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Linguistics

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Introduction

Linguistics is the scientific study of human language, its structure, communication, and its development over time. For students of English, studying linguistics is essential for understanding not only how sentences are formed and meanings expressed, but also how language reflects and shapes social identities, relationships, and power.

In the third year of the licence programme, linguistics builds on the foundations laid in earlier semesters and moves towards more advanced, applied topics. In this course, particular attention is given to language in context: how different languages and varieties interact in the same society, how speakers shift between codes in response to situation and audience, and how institutional decisions and global processes influence which languages are promoted, maintained, or marginalised.

The handouts accompanying this course have been designed to support L3 students in engaging with these questions. Each unit presents key concepts in a clear and concise way, illustrates them with examples drawn from both the Algerian context and other multilingual settings, and provides practice activities that encourage observation, analysis, and reflection. Used alongside lectures and textbooks, the handouts are intended to guide note-taking, facilitate revision, and help students prepare for examinations and research projects in linguistics.

By working through the course and its materials, students are invited to deepen their understanding of the complex relationship between language and society, to develop a more precise metalanguage for describing linguistic phenomena, and to reflect critically on their own linguistic repertoires and experiences.



Course Description and Objectives

This course is designed for third-year (L3) students of English and offers an advanced introduction to linguistics with a particular focus on sociolinguistic perspectives. It explores how language varies across speakers, situations, and communities, and how social, cultural, and political factors shape the way languages are used, maintained, and changed.

Building on the theoretical foundations covered in first and second year, the course examines key topics such as bilingualism and diglossia, code-switching and language borrowing, pidgins and creoles, globalisation and its impact on languages, and issues of language policy and planning. Through lectures, handouts, examples drawn from the students' own linguistic environment, and guided analytical tasks, learners will develop the conceptual tools needed to describe and interpret real-life language practices.

By the end of the course, students will be able to:

- Define and illustrate major concepts in contemporary linguistics and sociolinguistics relevant to language contact and language planning.
- Analyse spoken or written data for phenomena such as diglossia, code-switching, borrowing, and emerging contact varieties.
- Discuss the effects of globalisation and institutional language policies on minority and majority languages, with special reference to the Algerian context.
- Reflect critically on their own linguistic repertoires and on the relationship between language, identity, and society.



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Diglossia

Objective:

- Introducing students to the concept of diglossia as a key sociolinguistic situation.
- Enabling students to describe and analyse the functional distribution of High and Low varieties within a speech community

According to Albirin (2016), the term "Diglossia" was initially used by German linguist Karl Krumbacher in 1902 and subsequently by French orientalist William Marçais in 1930. Nevertheless, it was really defined by American sociolinguist Charles Ferguson, and developed to a linguistic modal (Gkaragkouni ;2009, p. 28).

The term "diglossia" was initially used to describe the Greek linguistic situation nevertheless. Sayahi (2014) states that two dialects of Greek existed in Greece until 1976. The spoken dialect of Greek that developed over time was called Demotic. Each and every native speaker used it. In contrast, Katharevousa evolved from classical Greek in the nineteenth century. In 1834, Katharevousa became the official language. After that, it was the language of administration and education until the new national language, Demotic, underwent standardization. The diglossic situation, thus, came to an end in 1976.

1-Diglossia according to Ferguson

Charles Ferguson(1959) coined the term "diglossia" as a linguistic modal in 1959. He defines it as:

A relatively stable language situation in which, in addition to the primary dialects of the language (which may include a standard or regional standards), there is a very divergent, highly codified (often grammatically more complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, either of an earlier period or in another speech community, which is learned largely by formal education and is used for most

written and formal spoken purposes but it is not used by any section of the community for ordinary conversation.(336)

Ferguson's viewpoint relies on the idea that diglossia is the coexistence of two dialects of the same language, with the low (L) variety occurring in one setting and the high (H) variety in another. Stated differently, Ferguson's theory of diglossia rests on the belief that H and L have complimentary distributions (p.340). In the same line of thought, Gkaragkouni (2009) expounds that the variety H is only used in language usage settings when the variety L is banned, and vice versa (p. 29). He argues that:

H is frequently more complicated than L as far as phonology, grammar (i.e., morphosyntax) as well as lexicon are concerned. What is more, it is exclusively being employed in the legal system, the educational and religious domains and above all in the governmental sphere as well as in the military service. There is a tendency for H to be learned outside the home environment more regularly at school under the supervision of a well-qualified teacher or by means of dictionaries, grammar and orthography books. (p.30)

In addition, Holmes (2013) concurs with Ferguson. She claims that the vocabulary of the H variety differs from that of the L variety in that the former contains formal and technical terminology, whereas the latter contains words for commonplace items (p. 28). She offers a classical Arabic example as well. Used for formal conversations, the H variant is regarded as the language of the Koran. A colloquial dialect, however, is the L variety.

1.1.Features of Diglossia

1)Function. It is diglossia's most crucial characteristic. It is the function's specialization for H and L. Only H is appropriate in one set of circumstances, and only L in another.

2) Prestige. Speakers believe that H is more superior than L. To put it another way, wealthy people use the H variety because they believe it to be more attractive and better for expressing

their ideas.

3) **The heritage of literature.** Ferguson's H stands for written literature . Since the majority of authors employed the standard variety, their production is regarded as a genuine practice.

4) **Acquisition.** When speaking to children, adults use L, and when children are speaking to each other, they use L. L can be regarded as the mother tongue as a result. Additionally, because L is implicitly acquired, a speaker can use it with ease at home. On the other hand, the speaker learns H in schools with established norms and regulations.

5) **Standardization.** H possesses unique grammar, dictionaries, and pronunciation and style treatises.

6) **Stability.** In diglossia, H and L are always used. It can never be one language, and diglossia does not necessarily likely to be stable just because some lexical items are borrowed from H to L.

7) **Grammar:** H contains grammatical constructs that L does not.

8. **Lexicon.** H contains learned expressions and technical terminology that don't have conventional L equivalents in its entire lexicon. Additionally, L's entire vocabulary contains common idioms and the names of extremely ordinary objects or locally distributed items without regular H equivalents. To demonstrate this, consider the fact that H's vocabulary is absent from L.

