and Levinson's (1987) term to describe a situation when a demand or an intrusion is made upon a person's face. When an FTA is performed, interlocutors have a choice: whether to use strategies of linguistic politeness in order to mitigate the FTA, or whether to deliver it 'baldly' without mitigation.

felicity condition In speech act theory, the conditions that need to be fulfilled by both participants and the specific context in order for a speech act to be assessed as being carried out successfully.

femininity/femininities Originally thought to be an attribute that speakers have that is reflected through their speech, more recent language and gender research from a social constructionist perspective has pluralized this concept, demonstrating how different types of femininities exist. This helps researchers move away from the problematic view that all women are a homogeneous group, as well as enabling more sophisticated models of societal power relations to be developed.

fieldwork, methods A number of methods for collecting primary linguistic data have been developed over the past century or so. Initially, questionnaires were used – often just for lexical material – sometimes collected by linguists themselves though at times postal questionnaires were used. In traditional dialectology the focus was on older speech (*see* dialect geography and norm). A breakthrough came in the 1960s with the work of William Labov who developed the rapid, anonymous interview which avoided the observer's paradox. Later Labov developed the sociolinguistic interview in which he used certain ploys, such as having the interviewees recount a near death experience, in order to avoid them adopting more standard forms in the interview situation. Other techniques have also been used by other linguists, for example where the linguist is introduced by a friend as a friend to members of a group, thus promoting the use of vernacular forms (used by Lesley Milroy when collecting data on social networks in Belfast). In some cases members of the group or community can do recordings among themselves without any linguist present. There are also ethical issues involved in fieldwork. Permission must always be given by informants for data to be collected and evaluated. Furthermore, recordings must be anonymized by removing names and personal information.

first language acquisition The acquisition of one's mother tongue in the early years of childhood. By the age of six or seven most individuals have acquired full knowledge of the closed classes of their first language, that is the sounds, grammatical categories and syntactic structures, though learning vocabulary (an open class)

continues throughout adulthood. One's native language is what one knows best and if this is a non-standard variety then mastery of the standard, usually demanded during schooling and required in public usage, can present not inconsiderable difficulties.

flaming The use of insulting language in communication across the Internet, in online chat forums, blogs, unsolicited email messages, and so on. This is thought to result from the absence of social inhibitions which would normally hold in face-to-face contact.

foreign language A non-native language which is learned consciously by a speaker and which is used intermittently and in fewer contexts than his/her own mother tongue.

foreigner talk The view that pidgins derive their grammatical character from the type of speech which native speakers of a language use when communicating with foreigners, for example by simplifying the grammar. This view only partially accounts for features found in pidgins.

forensic linguistics A branch of linguistics in which the language of individuals is analysed with a view to providing evidence in legal contexts.

fudged dialect A reference to a dialect which supposedly consists of a mixture of different inputs. It can also be used when referring to the speech of an individual.

gap A vacant position in a paradigm or a missing term in the lexicon. In morphology it is perhaps better not to speak of a gap but of a lack of distinction in a certain category. For instance, English does not have a special personal pronoun for the second person singular but all other European languages do, English having lost the form *thou* (in general usage) in the Early Modern period. This did not so much leave a gap as lead to the use of a single form, *you*, which covers both singular and plural nowadays.

gender research from a social constructionist perspective has pluralized this concept, demonstrating how different types of femininities exist. This helps researchers move away from the problematic view that all women are a homogeneous group, as well as enabling more sophisticated models of societal power relations to be developed.

gender and language change A central insight of sociolinguistics in the tradition of William Labov is that when change is taking place in a community it is frequently young females who form the vanguard of such change. Why young women in Western countries should be the leaders of change is a matter of discussion. It can be observed that young women have a greater sensitivity to language variation and use innovative forms on the one hand to enhance their community status and on the other to project their social persona within their community. Men are more often bound to traditional local norms which can account for why they lag behind their female counterparts when language innovation and change is in progress.

gender-neutral language Language which strives to avoid forms which are overtly marked for gender, for example using *chair* rather than *chairman, flight attendant*

rather than *air hostess*. Traditionally, generic references in English are male, for example *The postman hasn't been here yet*. However, alternatives are available, for example an inanimate reference like *The post hasn't arrived yet* or the use of the plural, cf. *Linguists should be careful to use gender neutral language*.

hagiolect A specific variety used for religious purposes, for example High German among the Amish population in Pennsylvania or Latin in Europe before the introduction of vernaculars for religious services. The term derives from Greek *hagios* 'saint'.

hedges An expression of uncertainty on behalf of the speaker which reduces the overall force of an utterance, such as use of the phrase 'sort of'. Often used in investigations of linguistic politeness.

hegemony A notion coined by Gramsci (1971) as part of his theory of societal power. Power is enacted by gaining the consent of people, held in place by ideologies implemented by social institutions which favour the dominant social class. Often used in Critical Discourse Analysis.

heteronomy A variety that is not considered to be independent of a standard variety, and which has not undergone the process of standardization. Compare with autonomy.

high-contact varieties Forms of English which have been, and may still be, in close contact with each other. A binary distinction is sometimes made between high-contact and low-contact varieties, with this fact held responsible for many structural features.

H-language A label used for that language in a diglossic situation which is used on formal occasions, for example modern literary Arabic in Arab countries or standard German in German-speaking Switzerland. The H-language need not be related to the L-language, for example in Paraguay where this is Spanish but the L-language is a native American language Guaraní.

honorific Specific language used to express deference in a social context. This can encompass special pronominal forms (T- and V-forms in continental European languages) and titles (Mr, Mrs, Ms, and so on in English) or special adjectives (*honourable, reverend, esteemed, esquire*).

hypercorrection The overgeneralization of linguistic forms which carry overt social prestige often through the misapplication of rules (e.g. the pronunciation of [h] in a word such as *honour*). Also applied to the higher frequency use of prestige forms by members of lower social groups than members of higher social groups in a formal speech style.

idealization A situation where the linguist chooses to ignore details of language use for reasons of greater generalization, for example the idealized speaker-hearer postulated by Chomsky.

identity Broadly speaking, a category that refers to the sense of who we are as individuals or groups. It can be very roughly split into social and regional identity. Aspects of our social and regional identities, such as social class, age, ethnicity and geographical

origin are correlated with linguistic variables in studies of language variation. Identity is therefore seen as a fixed category. More recently, from a social constructionist perspective, identity is conversely seen as a fluid and dynamic concept, something that we actively do/perform when engaging in language production.

idiolect The language of an individual as opposed to that of a group.

illocutionary force A term which refers to the intention of a speech act. This may not be obvious from the literary meaning, for example the illocutionary force of *It's draughty in here* would be a request to perhaps close a window or door.

immersion A reference to a technique in second language acquisition where the learners are exposed to the foreign language to a maximum degree.

immigrant language A language used by a community of immigrants in a host country. The language usually declines as its users switch to that of the surrounding society, though the rate at which this happens depends on a variety of factors, especially the attitude of later generations to the cultural background, and hence language, of the preceding generations.

impoliteness The opposite of politeness.

indigenized variety A term used to refer to English which has been adopted by a native population in a country which was colonized by Britain. It is intended as a neutral term but is seen by some as having undesirable overtones of colonialism. The term 'nativized variety' is used synonymously.

indirect speech act Any utterance where there is a discrepancy between literal and intended meaning, for example *It's cold in here* said in a room with the window open in winter, where the intention of the speech act would be to have the window closed.

informant An individual whose speech and/or language is observed, recorded or sampled by a linguistic researcher, generally interactively but sometimes anonymously or even posthumously. Other terms such as *interviewee*, *subject* and *speaker* are also used in sociolinguistic studies.

innovation A new feature found in the speech of a minority of speakers in a community. An innovation may lead to change in the language system but this cannot be predicted at an early stage. For instance, in recent non-vernacular Dublin English short front vowels have been lowered, especially in the speech of young females, for example *neck* [nak], *catch* [kaʧ]. Whether this will become established and typical of all speakers remains to be seen.

interdialectism A type of linguistic restructuring that occurs in a language contact situation. Through this restructuring, speakers may reanalyse or rearrange forms and features of the contributing dialects, and they may produce intermediate or 'fudged' phonetic realizations that originally occurred in neither the source nor the target language variety.

interference The transfer of certain phenomena, for example syntactic structures, from one language to another where they are not considered well-formed. This may happen on an individual level (during second language learning, for example) or collectively, in which case it can lead to language change. Interference is typical of language shift situations such as that which obtained in Ireland in the early modern period.

international language A language used, or intended for use, for communication across national boundaries by speakers not sharing a common language, such as *Esperanto.*

interruption In reference to the turn-taking system, an interruption occurs when a disruptive violation of another speaker's turn takes place. Interruptions need to be distinguished from instances of supportive simultaneous talk, where speakers talk at the same time in order to engage in the process of the joint production of discourse.

intersentential switch In reference to code switching, when switching takes place at sentence boundary.

intrasentential switch In reference to code switching, this refers to when switching takes place within a sentence.

intuition A term referring to speakers' unconscious knowledge about their native language. Intuition is used frequently when speakers are asked to judge the grammaticality of sentences. Intuition results from the internalization process of the first years of life during which children unconsciously store detailed information about the structure of their native language.

invariant A reference to an element which does not change its form on a change in category, for example *sheep* is invariant in the plural as it does not take an inflection; the verbs *hit, cast, put* are invariant as they show neither a vowel change nor a suffix in the past.

isogloss A term used in dialectology to refer to an imaginary line dividing two geographical areas to indicate some linguistic discontinuity (e.g. with respect to languages, dialects/accents, or one or more individual linguistic features). Where isoglosses for several different linguistic features 'bundle', a dialect boundary may be interpreted. Such dialect boundaries are not often clearcut, however, and isoglosses often criss-cross. The term derives from the Greek for 'same tongue', and is therefore perhaps less appropriate for the concept than the related term *heterogloss* 'different tongue'.