9. **Phonology.** L phonology is the divergent aspects of H phonology, which suggests that the two phonologies may be rather similar. In oral classical Arabic use, for example, /s/ is commonly used for /θ/ in Syrian and Egyptian Arabic (pp. 335-338).

Ferguson (1959) uses the Indian Tamil dialect as an example to highlight the previously discussed ideas. He asserts that:

First, consider Tamil. As used by the millions of members by the Tamil speech community in India today, it fits the definition exactly. There is a literary Tamil as H used for writing and certain kinds of formal speaking, and a standard colloquial as L (as well as local L dialects) used in ordinary conversation. There is a body of literature in H going back many centuries which highly regarded by Tamil speakers today. H has prestige, L does not. H is always superposed, L is learned naturally, whether as a primary or as a superposed standard colloquial. There are striking grammatical differences and some phonological differences between the two varieties(P.337)

Sayahi (2014) argues that Ferguson's definition of diglossia is considered classical in that it addresses languages and its dialects, or varieties that are derived from the same historical language (p.6). Fishman's extended diglossia, however, is covered in the sections that follow.

2.Diglossia according to Fishman

In contrast, Joshua Fishman (1967) expands and reinterprets the term diglossia to include the usage of two distinct languages in two distinct situations. Accordingly, diglossia encompasses not only the use of one language and its dialect but also the use of two languages: the low (L) language in one context and the high (H) language in another (p. 29). In this situation, a speaker must be bilingual, meaning they can speak two languages. Fishman (1967) uses Paraguay as an example to demonstrate this type of diglossia. According to him, Guarani and Spanish are the two languages spoken by people in Paraguay. At home, people use Guarani, but while discussing politics, religion, or education, they prefer Spanish.

Furthermore, according to Fishman (1967), the term "diglossia" has not only gained widespread acceptance among sociolinguists and sociologists of language since Ferguson (1959) first proposed it, but it has also been further developed and refined (p. 29). Consequently, it can be said that Fishman's definition of diglossia is merely an extension of Ferguson's

definition. To bolster this argument, Stępkowska (2012) states that Fishman's work can be viewed as both an extension and a critique of Ferguson's notion of diglossia (p.204).

Fishman presents the idea that diglossia can exist independently of bilingualism and bilingualism can exist independently of diglossia, even if his perspective is mostly limited to bilingualism. Additionally, he notes that bilingualism and diglossia can occasionally coexist in a community. Fishman explains the aforementioned phenomena in the sections that follow.

2.1.Types of Diglossia

2.1.1.Diglossia without Bilingualism

Initially, Fishman (1967) presents the idea that when two or more speech communities are politically or economically unified yet culturally and socially distinct, diglossia can exist without bilingualism. For example, the majority spoke a different language for intergroup reasons, while European elites spoke French or another fashionable language prior to World War I. The people and elites never engage. They do not constitute a single community, to put it briefly. They relied on interpreters and translators for their communication. Because of this, the linguistic repertoires of the previously described groups were too limited to allow for the development of broad societal bilingualism.

2.2.2.Bilingualism without Diglossia

Second, according to Fishman, there are some circumstances in which diglossia is absent although bilingualism prevails. According to Sayahi (2014), this is the case when people are proficient in two languages but most domains only utilize one language.

2.2.3. Neither Diglossia nor Bilingualism

Third, According to Fishman (1967), diglossia or bilingualism may not always be present in a community. This applies to monolingual speakers who only communicate in one language. According to Fishman, this type of community is hard to locate but has no communication with other speech communities. Additionally, according to Fishman, these kinds of groupings are simpler to speculate about than to find.

3. Diglossia according to Fasold

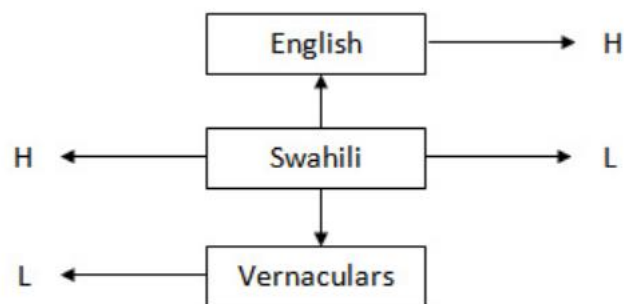
Fasold expanded on Fishman's idea of diglossia to broad diglossia. Differences between two languages or dialects are identified in the idea. Fasold refers to the multilingual community as having double diglossia. Double diglossia can be overlapping, nested, or linear polyglossia (Fasold, 1987; pp. 41-51).

3.1. Double Overlapping Diglossia

Double overlapping diglossia is characterized by numerous levels and functions of language. Tanzania's linguistic situation serves as an example. Tanzanians are multilingual and employ many languages in their daily lives. They understand English, Swahili, and other regional languages.

Regional languages are actually taught as mother tongues and are utilized in communication within families or between speakers of the same mother tongue. Swahili is taught in elementary schools and serves as a communication tool amongst classmates who do not speak the same mother tongue as well as the language of instruction during the teaching and learning process. In this instance, the local language is a L variety based on how it is acquired and used, yet it has the status of a H variety. English must be taught as the language of

instruction in formal settings and taken as a subject by students when they attend higher education.

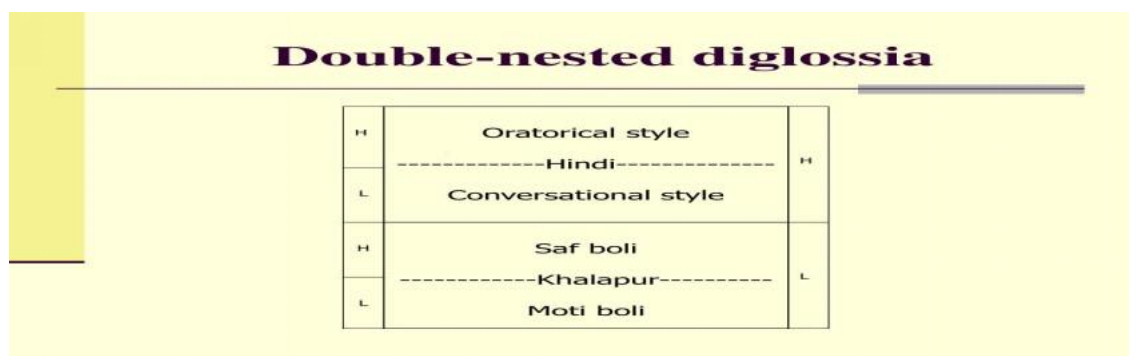


Double overlapping diglossia in Tanzania: ©Tanvir Shameem

3.2. Double Nested Diglossia

In a multilingual society, double nested diglossia refers to the presence of two distinct languages: H and L. Both H and L varieties have their own varieties or dialects, referred to as H and L varieties, respectively. Khalapur, India, has two languages: Hindi and Khalapur. Khalapur is studied at home and utilized by everyone in the village for everyday local interactions. Meanwhile, Hindi is learned at school, by local residents, or through outside interaction. Thus, Khalapur is a diglossian society, with Hindi as the H variety and Khalapur as the L variety. However, H and L variations exist in both Hindi and Khalapur. Khalapur has two varieties: Moti boli, a rough language used in informal situations, and Saf boli, a more sensitive language with a Hindi influence. In Khalapur, Moti boli is classified as a L variety and Saf boli as a H variety.

Khalapur Hindi has two variations: those used in informal discussions (L variety) and those used in formal lectures (H variety). The previously mentioned understanding can be described as follows:



3.3.Linear polyglossia

Linear polyglossia structures a society's language repertoire. According to Platt (1977) this situation is best manifested in Singapore and Malaysia. Consider the languages spoken by English-speaking Malaysian Chinese residents in Malaysia. Formal Malaysian English is classified as H1 and normal Malaysian as H2. Informal Malaysian English has intermediate 1 (M1) linguistic status, while mainstream Chinese has intermediate 2 (M2). Native Chinese is classified as a low language (L1), followed by other Chinese languages as low languages (L2), and Baazar Malayan as the lowest (L). The chart below will help clarify the discussion.

Linear polyglossia

Formal Malaysian English	↓ ↑	H ₁
Bahasa Malaysia		H ₂
Mandarin		DH
Colloquial Malaysian English		M ₁
Dominant Chinese language		M ₂
'Native' Chinese language		L ₁
Other Chinese languages		L ₂ -L _n
Bazaar Malay		L-

Diglossia, which emphasizes the distinctions between the H and L types, is a recent trend that happens not only in one-language communities but also at the larger level of multilingual communities. The hypotheses of diglossia that have been proposed by earlier research will keep evolving in tandem with language development.

Task One: Say whether the following statements are true or false

- In a diglossic situation, using the L variety in a formal written exam is generally considered appropriate and expected.
- In most diglossic situations, the H variety is more standardised, with grammars and dictionaries, than the L variety.
- In a diglossic community, the L variety in diglossia is typically acquired through formal schooling.
- In a diglossic situation, the H variety is never used in written form.

Task Two: Which of the following best illustrates “diglossia with bilingualism” in Fishman’s extended sense?

- a) H and L are used only by different generations
- b) H and L are functionally distributed, and many speakers are additionally bilingual in a third, foreign language used for international communication

Bilingualism

Objectives

- Understanding the concept of Bilingualism from different perspectives
- Identifying the different types of Bilingualism

Bilingualism is the use of at least two languages by an individual or by a community of speakers. The initial step in any linguistic study project, especially sociolinguistic and language contact studies, is to identify the various types of bilingualism and bilinguals and their distinguishing traits.

1.Bilingualism Definition

A bilingual individual speaks at least two languages with some proficiency. Although a bilingual is commonly defined as someone who can speak, converse, read, or understand two languages equally well (this is referred to as a balanced bilingual), a bilingual person typically has a higher understanding of one language than another.

Bilingualism is described as using at least two languages, either individually or as a group of speakers. Bilingualism is the norm in the majority of countries around the world. Ambi-bilingualism is a word in bilingualism that refers to the ability and aptitude to perform equally well in two or more languages across a variety of fields. Individual bilingualism does not have a universally accepted definition. Bilingualism should be viewed as a continuum (Baetens Beardsmore, 1986). The monolingual speaker is at one end of the spectrum, whereas the individual who learned both languages in naturalistic circumstances as a youngster and speaks LA and LB with equal and native-like fluency is at the other end. Such ambi- or equi-

monolingualism is theoretically ideal (Weinreich, 1968; Lyons, 1981), but it is uncommon in practice (Lyons, 1981). Along the continuum are those who exhibit greater or lesser degrees of bilingualism, including bilinguals who speak both languages fluently and proficiently but are more dominant in one than the other, as well as adult second language learners with varying levels of proficiency and mastery of the second language (L2).

There have already been attempts to categorize bilinguals according to their level of proficiency and fluency in the languages they speak, simply by age, context, or language acquisition method (the early/late and simultaneous/successive, formal/informal, acquired/learned distinctions, respectively), and by postulated language representation or processing mechanisms (the additive/subtractive and compound/co-ordinate/subordinate distinctions). The many kinds of bilingualism and their characteristics will be covered in the sections that follow.

2.Types of Bilingualism

To highlight the multidimensionality of bilingualism, scholars proposed multiple classifications based on the many dimensions of bilingualism they focused on.

2.1.Early and Late Bilingualism

Depending on when they were exposed to two or more languages, bilinguals can also be divided into early and late bilinguals. The acquisition of multiple languages at the pre-adolescent stage of life is known as early bilingualism (Baetens Beardsmore, 1986: 28). Learning one language before the age of eight and the other beyond that is known as late bilingualism.

Language proficiency is used to differentiate between early and late bilinguals. Mainly, early bilinguals are thought to have achieved native-like proficiency in both languages (Baetens Beardsmore, 1986). Early bilingualism manifests as bilingualism as a native language, according to Swain (1972). The majority of late bilinguals, in contrast to early bilinguals, are considered non-native speakers of the L2, demonstrating structural grammatical deficiencies and an inability to recognize linguistic ambiguity as indicators of their lack of full L2 proficiency (Baetens Beardsmore, 1986).

Early bilingualism is also divided into two categories, which include: Early bilingualism can occur simultaneously or sequentially. Simultaneous early bilingualism happens when a child learns two languages simultaneously from birth. This frequently results in a strong bilingualism. Successive early bilingualism happens when a child partially acquires a first language and then learns a second language early in childhood. This can happen when a child transfers to a new environment where the prevailing language is not their original language. This normally results in a robust bilingualism, although the child needs time to acquire the second language.