Jafaican A term, found in the media in present-day Britain, to refer to the speech of those individuals, typically in London, who try to imitate the British Jamaican accent of those people of West Indian origin. This can happen for satirical reasons or because the accent is perceived as trendy.

jargon (i) A term for in-group or specialized language which is generally unintelligible to those outside the community using it. Jargon usually consists of words and phrases but does not have an independent pronunciation and grammar. (ii) The

term can also refer to a possible stage – the 'jargon phase' – before the stabilization of a pidgin.

kinesics The use of facial expressions, movements and gestures of the body to convey additional shades of meaning or emphasis to what one says.

kitchen English A non-linguistic term to refer to basilectal English, for example in India, which is typically found, or was found, among domestic servants whose employers spoke a more acrolectal form of the language. The term 'butler English' is used in a similar sense.

koiné [kɔɪˈneɪ] A term deriving from ancient Greek 'common' which refers to a situation where the variety of a specific area (usually that of greatest political/social prestige) is used as a general means of communication in other areas, often in an entire country. This was the case with Athenian Greek and the remaining dialects in Classical Greece and in writing also held for West Saxon vis-a-vis the other dialects of English in the Old English period.

koinéization A situation in which various varieties of a country or region gravitate towards a single dominant one. Historically, this happened in the Old English period because of the dominance of the West Saxon kingdom in England towards the end of the period. The term is also used when referring to dialect levelling in the early stages of new dialect formation.

language acquisition The process by which children unconsciously attain knowledge of their native language in the first years of life. Strictly speaking, acquisition is distinguished from learning, which refers to gaining knowledge of a language consciously, usually of a second language in later life. However, the term 'acquisition' is often used here as well.

language acquisition device A postulated predisposition for learning language which all humans are born with and which enables children to acquire any language in a remarkably short period of time. According to this view, the LAD consists of the structural features which are common to all languages and specific to none.

language attitudes Study of how people judge and evaluate themselves and others based upon usage of different varieties.

language change A process by which developments in a language are introduced and established. Language change is continuous and largely regular. However, the rate of change differs between languages. It depends on various factors, for example contact with other communities (usually furthering change) or standardization and education in a community (retarding change). Language internal forces also trigger change. analogical change can result in increased regularity. reanalysis of input during first language acquisition can lead to structural realignments in a language. *See also* change, present-day grammatical and change, present-day lexical.

language choice The deliberate decision in a certain social situation to use one language as opposed to another.

language contact A situation in which speakers of two languages intermingle. The causes of this contact range from invasion and deportation to voluntary emigration to a new country. The results of this intermingling depend on external factors such as the relative status of the two linguistic groups and on internal factors such as the typological similarity of the languages involved, that is whether their grammatical structures are comparable or not.

language death The process by which a language ceases to exist. It is usually characterized by the switch-over to another language spoken in the same environment as the dying language and which is a superstrate to it, for example English vis-a-vis Manx on the Isle of Man in the twentieth century. In a few cases, as with the Caucasian language Ubykh, language death can result from all the speakers dying. Some linguists use the terms *language murder* for the scenario where speakers are forced to abandon their native language and *language suicide* for the situation in which they readily give up their native language.

language disorder An identifiable disorder in an individual's language. It may be congenital or acquired, frequently as a result of a tumour, stroke or accident.

language loyalty The extent to which individuals feel attached to a particular language, usually their native language, and the extent to which they support its use.

language maintenance The extent to which immigrant speakers retain their native language in the country they move to, for instance the relative use of Italian, Yiddish or Polish vis-a-vis English by European immigrants to the United States.

language murder When governments or other institutions try to 'kill off' minority languages by passing laws or punishing speakers; this puts pressure on speakers from the outside. In more extreme cases, it can also be used to refer to when a language dies out owing to all of its speakers being murdered, sometimes called linguicide.

language planning The efforts of official bodies, usually government agencies or sometimes academies, to increase or reduce the use of a certain language or languages.

language revitalization A process in which attempts are made to regain a vibrant community for an endangered or even moribund language by expanding its speaker base and engendering positive attitudes towards it (successfully done in the case of Modern Hebrew). Whether this is successful depends crucially on attitudes towards the language on the part of those who could in principle switch to the language in question, for example English-speaking Irish and French-speaking Bretons.

language shift A situation where speakers of language A change to language B, abandoning the former in the process. Historical examples are the shift from native languages to English in North America, of aboriginal languages to English in Australia or the switch from Indian heritage languages to English by labourers in KwaZulu-Natal in the twentieth century. The nature of the shift determines whether B will show traits deriving from A. Language shift may take place very quickly, without

any period of bilingualism; it may or may not involve formal education in B. It may occur first among adults and a characteristic second-language variety of language B may arise. Later generations may acquire this variety natively (leading to focussing) or may reject its features and adopt the first-language variety of B. Focussed varieties tend to show phonological and grammatical features which derive from the first language.

language suicide When people in a speech community feel they would be better off economically, politically or socially if they spoke a different language. Pressure for change therefore comes from the inside to stop using a 'worthless' variety and adopt a new 'useful' one instead.

language variation and change An approach within sociolinguistics in which the mechanisms of language change are investigated minutely by observing the variation in speech which exists in communities and considering what might be responsible for this. It investigates continual change, driven by social factors, but tempered by considerations of language structure, that is by internal factors. Research into varieties of English is closely associated with this approach and there is an academic journal with this title.

Lankan English A collective reference to varieties of English spoken in Sri Lanka.

lay speaker A term for an individual without linguistic training who can be taken to be largely unaware, on a conscious level, of the structure of language.

lead variety A term for a variety which is regarded as worthy of imitation in a country, especially in a public and/or official context. The reference is to a variety as spoken and so does not necessarily carry all the implications of standardization which the written form of language does. An instance would be (non-vernacular) American English as spoken in the Inland North and more widely in the Midwest. In Italy, for example, the lead variety is (non-vernacular) Tuscan Italian, in Germany it is (non-vernacular) Northern German.

lesser-known varieties A collective term for varieties of English which have fewer speakers in small, often remote locations and which thus tend to be less well known among scholars in the field. Their value for variety studies is that they frequently show features and structures and/or sociolinguistic situations not found in more mainstream varieties. Examples would be varieties of English in the South Atlantic, that is on St Helena, Tristan da Cunha and the Falkland Islands, on the Orkney and Shetland Islands or on the Channel Islands or in Malta.

levelling A process of language change which involves the loss of locally or socially marked variants of particular phonological, morphological or lexical variables in a variety which often follows social or geographical mobility and resultant dialect contact.

lexical diffusion A postulated type of language change in which a certain innovation does not encompass all possible inputs in a language (note that the term 'diffusion' should

not imply a slow spreading through the vocabulary). Cases of lexical diffusion are characterized by incompleteness, otherwise it is not recognizable afterwards. This type of change usually ceases before it can cover all possible instances, for example the lowering of short /ʊ/ to /ʌ/ – as in *but* /bʊt/ > /bʌt/ – in Early Modern English which does not apply to instances before [ʃ] and after a labial stop: *bush*, *push*.

lexical gap A reference to a missing word/form in a language. For instance, English did not have any adjective for *sea* before the early modern period during which *marine* was created from Latin *mare* enabling compounds like *marine biology, marine life*, etc. Many such adjectives were formed, for example *equestrian* (cf. Latin *equus*) as in *equestrian centre, equestrian event*. In some cases, there was an adjective already, here: *horsey*, but it is/was not neutral. The same is true of *aquatic*, a neutral adjective for *water*, cf. *aquatic sports, aquatic centre*; *watery* has quite different connotations.

lexifier language The language which provides the input to the lexicon of a pidgin and possibly a later creole. In historical contexts from the colonial period, the lexifier language is a European language such as English, Dutch, French, Spanish or Portuguese.

lexis, dialect The vocabulary specific to a dialect. This frequently contains archaic elements which have been lost in less traditional varieties.

lingua franca A term deriving ultimately from a pidgin used in the Mediterranean area in the late Middle Ages and referring to any language which serves as a means of communication among speakers who do not know each other's languages, for example Latin in the past or English today.

linguistic area A term for a geographically delimited area in which languages, which need not be related genetically, share several features. The term is an approximate translation of German *Sprachbund* 'language federation', itself from Russian *soyuz* 'union'. There are several well-known linguistic areas, such as the Balkans, the Circum-Baltic region, India, mainland South-East Asia. Shared features arise due to continuous language contact over a long period of time and this contact furthers areality, the clustering of features in a specific area. In this latter sense, areal features can be found in the anglophone world due to the interaction of speakers of different dialect or language backgrounds. Because geographically delimited areas experience enhanced contact among those living in them, they tend to also show increased areality, for example Ireland, Newfoundland, or in the Caribbean (groups of islands).

linguistic capital A term associated with Bourdieu (1991), linguistic capital is embodied by socially highly valued language forms, such as (in England) Standard English and Received Pronunciation.