Late bilingualism refers to bilinguals who learned their second language (L2) beyond the critical period, particularly when L2 is acquired in adulthood or adolescence. Late bilingualism is a form of successive bilingualism that occurs after the acquisition of L1. Because bilinguals have previously learned the L1, late bilingualism takes advantage of the individuals' experience to learn the L2.

2.2. Balanced and Dominant Bilinguals

The distinction between balanced and dominant (or unbalanced) bilinguals is based on the connection between fluency and proficiency in the languages that bilinguals master (Peal

and Lambert, 1962) . Balanced bilinguals have equivalent levels of skill and mastery in both languages, whereas dominant (or unbalanced) bilinguals have stronger proficiency in one language than the other(s). In other words, the individual in dominant bilingualism is more fluent and competent in one of the two languages, whereas a balanced bilingual is more or less equally competent and proficient in both languages.

2.3. Folk and Elite Bilinguals

Bilinguals can be classified further based on cultural identification and language usage. Bilinguals can be characterized based on numerous societal aspects, in addition to individual characteristics. Fishman (1977) distinguishes between 'folk' and 'elite' bilinguals based on the social status of their language. Where folk bilinguals are often language minority community whose own language does not have a high status in the predominant language society in which they dwell. Elite bilinguals are those who speak a dominant language in a society and can also communicate in another language, adding value and benefit to the community.

2.4. Additive and Subtractive Bilinguals

According to Lambert (1974), bilinguals can be divided into additive and subtractive categories based on how their L2 affects their ability to retain their L1. Additive bilinguals are individuals who can become more proficient in their second language without losing their first; subtractive bilinguals, on the other hand, are those who learn or acquire their second language at the expense of their first language. Both of the languages that people learn should be respected in their community since they are additive bilinguals. This is known as additive bilingualism, and it occurs when learning a second language does not impede learning the first. Conversely, subtractive bilingualism happens when learning a second language interferes with learning a first language, making the first language the replacement. A person who learns the

L2 to the detriment of the L1 is said to be subtractively bilingual. Competency and mastery of L1 decline in this situation, whereas proficiency and mastery of L2 (often the dominant language) increase.

2.5. Compound, coordinate, and subordinate Bilinguals

Compound, coordinate, and subordinate distinctions, according to Weinreich (1953), address the characteristics of how people arrange and store two or more linguistic codes. Compound bilinguals store two sets of linguistic codes (e.g., "Dog" and "Sag") in a single meaning unit; in other words, they have a single system of meaning for words that they use for both L1 and L2. Coordinate bilinguals, on the other hand, store and organize each linguistic code independently in two meaning units, and they have two systems of meaning for words: one system for words they know in L1 and another for words they know in L2. Additionally, subordinate bilinguals consider that their first language (L1) is used to understand and interpret the linguistic codes of their second language (L2). In particular, they are thought to have two sets of linguistic codes but only one meaning unit that can be accessed via their L1.

The classification of bilinguals was based on age, the context and way of language acquisition, the disparity between fluency and competency in the spoken languages, and the hypothesized processing mechanisms. It is critical to note that the majority of these dimensions are frequently linked. It might be suggested that one who is exposed to two languages from birth (simultaneously bilingual) can have a higher likelihood of being a balanced bilingual.

Task: Select the right choice

1. Which statement best defines bilingualism in everyday research use?

a- Knowing and using two languages to some meaningful degree in real life

b-Learning a second language only after full mastery of the first

c-Being able to accurately translate written texts between two languages

2.A child who is exposed to two languages from birth, mainly at home, is typically described as:

a-Simultaneous bilingual

b-Sequential bilingual

c-Late bilingual

3.Which situation best illustrates additive bilingualism?

a-An immigrant adult stops using their first language almost entirely to fit into the new country.

b-A heritage language program helps students strengthen their home language while they continue to develop the majority language.

c-A student is punished for speaking their first language at school and switches to using only the school language.

4.What is a likely consequence when a minority language is not supported in schools or society?

a-Children will usually become equally proficient in both the minority and majority languages.

b-The minority language will remain stable because it is used at home

c-The minority language may gradually be replaced by the majority language across generations.

5.Which description best captures the idea of language dominance in bilinguals?

a-One of a bilingual person's languages is relatively stronger in proficiency or use than the other.

b-Bilinguals always have equal proficiency in both of their languages across all skills.

c-Language dominance only refers to which language a person prefers speaking at home.

Code-Switching

Objectives:

- Understanding code switching as a systematic feature of multilingual discourse, to distinguish it from related phenomena such as code mixing.
- Developing students' ability to interpret the communicative and social functions of code switching.

In the middle of the 20th century, Haugen firstly coined the term "code switching" in 1954. The study of code switching as a language phenomena piqued the interest of academics and linguists from various disciplines, including psychology, sociology, and sociolinguistics. The phenomena is the subject of this sociolinguistic investigation. The course provides a summary of code switching. . Following academics and researchers like Poplack (1980) and Myers Scotton (1993), it then discusses the significance of code switching in bi/multilingual communities by offering various definitions, categories, and models as well as perspectives toward this linguistic phenomenon.

1.The Definition of Code-Switching

In a more general sense, linguistic contact and bilingualism lead to Code Switching (CS). It is regarded as one of the most significant sociolinguistic phenomena. When considering language from an interactive perspective, people who are bilingual or multilingual switch between codes in the same context. CS is defined as "the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to different grammatical systems or subsystems"(Gumperz; 1982, p. 59). This latter definition defines CS as the existence of distinct words, phrases, or sentences in the same context with distinct grammatical systems; that is, from one code to another within the same language, such as MSA/AA, or from one language to another, such as French/Arabic CS.

According to Wardhaugh (1986,p.102), a code is a system of communication between two or more groups and a particular dialect or language that one chooses to employ in any circumstance. According to Romaine (1995), the term is used broadly to refer not just to distinct languages but also to variations of the same language as well as linguistic styles (p. 121). Switching between two or more languages is known as "code switching." People may incorporate various words and utterances from other languages into their everyday speech. The blending of phonological components into a single speech is one example of this phenomenon. Moreover, Poplack (1980) describes code switching as "the alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence, or constituent in balanced bilinguals, which is governed by both extra-linguistic and linguistic factors."(p.224).