linguistic diversity The linguistic diversity of a country or region depends on the number of languages spoken within it, as well as on how closely they are related

to one another. (The diversity index is higher if the languages come from a range of language families, rather than from just one family.) As with biological diversity, the equatorial zones are especially diverse linguistically; notable are New Guinea (some 750 languages) and Nigeria (about 470 languages). The field of the ecology of language makes much of this connection.

linguistic engineering A reference to deliberate changes in language use – frequently initiated by official agencies, government departments or by interest groups – which are intended to neutralize or (supposedly) improve language in a specific context. The many attempts to 'desexify' English illustrate this phenomenon, cf. the use of *Ms* [mʌz] or [mɪz] (with a final voiced fricative) for either *Mrs* (married woman) or *Miss* (unmarried woman). Included here are the several attempts to arrive at generic usage in English, for example by writing *he/she* or *(s)he* when referring to someone, such as a reader, who could be of either sex, or by using the expression *chair* to supplant both the male-oriented *chairman* and the too specific *chairperson*. The ultimate fate of such forms depends on their acceptance by the speech community into which they are introduced.

linguistic marketplace A notion introduced originally by the French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu and adopted into linguistics by David Sankoff and Suzanne Laberge and further applied by the Canadian linguist J. K. Chambers when referring to the fact that speakers' linguistic choices are determined by their position in society, either perceived or actual. Young adults make adjustments in accent and dialect when they take up occupations that require speech skills – sales, teaching, and so on. Chambers stresses that men and women act differently in the linguistic marketplace.

linguistic minority A small social group within a larger one which uses a different language. Such a group may be a remnant of a historically larger group, for example Frisian in Germany, or may be due to more recent migration patterns, for example Turkish in Germany, Urdu or Jamaican English in Britain, Greek, Italian or Croatian in Australia, and so on.

linguistic prestige Refers to the value ascribed to a variety by the whole community. In modern societies, the standard form of a language enjoys the greatest overt prestige.

linguistic stigma The condemnation of certain forms in a language by those in a community or society who do not use these forms. Stigma is generally attached to vernacular forms and structures, for example *seen* as the simple past or *them* as a demonstrative. There is no justification for such stigma; it usually arises because of negative attitudes to non-standard speakers.

linguistic repertoire Refers to the set of linguistic varieties that a person uses.

linguistic subordination A reference to the fact that the speech of a socially subordinate group is interpreted as inadequate by comparison with that of socially dominant groups.

linguistic universals A postulated set of linguistic features which are common to all languages and which ultimately derive from our psychological make-up and our perception of the world, for example the existence of subject, predicate, object or first, second and third pronouns across the languages of the world.

linguistic variable A reference to a feature of a language/variety which shows particular variation in a speech community; speakers may or may not be aware of this variation. In New York English and Dublin English the realization of /r/ is just such a variable. In northern England the absence of a distinction between the vowels in *but* and *bush* would be an instance (foot-strut split). Linguistic variables may be binary (presence or absence) or scalar (with values on a continuum). The latter is true of phonological variables. Examples of grammatical variables are double negation, the use of *ain't* and the lack of marking with verbs in the third person singular in African American English. Variables can also be assessed quantitatively, that is how often a certain realization occurs in the speech of speakers and/or across those in different social groups. A common non-linguistic designation for a linguistic variable, of which speakers are aware, is a shibboleth.

link language A term used to describe a language employed in inter-ethnic communication where the participants do not speak each other's language.

L-language A label used for that language in a diglossic situation which is used in domestic and informal occasions, for example local variants of Arabic in Arab countries or Schwyzerdütsch (a set of local forms of German) in German-speaking Switzerland. The L-language need not be related to the H-language, for example in Paraguay where this is Guaraní (a native American language belonging to the Tupian group of Andean-Equatorial languages) but the H-language is Spanish.

low-contact varieties Varieties of English which have not experienced extended periods of contact with speakers of other dialects or languages. In general, traditional dialects in England are such low-contact varieties. Typically, low-contact varieties show retentions of earlier forms of the language in morphology. High-contact varieties on the other hand may have restructured morphological distinctions or have lost these entirely.

maps, linguistic Linguistic maps can either take the form of display maps or interpretative maps. Display maps reveal the geographical distribution of dialect items. Interpretative maps are often based on display maps or dialect surveys and make more general statements regarding items in various regions. Interpretative maps simplify display maps as they represent large-scale patterns and distributions.

markers In the Labovian tradition of sociolinguistics markers are features which are sociolinguistically relevant and which tend to disappear in more formal styles, for example when reading word lists. T-glottalization is a marker of vernacular Dublin English, for example *pity* [pɪʔi], where many speakers replace the glottal stop by the apico-alveolar fricative [t̻] in more careful speech.

MARY-MERRY-MARRY merger A common merger in the anglophone world, but especially in the United States where there is often no distinction in length between MARY and MERRY nor of height between MERRY and MARRY. Some varieties show a part of the possible three-way merger, for example in local Dublin English where only the length distinction is lost, that is MARY and MERRY can be homophones. The three sets mentioned may in some cases show a further merger with the vowel in MURRAY, removing a former four-way distinction.

masculinity/masculinities Originally thought to be an attribute that speakers have that is reflected through their speech, more recent language and gender research from a social constructionist perspective has pluralized this concept, demonstrating how different types of masculinit*ies* exist. This helps researchers move away from the problematic view that all men are a homogeneous group, as well as enabling more sophisticated models of societal power relations to be developed.

matched-guise technique A method sometimes used in sociolinguistics for evaluating informants' reactions to dialects and sociolects. The technique involves a speaker reading a passage of text in two or more different accents. The informants are unaware that in each case it is the same person reading and they are requested to rate the tape-recorded playback of each reading. The result is taken to reflect attitudes to linguistic stereotypes, since all other variables – bar accent – are constant across different readings.

MEAT-MEET distinction A distinction in some traditional dialects of English, above all in Ireland, whereby Middle English /ɛ:/ was only raised to /e:/ and Middle English /e:/ was raised to /i:/ (one step for each original vowel). Hence words written with < *ea*>, as in *beat*, representing ME /ɛ:/, have /e:/ but those with < *ee*>, as in *beet*, representing ME /e:/ have /i:/. The distinction is now only observed in strongly vernacular varieties.

media, language and the An issue in sociolinguistic views of language change is whether this can spread via the media, above all television. Opinions are divided here. Some cases of change spreading to areas far from the capital of a country, for example th-fronting from south-east England to Glasgow or the Dublin vowel shift to far-removed rural areas, could perhaps be accounted for by appeal to television as a device for the spread of very specific features in cases of high exposure to these.

medium The means used to transmit a message, for example air (for spoken language), writing (for texts).

mesolect The variety in a creole continuum which is in the middle between the most creole- like form (basilect) and the more standard-like form (acrolect).

microlinguistic A reference to any study of language which takes a small data base and concentrates on details rather than on undertaking a large-scale analysis.

minimal responses Brief utterances such as 'mhm' or 'yeah' which listeners make in response to a speaker. They can be either supportive or disruptive. Supportive minimal responses, sometimes called back-channels, are the most frequent, and show active and collaborative listenership. Disruptive minimal responses can be where a string of minimal responses are used to attempt to gain the floor, or when minimal responses are delayed, thus indicating a lack of interest in the current speaker.

minority language A language which is spoken by only a section of the population of a country. Although modern nation states usually have one official language, generally there are one or more minority languages spoken within such a state. For example, while Germany is officially German-speaking there is a Frisian, Danish and Sorbian minority within the country speaking these languages. The issue of rights for minority languages is a matter which has been increasingly addressed in recent years, for instance by providing schooling, time allocated in the media, provision for use in official contexts, and so on. Regional languages in member countries of the European Union are accorded special recognition.

mistake An instance of ill-formed usage in a foreign language which is apparently random or at least unsystematic.

misunderstanding across varieties Due to different realizations of phonemic distinctions across varieties, misunderstandings can arise. The following illustration is a real example from Melbourne. Waitress to customer, holding a cake on a plate: *Do you want a* [traɪ]? (meaning *tray*). Non-Australian customer: *No. I'm sure it tastes fine*. (understanding *try*). The northern cities shift is reportedly also a source of misunderstanding among speakers with the shift and those without, for example the latter understanding a word like *block* as *black* due to the fronting of the vowel in the first word.

mixed accents A reference to (i) the accent of individuals who have partially acquired another accent after their native one, for example by moving to a different region or country or (ii) an accent, spoken by an entire community, which is the result of historical contact and mixture of inputs.

mixing In reference to koineization, mixing highlights the selection and incorporation of linguistic features from different pre-existing dialects which contribute to the language used by the first generation of immigrants.

mode A category within Halliday's (1978) systemic analysis which refers to the medium of communication used, for example, whether it is written or spoken.

monogenesis The view that all pidgins and creoles are derived from a single original pidgin in the Mediterranean area in the late Middle Ages. This was called *LINGUA FRANCA* and via a sixteenth-century Portuguese pidgin, *SABIR*, led to the first pidgins on the west coast of Africa in the early days of trade. Because of relexification and substrate influence different creoles are then supposed to have arisen in the following centuries.

monoglot An individual who speaks only one language.

monolingual A reference to an individual or community which uses only one language.

mother tongue The language used by an individual from birth (also referred to as *first language*, *L1*, *primary language*, *home language*). It is usually also the language of the home and the community, but this may not be the case in bilingual or multilingual situations.

multilingualism A situation in a society in which more than one language is used. This is not typically found in northern Europe, where the development of nation states in the past few centuries has meant that countries concentrated on one official language. However, outside Europe the use of several languages within a single society is quite common; indeed across the world multilingualism is more the rule than the exception.