Code -Switching, on the other hand, is viewed from various perspectives. One that is concerned with the social meaning, how it is communicated, and what function it serves. The second focuses on structure, specifically grammar, morphology, syntax, and semantics. These two distinct CS views have opposing objectives, but they are interconnected and serve each other. CS frequently opens the door for borrowing because once a group of people become acclimated to certain words or phrases, they will eventually adapt them to their own language. Examples of loanwords in the Algerian context:

/déjà, OK, neflexilek/ already, ok I will charge your phone credit.

Code- Switching can occur deliberately or involuntarily, between languages, varieties, or styles.

2.Types of Code-Switching:

Several linguists and scholars have sought to categorize Code-Switching (CS) phenomena. Each linguist identified and dealt with CS from a unique standpoint. Poplack (1980) classifies CS based on sentence structure.

2.1.Code-Switching according to Poplack(1980)

Poplack (1980) identifies several forms of CS. She created a type called Grammatical CS, which has three sub-types. It was analyzed from a linguistic and structural perspective. It demonstrates that switching between two genetically unrelated kinds is not random, but rather rule-governed and necessitates knowledge of the target language. Grammatical CS has the following subtypes:

2.1.1.Intra-sentential code switching

Myers Scotton (1993) referred to intra-sentential as classic CS, while Muysken (2000) referred to it as alternation CS. It is the alternative uses of two languages in the same sentence boundaries. Furthermore, this sort of CS is about shifting from one variety to another at any point during the utterance. Bhatia and Ritchie (2004) stated a good example of intrasentential CS: "This morning mi hermano y yo fuimos a comprar some milk" (This morning, my brother and I went to buy some milk)(p.284).

2.1.2. Inter-sentential Code-Switching

This type of switching occurs at the clause or sentence boundary, where the two sentences or clauses have different languages. Poplack (1980, pp. 581-618) gives an example of a Puerto Rican bilingual Spanish/English speech. Sometimes I'll start a sentence in English y termino in espanol. (I sometimes start a sentence in English and finish it in Spanish.). Inter-sentential CS demands proficiency in both languages.

2.1.3.Tag Code-Switching

It is also known as extra-sentential CS. It is the introduction of an extra word different from the language of the phrase, such as /OK, duk ɲʉ:f / (ok, I will see). Because of the grammatical nature of tag switching, they can be used in a variety of contexts without disrupting

the syntactical order. This type of CS is overly easy and does not necessitate a strong mastery of both languages.

Bloom and Gumperz identified two distinct type of CS; Situational Code Switching and Metaphorical Code Switching .

2.2. Situational & Metaphorical Model CS (Blom and Gumperz, 1972)

2.2.1. Situational Code Switching

This sort of CS occurs when someone switches from one language to another based on the situation, participants, topic, and setting. This also happens when someone has to explain something highly precise that only exists in one language. According to Wardhaugh and Fuller (2015, p. 98), speakers shift languages based on the situation; each is utilized in a distinct context. In the same vein, Hudson (1996, p. 52) claims that situational CS matches with external changes, implying that the language is entirely bound by the rules.

2.2.2. Metaphorical Code-Switching

It is also referred to as conversational CS. It occurs in the same situation with the same interlocutors in order to give significance to various components; it usually needs to be expressed and has a specific purpose, such as showing solidarity, making an effect, or emphasizing; and it may occasionally shift from formal to informal and vice versa, as in EFL classrooms. According to Auer (1998, p. 156), metaphorical CS refers to the alternation in language choice, even when the situation stays unchanged. Similarly, Garder-Chrolos (2009, p. 58) says that metaphorical CS is "when a particular linguistic variety is introduced into a conversation with the intention of evoking its associated connotations and creating a metaphorical 'world' associated with that variety".

3. Reason of Code Switching

Holmes (2013, p. 35-44) listed many reasons behind the use of CS. These reasons are presented as follows:

- To include or exclude someone from the conversation;

- To show solidarity;
- To make a change in the situation;
- To adopt a positive perspective regarding the inclusion of a new participant;
- To identify a group membership;
- To construct ethnic identity;
- To indicate the status of relations between people;
- To show the formality of people's interactions;
- To express emotions and feelings;
- To reflect lexical borrowing (when the person does not find words in the language);
- To persuade the audience.

In the same range, Hoffman (1991) has summarized some reasons why the speakers change from one language to another. For bilinguals shifting from one language to another is related to :

- Quoting; people quote by using the original language;
- Talking about a specific topic to express group identity;
- Emphasizing and insisting on something;
- Making an interjection or showing astonishment or surprise;
- Repeat in order to clarify, soften, or strengthen a request;
- A lack of facility in a given language;
- Exclude others when a comment is intended for an exclusive audience.

4. Code-Switching vs Code-Mixing

Code-switching (CS) and code-mixing (CM) are two linguistic phenomena that characterize the usage of multiple languages or dialects in a conversation or sentence. CS and CM are frequently used interchangeably, but have distinct meanings. Wardhaugh (1992,p.107) defines conversational code mixing as "the deliberate mixing of two languages without an associated topic change," which means that speakers utilize more than one code in the same setting without changing the topic. Similarly, Hudson (1996,p. 53) characterizes CM as a circumstance "where a fluent bilingual talking to another fluent bilingual changes language without any change at all in the situation". That is, CM is the process by which bilingual speakers transfer linguistic

components from one language to another while having a conversation without changing the subject or the overall context. Additionally, CM is described by Hudson (1999,p. 53) as a type of linguistic cocktail in which a bilingual uses a few words from the first language, followed by a few words from the second, and so on. Eastman (1992) believes that there is no distinction between the two notions, and they utilize them interchangeably. The fundamental distinction between CS and CM is that CS is done consciously to show personal style, whereas CM is done unintentionally due to a lack of appropriate words or phrases.

In conclusion, based on the explanations provided by the two researchers, it can be concluded that people utilize this phenomena in everyday talks when they wish to express a specific meaning in a particular context and for a particular goal.

Task: Match the examples with their suitable code switching type

1.A bilingual teacher speaks to her class mostly in the national language but occasionally inserts short expressions from a minority language like “ay naku” or “oye” to get attention or show solidarity. Which type of code switching best matches this behavior?	a-Situational Code-Switching
2.In a conversation, Speaker A often switches to Language X to tell jokes but uses Language Y for serious discussions, even when the participants stay the same. Which concept best matches this pattern of code switching?	b-Metaphorical Code-Switching
3.A university student uses one language at home with family and a different language on campus with professors, consistently switching when she moves between these settings. Which sociolinguistic concept best matches this pattern?	c-Inter-sentential Code-Switching
4.A speaker says to a friend: “I was like, no way, parce que j’étais trop fatiguée.” This utterance combines English and French within a single sentence. Which type of code switching does this example best illustrate?	d-Tag Switching

Task Two: Read the following scenario and answer the questions

In a third-year class, students talk to each other in Algerian Arabic before the teacher arrives. When the teacher enters and starts the lesson in English, many students begin to answer in English but occasionally insert French or Arabic words and phrases, especially when they joke or when they don't know a term in English.

- Question:
 - a) Identify the main sociolinguistic phenomena in this scene (use 2 key terms).
 - b) Give two possible reasons why students switch codes in this situation (social or linguistic).

Language Borrowing

Objectives

- Understanding code switching as a systematic feature of multilingual discourse, to distinguish it from related phenomena such as code mixing.
- Developing students' ability to interpret the communicative and social functions of code switching.

Borrowing is the process of importing linguistic components from one language system to another that occurs when two cultures interact over time. The current interest in borrowing was first conceptualized in Haugen's (1950) article on the issue. Previous work focused on historical linguistics, but subsequent work expanded to encompass linguistics as a whole. Early research on borrowing emphasizes linguistic systems including lexicon, phonology, and grammar, as well as the repercussions of borrowing. Over the past four decades, there has been extensive research on borrowing elements from communication systems. Much of the ensuing work was in the realm of linguistics in general, not just historical linguistics. Earlier research on borrowing centered on language systems like vocabulary, phonology, and grammar.

In linguistics, the term "borrowing" refers to the process by which a language either completely or partially replicates a linguistic feature that has been taken from another language. The following are only a few of the many well-known drawbacks of using the metaphorical term "borrowing" to describe this process: There is no expectation that the "borrowing" or "loan" will ever be repaid, and nothing is taken from the donor's mother tongue. In many respects, the idea of impact would be more relevant. Since the 18th century, the term 'borrowing' has become widely accepted in linguistics and is no longer considered a metaphor.

1.Reason of Borrowing

Academic research shows that people borrow terms from other languages for a variety of reasons. However, in this section focuses on the two most significant motives: status and need fulfillment.

1.1.Prestige

Different languages can come into contact with each other at any time and in any area. In certain cases, one of these languages receives higher recognition than the others. A well-known language can impact other languages in its area. As a result, speakers of less prestigious languages are anxious to display their knowledge of the renowned language by integrating some of its words or phrases into their own speech, a practice known as appropriation. During and after the French occupation of our country, the French were regarded with greater courtesy than the Arabs. As a result, French vocabulary and expressions have influenced Algerian Arabic.

1.2.Lexical Gap

Borrowing can help bridge vocabulary gaps in the receiving language (Mohamed Ali and Mohideen, 2008). So, in this case, borrowing is driven by a 'lexical demand'. Borrowing is especially employed to meet scientific and technical needs (Teferra, 2008). According to Campbell (2004, quoted in Kheder, 2011), speakers often take terms from other languages to cover lexical gaps or expand existing meanings.

2.Types of Borrowing

According to Edgar (1990,p.409), borrowing involves two processes: substitution and importation. Moreover, Haugen (1959,p.59) identifies three types of borrowing: loan words, loan shifts, and loan blends.

2.1.Loan words

The first kind of loan words; or referred to as lexical borrowing; originated as a result of morphemic importation from other languages. For instance, the Latin word "salsa," which meaning "sauce," is spelled "sauce" in both English and French. However, the Arabic spelling is Salsa, which is /ʃalʃa/. Additionally, the term "pizza" in Italian has no other meaning in another language. For instance, when you are reading the menu at a restaurant and want to order pizza, you call the waiter and say, "Please, I want pizza." Many loan terms are employed in various contexts by individuals just like they would in their mother tongue.

2.2.Loanshift

Loan shifts is a change in meaning of a native morpheme in a foreign style occurs without the use of any foreign morphemes. This form of loan shift is also known as semantic expansion. There are two types of loan shifts.

A-Loan translations refer to borrowing words or phrases from another language, either word for word or root for root translation. In French, the word "skyscraper" becomes "gratte-ciel?".

b- Semantic loans refer to replacements based on shape similarities between the foreign and native patterns. For instance, in Portuguese, the word "carro" denotes a car or an automobile in English.

2.3. Loanblends

The third sort of loan blends are hybrid terms, which combine portions from several languages. This kind is commonly used in company announcements and product titles, such as "free dent" The name of the gum comes from two languages: French (dent)-(tooth) and English

(free). According to David (2004); The linguistic system is rapidly evolving due to population trends, new technologies, and global communication (p. 1329). These changes will impact both written and verbal communication.

3.Language Borrowing vs Code Switching

It is believed that borrowing and CS are two distinct phenomena that arise from the usage of many languages within a speech community. Because both CS and borrowing involve interactions between two languages and may be employed by bilingual speakers, they are difficult to distinguish from one another. On the one hand, many researchers believe that the two occurrences are quite similar to one another and that there is no discernible distinction between them. According to Spolsky (1998) , "the beginning of borrowing is the switching of words, which occurs when the new word becomes more or less integrated into the second language." (p.49) It indicates that the speaker is initiating the first stage of borrowing when he code-switches. However, other scholars see a distinction between borrowing and CS. According to Gumperz (1982), borrowing is the process of introducing lexical items from one language into the grammatical system of the borrowing language; these borrowed things are in fact regarded as belonging to the vocabulary of that language to another. However, CS is "the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems" (Gumperz, 1982,p.59)..In other words, CS denotes the continuity of two codes that operate under two distinct linguistic systems. Similarly, Gumperz (1982) claims that CS is not "a communicative deficit" but rather "a communicative resource." He claims that although CS deals with the syntactic level and incorporates sentence fragments from one language, borrowing deals with words and clauses and also requires morphological and syntactic norms from the base language. Additionally, whereas CS may not, borrowing may

happen in monolingual speech. Each of the two distinct linguistic phenomena—CS and borrowing—has its own characteristics within a speech community.