multivariate analysis A statistical analysis which is based on the evaluation of more than one variable, for example the analysis of variant realizations of a linguistic variable, say (A) or (TH), coupled to the variables of class and gender to see if a correlation exists.

narrative Early definitions focus on the structuralist approach of Labov and Walesky (1967) where a narrative is any sequence where two or more clauses have a temporal ordering. Later work has also examined narrative content, and how narrative can be used as a lens through which identity performance can be observed.

national language Usually a particular dialect of a language which, because of the historical and political development of the dialect area in question, has attained a special status in a country and become accepted as the standard. It is frequently the language of the capital as in France or Spain. In England the concern is primarily with pronunciation and the standard – Received Pronunciation – is derived historically from the speech of London, but became separated from this and developed into a sociolect which was furthered by its use in private education.

native speaker An individual who speaks a language as a first language, that is with full competence (*see* competence and performance), and who has reliable intuitions about wellformedness in this language and who shares these intuitions with other members of a speech community. To be a native speaker it is essential to have acquired the language before puberty. There are, however, looser definitions, especially in countries where English is a strong second language but without a history of settler English, for example Singapore. On the historical and ideological aspects of native speaker debates.

nativism A conception of language acquisition (in generative grammar) which stresses the amount of abstract information which is innate and which downplays the role of experience in the development of language competence.

nativization, structural A reference to processes of change in the acculturation of English in a new colonial/post-colonial context. Structural nativization can be

observed at all linguistic levels, including phonetics and phonology, morphology, vocabulary and syntax. Some of the changes are transparent and categorial (for example new lexical items); others are more opaque and manifest themselves in quantitative differences, for example different preferences for specific collocations.

nativization phase A phase in the genesis of new varieties during the colonial period when a focussed variety begins to appear with features specific to the country or region in question.

nautical jargon A term used to refer to a supposed variety of English which was used by sailors for communication among speakers of different nationalities and passed on to the native populations of Africa, Asia, and so on, which they came in contact with. Common words among pidgins, such as *galley* for 'kitchen', *cargo* for 'anything carried' or *hoist* for 'to lift' are regarded as stemming from nautical jargon.

near-native variety A neutral reference to a variety of English which has not arisen due to historical continuity from settler English during the colonial period of a country. Nonetheless, such forms, through exposure of speakers to English during the critical period of language acquisition in early childhood in both their school and domestic surroundings, can approach, indeed achieve, native-like quality, as in contemporary Singapore.

negative concord A feature both of older English and many dialects of present-day English, including African American English. It refers to the use of two (or more) negators to intensify a negation, for example *He don't know nothing*. The term 'negative concord' refers to the fact that in varieties which have this feature, all elements in a clause which can show negation do so, that is *He don't know anything* is not well formed because *anything* can be rendered in the negative as *nothing*, hence the sentence *He don't know nothing*.

negative face Part of Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory, referring to a person's desire not to be imposed upon.

negative politeness In Brown and Levinson's (1987) model, the tactics that speakers use in order to appeal to the addressee's negative face, using strategies that minimize the imposition being made upon the hearer's autonomy.

non-native pronunciation A pronunciation of English which shows the phonetic influence of a background language (the native language of the speaker), for example the use of a uvular /ʁ/ by French, German or Danish speakers, of unaspirated stops by Spaniards or Italians, of a single sibilant for [s] and [ʃ] by Dutch, Greeks, Finns or Spaniards, the occurrence of final devoicing with Germans and speakers of Slavic languages.

non-standard Descriptive of a linguistic form different from that found in a standard variety, or of a variety other than the institutionally approved one. Liverpool English is a non-standard variety of British English, and the use of /u:/ rather than /ʊ/ in words such as *hook*, *cook*, *look*, etc., by its speakers is a non-standard pronunciation.

non-verbal communication A collective term for all aspects of communication which do not involve speech, for example facial expression, stance, gestures. Sometimes included in the term *body language*.

non-vernacular A term used to characterize the speech of those inhabitants of an urban or rural area who do not use the local dialect, that is the vernacular. Non-vernacular speakers do not necessarily adhere to a Standard English model of pronunciation (British or American, for instance) and normally maintain some features which make them recognizable to outsiders as from a region or country, if not from a specific location.

normative A reference to externally applied rules for language use. Normative behaviour derives from often subjective notions of supposed correctness which pay little attention to language structure and language change.

observer's paradox A phenomenon to be seen in sociolinguistic investigations and first described explicitly by William Labov. It maintains that the object of an investigation changes under observation, for example speakers change their linguistic behaviour when they know they are being observed. A number of techniques have been developed to minimize the effect of the observer's paradox, above all, the survey, rapid and anonymous.

official language An institutionally approved language for communication within and across national borders. Typically, a country will have a small number of official languages: Nigeria, in which about 470 languages are spoken, has only one official language (English). South Africa, on the other hand, has eleven official languages (English, Afrikaans, Zulu, Swati, Ndebele, Southern Sotho, Northern Sotho, Tsonga, Tsawa, Venda and Xhosa).

opaque A term referring to any form or process which cannot be readily understood by lay speakers. One could say that the word *gospel* is opaque for English speakers as they do not automatically realize that it comes from *good + spell*, itself a calque on the original Greek *euangelion* 'good news'.

orality Primary oral cultures, or those that do not have a system of writing. A second orality can also be identified as one which is dominated by electronic modes of communication, such as television and telephones.

over-, underdifferentiation A phenomenon in second language use where speakers either indulge in a feature or neglect such a feature. This occurs in many second language varieties of English, for example Afrikaans English where *learn* can occur in the sense of *teach* (underdifferentiation) given that Afrikaans has only one verb for both meanings, *leer*.

over-indulgence An inordinate use of a feature/structure/word in a second language due to its frequency in the first language or due to an incomplete mastery of all options of the target language, for example the over-use of *make* by Germans in English as in *to make a photo*.

paralanguage All aspects of communication which do not involve language itself. Voice quality can be included in paralanguage as it is not a feature of the language system.

parallel independent development Any set of two or more developments in separated languages or dialects which are assumed to have arisen independently of each other, for instance the development of *y'all* (< *you all*) as a personal pronoun in Appalachian English and South African Indian English.

parole A term introduced by Ferdinand de Saussure to refer to language as spoken by a speech community as opposed to the language system (langue) which the members of the community share.

patois A French term which refers to a dialect which is unwritten and hence without a literary tradition. The (French) term *dialecte* refers conversely to a geographical variety which has an associated literature. Patois can also refer to basilectal varieties in creole scenarios and is often written *patwa*, *see* Jamaica.

peer group Any group of people of approximately the same age. Children and adolescents adopt the accents of peers in their environments. Various studies, such as that of the new town Milton Keynes, have shown this conclusively.

perceptual dialectology A branch of modern dialectology and sociolinguistics which examines how non-linguists perceive the different varieties in their region/country or outside of this. The perception may have a bearing on how varieties develop; for example, the perception that the most neutral type of US English is spoken by non-vernacular speakers in the Inland North may have led to the imitation of this accent by others.

phatics Those elements of speech which serve mainly a social function rather than a content function, such as 'Good morning,' 'How's it going?' 'Pleasure to have met you,' and so on. Phatic tokens are typically used to open and close conversations, and **repair** broken-down conversations.

phonotactics The rules specifying how sounds in a language combine and what position they can occupy in a syllable/word. For instance, English has a phoneme [ʃ], as in *shoe* [ʃu:], but this does not occur at the beginning of a word before a nasal or lateral, that is [ʃm-, ʃn-] and [ʃl-] are not permissible onsets on English. However, some varieties may be more lenient and for many speakers of American English [ʃl-] is possible in *schlock* [ʃlɒk] 'shoddy goods, trash' and [ʃm-] as in *schmooze* 'chat up to someone', both loanwords from Yiddish.

Creoles, because of their often strict CV syllable structure, may alter the phonotactics of English input words, either by simplifying a cluster as in *skin* [kin] or by breaking it up via an epenthetic vowel as in *skin* [sikin].

pidgin A type of language which arises from the need to communicate between two groups. Historically, and it would seem in all cases, one of the groups is in a more dominant social position than the other. The language of the former provides the base on which the latter then creates the pidgin.

pidgin, expanded A pidgin which has been adopted as a general means of communication by a larger community but which has not become a creole, a first language.

pidginization The process through which pidgins arise.

politeness An aspect of social behaviour which shows deference towards the wishes and concerns of the addressee. There are linguistic strategies for maximizing politeness in exchanges, for example by employing indirect speech acts and using formal address terms in order to save the face of the addressee. Broadly speaking, an analysis of linguistic forms which shows adherence to an accepted set of social and cultural principles emphasizing solidarity and social distance. Within pragmatics, politeness theory has become a key area of interest, and various theories and models have developed. The most well known politeness theory is Brown and Levinson's (1987) model, based on the notion of face. In recent years researchers have begun to examine the previously neglected concept of impoliteness, often thought to highlight the norms and conventions of politeness more effectively, as interactants tend to notice more when interlocutors are being *impolite* as opposed to polite.

polygenesis hypothesis In reference to the origins of creoles and pidgins, the polygenesis hypothesis posits that creoles and pidgins developed separately from one another.

polyglot A reference to several languages, either to an individual who can speak many or to a text which contains several languages frequently in parallel form, for example a polyglot edition of the Bible.