Task One: Choose the right answer

1-A **calque (loan translation)** is:

- a-Borrowing the word with its original pronunciation
- b-Translating the parts of a foreign expression literally
- c-Borrowing the grammar of another language

2-Language borrowing happens mainly when:

- a-Speakers want to simplify grammar
- b-A language has no native speakers
- c-Two languages come into contact in society

Is it true that borrowing can eventually become so common that speakers no longer feel a word is “foreign”? a- yes b- no

Is “pizza” in English usually considered a loanword from Italian? **A-Yes** **b- No**

Task Two: Read the following conversation and answer the questions

In daily conversations, speakers of a local Arabic dialect say things like:

- “ndirk rendez-vous maʕa l-dentist”
- “ʕandi meeting f’compagnie”

Many young people also prefer English technical words (software, Wi-Fi, app) instead of existing native terms.

- **Question:**
 - a) Identify the main phenomenon here (be precise: borrowing vs code-switching).
 - b) Give two reasons why such borrowings are frequent in a globalised world.

Pidgins and Creoles

Objectives

- Understanding pidgins and creoles as products of intense language contact.
- distinguishing them from other reduced or mixed codes.
- Describe their structural and functional characteristics of Pidgins and Creoles.

Pidgins and creoles were not given much attention in the past, but some linguists are now interested in studying them since it provides information regarding intriguing traits. A pidgin is a reduced version of a language, particularly when spoken by someone who is not a native speaker. Certain linguistic elements, such as articles, copula, grammatical inflections, etc., are said to be absent from pidgins and creoles (Wardhaugh, 2006). According to Hymes (1971), pidgins and creoles were marginal languages, and some even referred to them as "bad languages" due to the stigma associated with their origins. The present course provides valuable information about pidgins, creoles, as well as the reasons why these linguistic types were once viewed negatively.

1.The Definition of Pidgin

Pidgins are simplified languages derived from two or more languages in search of a method of communication (Britannica, 2014). This is particularly common in commerce, plantations, and colonization. Pidgin is defined as language with reduced grammar, word order, and so on because it is created in an accidental manner, or it is the result of incomprehensible languages, according to Bickerton (1984). Not all simplified languages are pidgin. Many people study it as a second language rather than being native speakers. According to Jeff (2008), pidgin and creole are emerging languages that are necessary for communication among individuals who don't speak a single language, such as plantation workers from various geographical

backgrounds. Pidgin is a language system that emerged among individuals who do not share a common language. It is a language of interaction in situations when a common language is not available.

According to Wardhaugh (2006) and Murphy (2012), a pidgin is just used as a contact language for communication; it has no native speakers and is not a person's first or mother tongue. It is asserted that the strength of the language when its speakers dominate other language speakers in social and economic spheres may also be a contributing factor to pidginization. The phrase "reduced variety" is occasionally used in everyday speech. Alternatively, it is the normal language with a shortened vocabulary, phonetic variant, or grammatical structure. Sawant (2011) concurs that political, social, and economic circumstances contributed to the formation of pidgins. More importantly, It is formed when individuals from various languages simplify the prevailing language for communication. Nigerian Pidgin English, sometimes known as "bad English," is a commonly learned pidginized language that lacks accuracy . To explain more; Pidgins are created by persons who do not speak the same language but share a geographical location. Long-term use of pidgins can lead to creoles. Long-term use can cause a structure to grow and become complicated. Children born in a pidgin-speaking area learn it as their first language, resulting in the formation of a creole (Polome, 1971).

2.Reasons of Pidgin

Pidgins are created due to a lack of a common language, leading to the necessity for communication. In the 19th century, African slaves were imported to North America to labor on plantations. They were from various regions of their country. They did not have a common language. Their leaders selected individuals from various regions to hinder communication and

escape. To communicate effectively, they needed to create a language, which described as a pidgin language Cassidy (1971).

A pidgin can also develop as a result of colonization. Because of their influence over colonies, the majority of pidgins were derived from French, Spanish, Portuguese, English, and Dutch. It is clear that the majority of a pidgin's vocabulary must always come from a dominant and superior language (Versteegh, 2008). Superstrate languages are those that are dominating. English was the superior language in the Papua New Guinea Creole. Substrate languages, on the other hand, are all the other minority languages that go into making Pidgin. Pidgins and creoles are mainly derived from superstrate languages, which are typically the languages of the colonial population (Arends et al., 1995).

3.Creoles Definition

Creoles occur when a pidgin becomes the first language of a new generation born in a pidgin-speaking environment. Some pidgins, such as Nigerian Pidgin English and West African Pidgin, can also be considered creoles. According to Wardhaugh (2006), pidgin can become a creole when learned as a mother tongue. (p. 73)

Children born in multilingual environments create creoles. It's noteworthy to note that creoles are more similar to one another than to any other languages. According to Wardhaugh (2006), pidginization is second language acquisition with restricted input, while creolization is first language learning with limited input as well(p.94).

Pidginization typically comprises linguistic simplification, tolerance of phonological diversity, and reduced complexity (Wardhaugh; 2006,p.61),. The pidgin serves several roles and borrows heavily from local mother languages. Creolization differs from pidgins in that it

entails expanding morphology and syntax, regularizing phonology, increasing the number of language functions, and developing a stable vocabulary system. Differentiating between pidgin, enlarged pidgin, and creole varieties can be challenging at times. Tok Pisin may be referred to as a creole or pidgin.

As a result, many people agree that Haitian is a creole. It is the primary language of nearly all Haitians. This creole originated from normal French and developed through pidginization. The vocabulary is French, but the pronunciation and syntax are distinct from conventional French. The grammatical structure differs from French and resembles Creole Portuguese, Creole Spanish, and Creole English. Creolists do not consider it a French dialect (Wardhaugh, 2006,p.63).