polylectal A term used to denote the ability of speakers to understand, and possibly use, different varieties of their language. For instance, most speakers of English would understand that *them cars* means 'those cars' even if they do not use the structure themselves. The same would apply to *I done it* or *I seen it* for *I did it* and *I saw it* respectively.

positive face Part of Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory, referring to a person's need to be wanted, liked and/or admired.

positive politeness In Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory, the tactics that speakers use in order to appeal to the addressee's positive face, using friendliness and appreciation.

post-creole continuum A reference to the surviving varieties of a language after it has ceased to be a creole and has begun to move towards more standard forms, for example African American English in the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries (in one view of its development).

post-national A recognition of the linguistic effects of globalization, such that languages such as English no longer correspond with national boundaries.

power A key notion in **discourse analysis,** determining the institutional or individual ability to control or influence social or linguistic patterns.

power-solidarity Two aspects of social position which find expression in the use of forms of address. In situations where power is the prevailing factor the formal

V-form of address dominates. In situations where a speaker wishes to show solidarity with the addressee the less formal *T*-form is more likely to occur. *See* address system, t-form and v-form.

pragmatic markers A set of words or small phrases which are not an integral part of the syntactic structure of a sentence but which supply additional information about the tone or setting of an utterance, for example *Well, things are different now. I mean, you are entitled to more money. You know, he is not really suitable.* Varieties and registers of language can vary in the number, type and application of such markers, for example Singapore English is known for the particle *lah* used for solidarity, agreement or for drawing attention, for example *Your work very good, lah*.

pragmatics The study of language in use in interpersonal communication. Apart from linguistic pragmatics, there is also philosophical and psychological pragmatics, as developed in the late nineteenth century by the American psychologist William James (1842–1910) and the philosopher Charles Sanders Peirce (1839–1914).

pragmatics, variational A relatively new research agenda which considers the variation in pragmatics across varieties of pluricentric languages, such as English, but also Romance languages like Spanish and French. It considers to what extent geographical and cultural separation has led to differences in language use arising over time. This would involve such issues as requests, offers, responses, small talk and politeness strategies in general.

prescriptive A reference to the notion that certain forms, structures, constructions in language are 'correct' and hence better than others. Such statements can be found in many historical documents of the last three centuries and in language usage guides today. The opposite of descriptive.

prescriptivism A tradition which arose in the early modern period in England (after the establishment of a de facto standard in the south-east around London) and which sought to prescribe language usage, especially by means of grammars, the best known of which is by Robert Lowth (1710–1787), first published in 1762. Other grammars in this vein are Joseph Priestley (1733–1804), *The Rudiments of English Grammar* (1761), William Cobbett (1763–1835), *English Grammar* (1829) and Lindley Murray (1745–1826), *English Grammar* (1794).

prestige An attribute of varieties which is determined by how they are viewed by speakers. Usually, a standard variety enjoys highest prestige in a community and is favoured in public and official usage. Other varieties enjoy correspondingly less prestige. If a particular variety has a long tradition and high awareness then it may have increased prestige compared with other non-standard varieties. This is the case with Cockney in England which has a certain status as the vernacular of the capital which other urban varieties do not necessarily have.

prestige, overt and covert A reference to different kinds of prestige. Overt prestige is usually enjoyed by a standard which is explicitly codified, for example in grammars,

usage manuals and dictionaries. Covert prestige is a characteristic of vernaculars: speakers do not openly praise them, but their local identity function means that they favour them over more standard varieties in community-internal communication.

prestige reversal In American English the use of non-prevocalic /r/ as in *car* [kɑːɽ] and *card* [kɑːɽd] now enjoys prestige but prior to World War II this was not the case, the nonrhotic pronunciation being favoured in public usage and found in superstrate pronunciations of the North-East, for example in Boston. But a gradual change set in with the use of retroflex [ɽ], found in areas such as the Inland North and the Midwest, becoming increasingly prestigious. This change in status has led to non-prevocalic /r/ encroaching on traditionally nonrhotic areas such as the south of the United States.

presupposition Any information which is taken for granted in a discourse situation; for instance, the sentence *Did you enjoy your breakfast?* implies that the addressee already had breakfast.

principle of least effort A putative principle in linguistic behaviour whereby speakers choose to articulate segments which require least muscular effort. There are at least two difficulties with such assumptions: (i) defining what is really meant by 'least effort' and (ii) proving its operation across a representative cross-section of languages.

propagation A stage in language change during which an item of change spreads through a speech community. While actuation and termination are usually relatively slow, propagation is relatively rapid (s-curve).

proscribe To denounce some structure in language as unacceptable, as incorrect, as bad usage, and so on. This is a feature of prescriptive grammars which attempt to state the manner in which language should be used rather than how it occurs. For instance, such grammars would proscribe the use of focuser *like* as a pragmatic highlighter, for example *Fiona is, like, keen on linguistics*.

proscriptive A reference to prescriptive instructions which forbid a certain usage, that is a set of *don'ts* in a language as in 'Do not end a sentence in a preposition'.

proxemics [prɒkˈsiːmɪks] The study of how speakers use relative distance to their partners in conversation. In Western cultures, distances of less than 50 cm usually trigger discomfort among interlocutors, especially those of different genders.

purism An attitude to language which demands the preservation of conservative forms which are viewed as 'correct'. A characteristic of purism is its rejection of foreign influences on a language. In England there is no institution which guards the 'purity' of the language but other countries do have such bodies, for example in France the *Académie Française* has attempted to stem the flow of English loanwords into French.

queer linguistics A direction in linguistic research which is concerned with language issues surrounding sexual orientation and gender identity. Following on queer

studies in literature, the approach in linguistics is intended to be as comprehensive as possible. Some scholars disagree with the use of the re-appropriated term 'queer' which can still have negative connotations for heteronormative speakers.

questionnaire A means of collecting information in dialect study. This can vary from a request for lexical items (in traditional dialectology) to attitudinal questions in present-day sociolinguistics as in *A Survey of Irish English Usage*. Using questionnaires means that individuals are aware that information is being collected and so the observer's paradox comes into play. Nonetheless, it is possible to collect a large amount of data via this method and a judicious assessment of such data can lead to significant insights.

reallocation In koineization, when a process of levelling is incomplete, two forms from different source varieties might be used to refer to the same thing, so the different forms are reallocated with distinct functions.

Received Pronunciation The socially prestigious accent of English in Britain. Its roots lie in the speech of London in the early modern period but it became a sociolect, and hence nonregional, in the course of the nineteenth century and was nurtured and furthered by private schools, traditional universities, the higher military and clergy and came to be used generally in public life in England. It is spoken by only a small percentage of the British population but has high status and is used as a reference accent, in the descriptions of English pronunciation, for example by Daniel Jones and A. C. Gimson, and is often the variety of English English taught to foreigners. The term 'Received Pronunciation' was coined by Daniel Jones at the beginning of the twentieth century and refers to the pronunciation of English which is accepted – that is, 'received' – in English society. *BBC English*, *Oxford English, Queen's English* are alternative terms which are not favoured by linguists as they are imprecise or incorrect.

regionalism A pronunciation, grammatical structure, word or phrase which is typical of a certain region and generally confined to it.

relic area A geographical region where particularly conservative features of a language are still to be found, for example the Outer Banks islands off the coast of North Carolina where Ocracoke Brogue is spoken. There is a characteristic topography which goes with dialect survival. Inaccessible, mountainous or isolated coastal regions tend to keep the features which were characteristic of the input varieties longest. Appalachia, the Ozarks in the United States, Newfoundland in Canada, Otago/Southland in New Zealand are examples of this. Indeed, there may well be interconnections between such regions, as Christian, Wolfram and Dube postulate for Appalachia and the Ozarks; he notes, for instance, the occurrence of *poke* 'bag, small sack' in the Appalachians and the Ozarks). The Outer Banks show dialect features not found in mainstream varieties of American English. In the Ottawa Valley, to the north-west of Ottawa city, remnants of the speech of nineteenth-

century Irish emigrants survived into the twentieth century. Rhoticism – the Southland 'burr' – in Otago/Southland in the South Island of New Zealand is a Scotticism and not typical of the rest of the country.

remnant speech community A community which lives in a location of geographical remoteness and which is characterized by historical isolation from larger surrounding populations

restandardization A process, triggered by external events, by which the standard of a country is adjusted to accommodate new features or previously stigmatized, vernacular features. In South Africa, since the end of apartheid in the early 1990s, aspects of Black South African English – lexical and grammatical features – have lost their stigma and become acceptable in public usage, given the present political position of the black majority in that country. However, the process is not just a switch of variety. For pronunciation it would seem that intermediate forms are developing which converge on a consensus norm of White middle-class native speakers with Black, Coloured and Indian speakers, above all females, accommodating to this.

restricted code A term coined by the English sociologist Basil Bernstein (1924–2000) for the type of language used by the working classes (in England) and which is taken to be poor in formal characteristics but rich in expressive content.

restricted language Any variety of language which does not show the full complement of expressive means possible. This may be because speakers have not been exposed to the variety sufficiently (as with dialect speakers vis-a-vis the standard of a language) or it may be simply that a certain context only requires limited means of expression. If used at all, this term should be a statement of fact and not a judgement. The term is not favoured by linguists.

restructuring A label for processes in creole formation in which elements of the input pidgin are co-opted to form new structures indicating grammatical categories not necessarily present in the input. An example from African American English would be the use of *bin* (< *been*) with a past participle, for example *She bin married to my brother* 'She has been married to my brother for a long time', to indicate something which began in the remote past and continues (this could be interpreted as evidence for a creole origin). Another example would be the East Caribbean creole habitual marker *da* which derives formally from English *does*.

retention A reference to the belief that key features in a dialect are derived from historical input and are not due to language contact and are not necessarily independent developments. For instance, some scholars believe that features of Irish English, such as the use of the present for the present perfect of English, as in *I know Fiona for five years now,* result from the varieties of English taken to Ireland and not from the transfer of syntactic patterns from Irish during the language shift period. This feature may be a case of convergence where both sources have played a role.

revitalization The expansion of a language's speech community, either by natural population increase or by deliberate language planning.

rhyming slang A prominent feature of Cockney, and some other varieties of English, for example in Scotland, in which two words are used the second of which rhymes with another word which is that which is being referred to, for example *trouble and strife* for *wife*; *dog and bone* for *telephone*; *Adam and Eve* for *believe*; *apples and pears* for *stairs*; *butcher's hook* for *look*; *bread and cheese* for *sneeze*.

ritual use of language A situation in which language takes on a function beyond direct interpersonal communication and where rhythmic patterns and incantations have a special significance. This is the case in many religious or quasi-religious uses of language.

S-curve model A structure or template associated with the temporal diffusion of innovations in language. The S-curve has been observed in diffusions of all kinds and illustrates the speed of diffusions which begin slowly as early adopters make use of the innovatory form. A period of rapid acceleration follows during which the change catches hold and begins to be used by the majority of speakers in the speech community. Finally, the trajectory of the spread tails off as the change approaches categoricity. 'S-curve' refers to the shape of the line when the number of speakers (vertical axis) is plotted against time (horizontal axis). The vertical axis could also represent the number of words or texts affected.

second language Any language learned after one's native language. This is usually learned imperfectly, especially if one begins after puberty.

second-language English A reference to English used by speakers who have a native language other than English but who nonetheless – because of the structure of the societies they live in – acquire English well and use it in many situations of their public and private lives. In such instances, knowledge of English stems almost exclusively from exposure to the language in schooling and in exchanges with others who have a better knowledge of English.

second-language teaching The main area of applied linguistics. There are many views on how a second language is *learned*, above all in comparison with the high degree of competence achieved in first language *acquisition*. Research here tends to concentrate on developing models to explain the process and to improve methods, and hence results, in language teaching.

serialization A phenomenon which is common in pidgins and creoles where a number of verbs are chained together to render a composite meaning, for example something like *He go take rice home* for 'He brought the rice home'.

sex In sociolinguistic research, sex refers to biological sex in order to make a distinction with the social constructionist term gender.

sexism in language The discrimination of one gender, essentially of women, in the use of language. Sexism can be inherent in a language, for instance by preferring masculine forms as default (generic usage) as in pronominal reference *The linguist must gather data and be careful that he organizes it properly*. There have been many attempts to remedy this situation, such as using *he/she, s/he* or simply using *she* (though this just inverts the bias). Another means is the use of the plural, even with a singular antecedent, for example *Someone got the top job as expected, didn't they? Does that French student need help with their English?* Sexism can also be individual, for example when someone makes a deliberate choice to use offensive language of a sexist nature.

sexuality A dimension of study particularly in queer linguistics, sexuality can be seen as a social identity factor which influences language use.

shared innovation Any feature or group of features in at least two languages or varieties which are regarded as having been triggered by the same historical input, although the features in question may not be evident in the latter anymore, for example short vowel raising in Southern Hemisphere Englishes.

shibboleth A pronunciation which is strongly stereotyped to a particular speech community, serving to identify that speaker very readily, often with prescriptivist overtones. The term is biblical in origin (see Judges 12: 1–15).

sign language A fully realized language performed with the hands and upper body expressions, often combining both alphabetic and lexical sign symbols.

simplification A process in koineization and creolization in which morphological complexities and semantic functions are reduced or eliminated.

slang A widely used, non-linguistic term for colloquial speech which is usually unfavourably contrasted with more formal speech and with written language.

slow speech A deliberate type of speech delivery usually in more formal contexts. Speakers generally use more standard forms of language in slow speech as was discovered by William Labov in his investigation of New York English.

social constructionist approach A theoretical perspective which sees social categories such as gender as fluid notions which are constructed in discourse practices.

social network A framework which measures the strength of individuals' social ties. Strong social networks are seen to act as (linguistic) norm-reinforcement mechanisms.

social status The sense that power, privilege and respect accrue to particular people sharing certain valued social positions, such as of social class, or education.

social stratification The organization of a society in a 'vertical' sense, usually via such factors as education, income, professional status, area of residence, the social networks one participates in, and so on. This contrasts with a geographical classification where the region one lives in (often rural) is taken as defining.

social variable In variationist sociolinguistics, the aspect of a speaker's social identity (such as social class, age or gender), which can then be correlated with linguistic

variables to reveal the principles behind usage. Social variables are independent variables in statistical terms.

sociolect An alternative term for register, to differentiate variation on the basis of the context of use from dialect.

sociolinguistic competence By analogy with communicative competence, the ability to interpret and manipulate structured variation in language.

sociology The study of society. This is a diversified discipline with a linguistic component, known as the sociology of language, practised by sociologists. Sociolinguists on the other hand are linguists who examine the use of language in society.

sociophonetics A recent direction in sociolinguistics in which acoustic analyses of data are presented. The methods of sociophonetics, for example vowel normalization and formant analysis, allow linguists to make objective statements about the speech of individuals or groups of speakers.

solidarity The act of identification with another individual or group. It can be expressed linguistically in several ways, for example by sharing pronunciation features, vocabulary items or less frequently grammatical structures.

source language The language which provides the input in a borrowing process.

speech The production of sounds using the organs of speech; this contrasts directly with writing which is a secondary medium for communication via language.

speech act A use of language which is both a linguistic act and communication with another individual. Examples would be a command, apology or promise where the use of language constitutes the act in question. Speech acts became an area of linguistic concern after the pioneering work of J. L. Austin in the early 1960s. It was expanded by John Searle in the late 1960s and 1970s and has provided the theoretical underpinnings for pragmatics; *see* variational pragmatics.

speech community Any identifiable and delimitable group of speakers who use a more or less unified type of language.

speech disorder / speech defect A term for an impairment in the production of speech sounds in a language. The most common forms are stuttering and phonetic disorders. Stuttering involves involuntary repetition of sounds accompanied by stretches of silence when a person is attempting to speak. It can be typical of an individual at a certain period of life, usually adolescence and early adulthood, and/or appear in certain situations, for example when on the telephone or speaking in public, and is thought to have psychological causes. It is not a genetic disorder and often disappears later in life. Some speakers of conservative Received Pronunciation may have slight stuttering as an affectation in their speech, using it when emphasizing something. A phonetic disorder involves the misproduction of a sound or subset of sounds in a language, for example /r/ or the set of sibilants. Children begin by using [w] or [ʋ] for /r/ and if someone does not proceed beyond this stage then this

would constitute a phonetic disorder, *unless* the variety being acquired has this realization as the adult form, *see* /r/, labio-dental. Difficulties in producing sibilants is generally known as *lisping* and usually involves sounds similar to inter-dental fricatives but also lateral- or nasal-like sounds. These difficulties arise due to incorrect tongue positioning during the formative period of first language acquisition which speakers then retain. Such disorders can often be rectified by remedial phonetic training even in adulthood. There is a subset of speech disorders which arise through individuals suffering a stroke when this affects the Broca area (front part of the left brain hemisphere). The most severe form is *apraxia* which involves cerebral, pre-production difficulties in speaking. Other causes of speech disorders are Parkinson's disease and motor neuron disease, both of which lead to difficulties in the muscular control necessary for speech (known as *dysarthria*).

speech error A performance error in language, one major kind of which is characterized by a switching around of syllable onsets and codas, as with so-called spoonerisms. There are many other kinds, for example errors based on anticipation as in *He tried to seat (beat) the system*, or blends as in *I just bought a lapbook* (< *lap[top] + [note]book*) or *discourse marticles* (< *m[arkers] + [p] articles*). Whether speech errors are semantically or indeed psychologically motivated has been much discussed. The founder of psychoanalysis, Sigmund Frend (1856–1939), believed that they were, but linguists are often sceptical.

spontaneous change Any instance of language change which cannot be traced back to a definite trigger, internal or external. Nowadays sociolinguists tend to believe that this kind of change does not exist or at least is very rare. It was postulated previously because not all the social factors involved in language change were appreciated.

standard A variety of a language which, due to historical circumstance, for example by being the language of the capital or that used in literature and/or religion, has become the lead variety in a country. As a result of this, the standard may be expanded due to the increase in function which it experiences. Countries often have a term for their standard. In England there are various terms such as *The Queen's English, Oxford English, BBC English, Received Pronunciation*. Only the last of these finds favour with linguists.

standard English A reference to a supranational form of written English which is normally used in printing, in various documents of an official nature and which is taught to foreigners. Spoken standard English is not a single form of the language but is represented by the supraregional varieties in different anglophone countries and regions. The notion of standard English has been viewed critically by a number of linguists who see in it a disguised form of prescriptivism and discrimination. Furthermore, standard English has been viewed as an anglocentric development which led inevitably to RP.

standardization A process during which a variety becomes the standard in a country. This generally lasts some centuries and is furthered by external developments such as the rise in prestige of a capital city and the speech of the leading class there; this is the process of 'selection'. Varieties typically become independent of their regional roots on standardization as has happened with RECEIVED PRONUNCIATION and are often fixed in orthography and grammar; this is the process of 'codification'.

status planning In language planning, status planning refers to the decision to confirm a language in its functions and its domains or to introduce a new language into these functions and domains.

stigma, linguistic Negative evaluation associated with the use of certain pronunciations and/or structures in a variety. The judgemental attitude triggered by such use is normally the result of the stigma-bearing features deriving from non-standard varieties of a language.

style-shifting A process whereby speakers move temporarily to another style, frequently to a more vernacular one, for a particular effect, for example to render their speech more colloquial for a moment, as in *Why don't the rest of yez* [jiz / jɪz / jəz] *have a drink?* where the local Irish form *yez* is used rather than *you*. Successful style-shifting is possible if speakers know what the forms of the vernacular spoken in their area are and can use them in appropriate contexts. Style-shifting (downwards) is not normally stigmatized as long as one's interlocutors know the vernacular is not one's only mode of speech. The term can also be used in a more general sense to refer to shifting from any one style to another and not just to a vernacular mode.

subculture A group that is seen or sees itself as contained within a dominant culture or even marginal to it. Alienation in the subculture often results in a *counter-culture*.

substrate A language which is socially less prestigious than another spoken in the same area but which can nonetheless be the source of grammatical or phonological features in the more prestigious language; for example, Scottish Gaelic is a substrate in those areas of north-west Scotland where it is still spoken. Substrate influence is often quoted as being instrumental in the formation of pidgins and creoles and as being responsible for many instances of historical change.

substrate hypothesis In reference to the origins of pidgins and creoles, the substrate hypothesis posits that substrate influence should be seen as the primary explanation for the structural peculiarities of creoles.

superstrate A variety of a language which enjoys a position of power and/or prestige compared to another. It may be a standard form of a language or a different language from that found natively in a specific country or region. In all anglophone countries English is the superstrate irrespective of any other local languages which may be present, though there may be internal differences; for example, French is the superstrate in Quebec but English is in the context of Canada as a whole.

superstrate hypothesis In reference to the origins of pidgins and creoles, the superstrate hypothesis emphasizes the origin of the individual structural peculiarities in the non-standard varieties of the lexifier.

supportive simultaneous talk Instances where two or more speakers talk at the same time in a supportive manner in order to engage in the joint production of discourse.

supraregional variety Any variety used across different areas, frequently an entire country. It contrasts with 'standard' which refers to a codified, often written variety with a recognized and explicit social function in the country where it is found. A supraregional variety normally contrasts with a series of vernaculars at various locations within the country in question and often arises through the process of supraregionalization.

supraregionalization A historical process whereby features characteristic of vernaculars are replaced by more mainstream ones in the speech of non-vernacular speakers. The historical trigger for supraregionalization may have been the formation of an educated middle class with an attendant stigmatization of vernaculars seen as characteristic of the uneducated. The new features introduced by supraregionalization frequently derive from an extranational norm, for example the use of /iː/ for Middle English /eː/ and /ɛː/ in the late modern period in Irish English, leading to words like *meat* now being pronounced [miːt], as in southern English English. Supraregionalization can lead to a lexical split if the vernacular and the non-vernacular pronunciation continue to coexist as has happened in Irish English with *old* [oːld] and *owl'* [aul] 'old, but suggesting attachment and affection'. Supraregionalization can show typical developments: (1) Vernacular features are replaced entirely by non-vernacular ones, for example serve-lowering disappeared from Irish English completely in the late nineteenth century. (2) Vernacular features are restricted to a specific phonetic environment, for example raising of /ɛ/ to /ɪ/ has been confined to pre-nasal position (in the south-west of Ireland where it is still found). (3) Features are relegated to colloquial registers, cf. the example of *old* and *owl'* just given. With supraregionalization an important consideration is whether or not there is an extranational norm which plays a role in the process (as with German in Austria or French in Wallonia, Belgium, for instance). Geographical proximity can, but need not be the determining factor: for speakers of Irish English, RP is not a model because adopting it would be regarded as unpatriotic (although historically some features of English English have been adopted). British exonormative models may play a role for countries which are separated by greater distance, for example New Zealand or Singapore.

swearing The use of generally taboo words or expressions to express anger, disgust, annoyance. Mild swear words can be used as expressions of surprise or indignation, for example *Shit, I won first prize in the competition*. Swear words and expressions

have a long history in any language and may often take the form of a curse, for example *Bad cess to him!*, a type which is not common nowadays. Some swear words are confined to certain text domains, for example *zounds* (< God's wounds), which is common in comics but not in spoken English.

switch-over A situation in which speakers of language A change to language B, abandoning the former in the process. Historical examples are the change from Irish to English, Scottish Gaelic to English, and so on. Language contact does not necessarily lead to a switchover as stable bilingualism may evolve or one of the languages in contact may be abandoned (French in late Middle English) or lost through assimilation of its speakers (Old Norse at the end of the Old English period) after possibly influencing the other language in various ways.

switch-over accent The accent of an individual who has moved from a vernacular to a non-vernacular accent. Such an individual often retains features of the original vernacular accent which are anomalous in the context of a non-vernacular accent. For instance, among speakers of non-vernacular Dublin English there are some with a switch-over accent who show GOAT-diphthongization and R-retroflexion (non-vernacular features), but T-glottalization/ deletion (a vernacular feature), especially in casual, unmonitored speech.

taboo A reference to words in a language which it is generally thought should be avoided. In Western societies such words are nowadays restricted to areas of intimate behaviour but formerly, and today in other parts of the world, different areas of language were and can be taboo, for example vocabulary associated with death or the supernatural. Words may become taboo in the course of time or, more frequently, taboo words may lose their special character and consequently their force. Taboo words can change across just a few generations, for example references to private bodily functions, as older taboo words lose their strength and become part of general vocabulary, cf. the common use of *shit* and *fuck* in colloquial forms of English across the world, for example *This car is just a heap of shit. That really fucked up the party*.

tag question A pragmatic invitation to register solidarity by adding an empathetic question to an utterance, such as 'you know what I mean'or 'isn't it'.

tag switching When a speaker switches to another code (language, accent or other variety) simultaneous with the use of a clause tagged on to the end of the utterance, such as '... you know' or '... innit?'

tags Appended phrases in utterances, often with vague referents, typically serving as solidarity or politeness markers (such as 'you know', 'you get me', 'and that').

target (1) The language which is being learned by second language learners; (2) the target language for a translation; (3) the position towards which the active articulator – typically the tongue – is moved during speech production.

termination The final phase in language change. It is characterized by a slowing down of the change and may or may not result in it going to completion. Where change is complete, for example in the loss of initial /kn-/ and /gn-/ clusters, only the orthography may suggest the pre-change situation, cf. *know* and *gnaw* respectively. In other cases some candidates for the change may resist it, often for phonetic reasons, and not be affected before the change becomes inactive. For instance, /ʊ/ was lowered to /ʌ/ in seventeenth-century southern England, cf. *cut* /kʌt/, *tuck* /tʌk/. However, where the phonetic environment had inherent rounding, for example after labial sounds and before (dark, velarized) /l/ or /ʃ/, as in *pull* and *push*, this did not happen, hence the pronunciation of both these words with /ʊ/.

TH-fronting An accent feature in which the 'th' in, for example, 'thick' or 'brother' is pronounced with a /f/ or /v/.

trade language Another term for a pidgin used in restricted trade situations, usually in the colonial period (roughly the late sixteenth to the early twentieth century).

traditional dialect A reference to a dialect which has not been subject to high degrees of contact in its history, which is usually found in rural areas and which retains more conservative forms of speech. This contrasts with urban forms of speech which often exhibit fewer traditional features but which may have other unique characteristics.

transition zone A region which lies between two identifiable dialect areas and which shows features from both of these. A transition zone is usually a relatively broad band, for example the Midland region between the south and the north in the eastern half of the United States. More sudden transitions can also be found, for example major rivers or mountain ranges.

transmission vs diffusion A distinction in principle between two means by which language passes between generations/speakers. With transmission one generation acquires its language from a preceding one in early childhood and in the process it masters complex community-internal norms. With diffusion language is passed between groups due to contact, largely among adults. This leads to transfer of structure between languages and imperfect acquisition which can in turn result in reanalysis of internal structures and a realignment of linguistic norms.

transparent A reference to a process or form which can be understood without any additional information. For instance, *water sports* is transparent to speakers of English but *aquatic sports* is not unless they have explicitly learned the meaning of *aquatic* (< Latin *aqua* 'water'). Another example would be *hussy*, a reduced form of 'housewife' which, because of loss of transparency, underwent a semantic shift to 'unpleasant or immoral female' with the transparent *housewife* being reintroduced into the language. The opposite of transparent is opaque.

trilingualism The phenomenon in which an individual speaks three languages, often in a community which recognizes a functional (*triglossic*) or social use for each variety.

turn-taking In any discourse the act of changing the topic of conversation. There are certain devices used to do this as in *By the way, I met Fergal yesterday* or *Listen, we must consider Fiona as well*.

underlexicalized The situation in which a language variety has only a few words for an item, usually indicating a cultural lack of interest in the phenomenon, by contrast with overlexicalized items (such as British words for types of rain or drug abusers' terms for their substances).

universal Any feature or property which holds for all languages; for example, all languages have verbs and nouns as grammatical categories. Universals are few and far between though near-universals, that is those which are good for the vast majority of languages, are more common and often more interesting in the insights which they offer concerning the nature of human language in general. Instances of the latter would be (i) nearly all languages have voiceless consonants, (ii) nearly all vowels are voiced, (iii) most languages distinguish gender for third person singular pronouns (though Finnish does not, for instance).

urban dialectology The investigation of speech patterns with city dwellers in deliberate contrast to the study of conservative rural speech which used to be common in dialectology until the mid twentieth century. Most of the insights of present-day sociolinguistics derive from studying the speech habits of urban populations.

utterance Any stretch of spoken speech, a sentence or a phrase. The utterance is the basic unit of pragmatics, speech act theory and discourse analysis.

variety A term used to refer to any form of a language which can be sufficiently delimited from another form. The grounds for such differentiation may be social, historical, geographical or a combination of these factors. The necessity for the neutral term *variety* arose from the use of *dialect* with reference to the speech of an older rural male population. The term *dialect* is sometimes retained as a general term with *traditional dialect* used for the older, more restricted sense.

varieties, endangered A reference to any variety whose speaker numbers show a steady decline and which has reached a critical threshold. What this threshold might be is difficult to determine but certainly a variety spoken by less than 1,000 individuals is in acute danger. The disappearance of a variety usually happens (i) when speakers, who acquired it in early life, no longer use it or (ii) when individuals, who could have acquired it, do not do so. Such speakers usually switch to a dominant variety in their social environment or change to supraregional speech of the region and/ or country they live in. Switching to another variety of the same language is normally gradual, that is speakers cease using salient features (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary) of the endangered variety and show preference for equivalents from the variety they are shifting to. Examples of varieties which were abandoned can be found in history, for example forth and bargy in the south-east of Ireland which gave way to general Irish English of this area in the early nineteenth century.

Present-day examples would include Gullah on the Sea Islands off the coast of Georgia whose speakers may use more general forms of African American English of the south-east and various traditional dialects of English on both sides of the Atlantic which are being replaced by more supraregional forms of speech.

vernacular A cover term for popular, spoken varieties which are usually strongly localized and not influenced by a standard which might be present in the region where they are spoken. They are typically used by people who do not belong to the educated middle classes of a society and vernaculars do not necessarily have a written form though they may be (partially) represented using specially adapted spellings.

vernacular norms According to the linguists James and Lesley Milroy language usage is determined in vernacular-speaking networks by their own internal norms and not by public notions of a standard. These norms serve to maintain network identity and internal cohesion and govern the range of features found at any one time in a network with the possibility of change occurring through the introduction of innovations from outside. Vernacular norms are not explicitly codified (unlike standard varieties) and are transmitted orally across generations.

vernacular universal A not uncontested notion proposed by the Canadian linguist J. K. Chambers which assumes that certain features occur across vernacular varieties of English without these being in contact or without there being a historical connection. Such features are 'universal' in that they are taken to represent general tendencies of language development which are independent of contact or input. Examples suggested in the literature include negative concord as in *He isn't going nowhere*, the regularization of verb conjugation patterns as in *He seen* (not *saw*) *his brother yesterday*, singular verb forms as default irrespective of semantics, for example *They was out all night*, or copula absence as in *Her brother Ø kinda smart*.

vernacularization In synchronic terms, a process of style-shifting away from a supraregional or non-vernacular variety. This is done when non-vernacular speakers adopt certain salient features of a vernacular for popular effect, for example the use of *youse* by Irish English speakers who do not normally have this form. Diachronically, the term refers to the relegation of features to vernacular varieties on their being replaced by more mainstream forms by nonvernacular speakers, for example the restriction of *bowl'* [baul] and *owl'* [aul] in Irish English to vernaculars on the adoption of *bold* and *old* in supraregional varieties of Irish English. Vernacularization can be accompanied by a lexical split, that is the vernacular and the supraregional forms come to be distinguished in meaning, here *bowl'* 'sneaking admiration', *owl'* 'affection' (ol-diphthongization).

vocabulary The words in a language. These are grouped into word fields giving the vocabulary an internal structure. The term *lexicon* is also used but the latter has at least three meanings: (i) the words of a language, (ii) the mental store of the words one knows, (iii) a dictionary.

vocabulary, archaic or regional (1) An obvious distinction between American and British English lies in the use of vocabulary. By and large American English retains older lexical items recognizable in pairs such as the following: *autumn/fall, post/mail*. However, not all distinctions can be reduced to the distinction of older versus newer vocabulary: *cellar/basement, drive/ride, maize/corn, pail/bucket, porch/veranda, rubbish/garbage, tap/faucet*. (2) Current lexical items in a variety can derive from words no longer current in more mainstream varieties. For instance, in the creole Sranan (Suriname) the word *wenke* 'young woman' stems from the archaic form *wench*. (3) There are cases where shifts of meaning or folk etymologies have arisen due to the misinterpretation of an original input. An example is Newfoundland English *hangashore* 'useless individual' from Irish *ainniseoir* 'mean person' with a hypercorrect, unetymological /h-/ (not uncommon, given /h-/ deletion in the West Country community on the island).

vocabulary, nautical In pidgins and creoles there are a number of words which derive from nautical usage, for example *galley* 'ship's kitchen' for kitchen in general, *cargo* for anything carried. The same is true in pidgins and creoles lexified by other languages. For example, Haitian Creole has *ralé* 'pull' from French *haler* 'haul', not from *tirer*; *isé* 'lift' from French *hisser* 'hoist', not from *lever*.

vocabulary, new formations in In the input to creoles many vocabulary items were missing and the gaps were filled by creations on the part of early creole speakers, for example *hand-middle* for 'palm' in Jamaican Creole.

vocabulary, reallocation and extension Reallocation is common where an English word came to have a different referent from that in the English input. In Miskito Coast (Nicaragua) the word *lion* refers to a local cougar and *tiger* to a jaguar. Extensions can occur where an item achieves a broader scope, for example *tea* in many Caribbean creoles refers to any hot drink.

vocabulary and dialect boundaries The distinction between dialect areas can be reinforced by the use of specific vocabulary items (and not just pronunciation and grammar). For instance, there are significant differences between vocabulary in northern and southern dialects in the United States: northern *pail, eaves(trough)* versus southern *bucket, gutter* respectively. The pronunciation of individual lexical items has been used to delimit dialect areas as is the case with the distinction between *greasy* largely with [-s-] in the northern and with [-z-] in the southern United States.

vulgar A censorious epithet used to describe a variety disapprovingly. The term was very common in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries in evaluative treatments of language, for example W. H. Savage's *The Vulgarisms and Improprieties of the English Language*.

ДОДАТОК 1
Зразки завдань для поточного контролю

1. A creole …. a pidgin

a) originates from
b) gives birth to
c) means the same as
d) is not related to

2. A pidgin in contrast to a creole

a) has a first language status for some community or group of speakers
b) does not have a first language status
c) is used for the entire range of social functions that a language can be used for
d) is based on one language

3. The term World Englishes

a) usually embraces only national varieties of English
b) denotes all varieties of English spoken outside Britain
c) is rarely used
d) is criticized by Braj Kachru

4. The classification of World Englishes into English as a Native, Second, or Foreign Language belongs to

a) Braj Kachru
b) Barbara Strang
c) Manfred Görlach
d) Tom McArthur

5. Within Scheider's Dynamic Model of Postcolonial Englishes the period when the politically dominant mother country determines the norms of linguistic behavior in the new territory is called

a) foundation
b) exonormative stabilization
c) nativization
d) endonormative stabilization

6. Variation in the American English

a) is non-existent
b) is less than in other national languages
c) is the same as in any other national language
d) is greater than in most national languages

7. The term *retroflex* in respect of sound [r] in the American English means that

a) *r* is always pronounced after a vowel.
b) *r* is only pronounced at the end of the word
c) *r* is lost after an unstressed vowel if another *r* follows
d) *r* is pronounced only in the words which date back to the first British settlers in America

ДОДАТОК 2
Зразки завдань для модульного контролю

1. Sociolinguistics is

-a) a branch of linguistics
-b) a branch of sociology
-c) a humanity that stands close to behavioural psychology
+d) is an interdisciplinary humanity that arose at the juncture of sociology and linguistics

2. Sociolinguistics studies

-a) language in its pure form
+b) language in its social context
-c) language as it is spoken by sociologists
-d) linguistic features of an ideal speaker-listener

3. Sociolinguistics does not study

-a) the relation between language and social class
-b) the influence of social perturbations on the language situation
+c) the social tendencies and stratification
-d) the reasons of language use variation

4. The reasons for the appearances of sociolinguistics can be united into

+a) two groups
-b) three groups
-c) four groups
-d) five groups

5. In contrast to sociolinguistic approach the traditional linguistics deals with

-a) the real speakers of the language
-b) the language in all its inconsistencies and variations
+c) the ideal speaker-listener in a homogeneous speech community
-d) language variation

6. **Term "Sociolinguistics" was first used by**

-a) Ukrainian linguist L. A. Bulakhovskyi
+b) American sociologist H. Currie
-c) French linguist Ch. Bally
-d) Russian dialectologist B. O. Larin

7. Language interference can be traced in

-a) grammar
-b) vocabulary
-c) phonetics
+d) on all the language levels.

8. Argot is the language spoken by

-a) one social group
-b) uneducated people
+c) criminals
-d) people sharing the same profession

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Залужна *Ольга Олексіївна*

НАВЧАЛЬНО-МЕТОДИЧНИЙ ПОСІБНИК
для самостійної роботи з дисципліни
«Соціолінгвістична варіативність англійської мови»
для здобувачів другого (освітньо-професійного) рівня вищої освіти
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