4.Similarities between Pidgins and Creoles

Pidgins and creoles resemble conventional languages, but have reduced morphology and phonology. Although pidgins originated from diverse languages, they contain many similarities (Wardhaugh, 2006,p.61).pidgins and creoles have well-organized language systems. Even if a vocabulary is acquired from a native language, it must still be learned rather than simply simplified for use. Simplifying vocabulary and grammar is insufficient for speaking Tok Pisin.

Creole and pidgin languages have fewer and simpler sound combinations than mainstream languages. Pidgins do not have morphophonemic variation, however creolization may result in this variety. Creolization often results in the creation of embedded or relative sentences (Wardhaugh 2006,p. 67). According to Bloomfield (1994), there is no evidence for the "foreigner-talk" or "baby-talk" theories regarding pidgins and creoles. Instead, Europeans intentionally reduced their languages to connect with others.

5.Differences between Pidgins and Creoles

According to Wardhaugh (2006), pidgins swiftly evolve into a language, but are known as creoles due to their roots. Creoles and pidgins evolve at different rates. Creoles and pidgins vary in that pidginization occurs fast, whereas creolization takes around two generations. Creoles are typically connected to a dominant language, resulting in a creole continuum. When an English Creole interacts with the standard language, it can evolve into several variants. A continuum is when two linguistic variations are the same.

6. Examples of Pidgins and Creoles

6.1. Examples of Pidgins

Tok Pisin (early stage) – An English based pidgin initially used between English speaking and native groups in Papua New Guinea for trade and work purposes.

Chinook Jargon – A historical pidgin between the Native Americans and European traders in the Pacific Northwest region of North America.

West African Pidgin English (early forms) – used on the West African coast between English traders and natives.

Beach-la-Mar (Bislama, early stage) – An English-based pidgin which has been adopted in some parts of the South Pacific among speakers of different native tongues and Europeans.

6.2. Examples of creoles

Haitian Creole – this is a French-lexifier creole that is spoken in Haiti; it is a product of communication between enslaved Africans and French colonists and has become one of the official languages in Haiti.

(Tok Pisin today) – In some part of Papua New Guinea, it has developed its native speakers, a creole and no more a mere Pidgin.

Hawaiian Creole English (Hawaii “Pidgin”) – an English-based creole spoken in Hawaii, serving as a local identity marker and used first language by many.

Sranan Tongo – English-based creole spoken in Suriname, created on plantations among African, European, and Indigenous peoples.

Nigerian Pidgin (creolized varieties) – in some urban centers, children learn it as their first language, thus making it a creole. Simple way to contrast in class And you might summarise for students like this:

The Pidgin example of Tok Pisin was rudimentary and used only for trade purposes, and its speakers did not become natives. A creole like Haitian Creole or Hawaiian Creole English is also spoken natively by the entire community and in all domains of life.

Task: Select the right choice

1--A creole is a pidgin that has become the first language of a community's children and has expanded in structure and vocabulary. A-True B- False

2--A pidgin is normally used in a wide range of domains, including home, school, literature, and the media.

A-True

B-False

3-Which is the best example of a pidgin rather than a creole?

A-Haitian Creole used as a home language by many Haitians.

B-Jamaican Creole used in music, storytelling, and everyday conversation by native speakers.

C-A simplified English-based contact variety used among tourists and vendors at a marketplace where no one speaks it as a first language.

4-Which of the following best describes a creole language?

A--A dialect of a prestige European language spoken without any local influence.

B-A fully developed natural language with native speakers that emerged from a pidgin.

C- highly simplified system used only for trade and basic communication.

5-Which statement best distinguishes a pidgin from a creole?

A-A pidgin has no native speakers initially, while a creole develops when children acquire a pidgin as their first language.

B-A pidgin is a fully developed native language, while a creole is a simplified trade language.

C-A pidgin is always based on African languages, while a creole is always based on European languages.

Globalisation

Objectives

- Understanding the concept of globalisation from different perspectives and disciplines.
- Discussing the factors of globalisation of English and defining the features of global English.

Globalisation has had profound impact and it is one of the widely discussed issues in the field of sociolinguistics. You will see in this lecture what is meant by globalisation, its causes, and consequences. Emphasis will be particularly placed on the sociolinguistic outcomes, especially the emergence of English as a global language and how it is influencing other languages in the world.

1. Definition of Globalisation

Since globalization is linked to many different fields and disciplines, it may be interpreted in a variety of ways. However, they all concur that globalization entails processes that cut beyond national borders and that countries are growing increasingly intertwined in all spheres, including social, political, cultural, and economic. However, when we look at globalization from this perspective, we are reminded of comparable processes that have existed since antiquity with the Greek, Phoenician, Babylonian, Roman, and Muslim civilizations that ruled over vast regions for extended periods of time due to their shared traits. Because international connections have a lengthy history dating back to the early stages of human history, globalization, whatever it may be, is not new. The literature on globalization just became popular in the 1990s. The fast growth of transportation and communication has accelerated and eased the interchange of products and information, making interconnection across nations unique.

Globalization, then, is the process by which commerce and cultural interchange have greatly grown, making the globe more linked. As a result,

- Growing worldwide commerce,
- Multinational corporations;
- Increased reliance on the world economy;
- International recognition of businesses like McDonald's, Starbucks, and others;
- Quick information dissemination;
- International interconnectedness, etc.

For example, the conflict between Russia and Ukraine has had an impact on the entire world, whether favorably or badly. Furthermore, information spreads like fire in ashes; details about the battle are communicated to the whole world at the same time as they occur, thanks to modern information and communication technology. As a result of the fighting, prices for items such as gas, petroleum, and gold fluctuate. One notable example is the spread of Covid 19, often known as Corona virus, and its several forms since late 2019. It has impacted every aspect of the planet and every field without exception; it has even altered how we live, learn, work, connect with others, and more. The economy, trade, business, culture, politics, tourism, and other areas have all been impacted. Because of this, there has been a significant amount of globalization in this era, and no other civilization has ever attained this level of interdependence and connectivity. Since this is a sociolinguistic course, it goes without saying that we will discuss the sociolinguistic effects of globalization, with a primary emphasis on the rise of English as the universal language and its effects on other languages.

2. English as a Global Language

English is sometimes referred to be a global language in the literature since it is the dominant world language utilized in practically every country. It is no longer the property of its native speakers, since English as a second language speakers outweigh native users. It is now widely utilized in international situations, including business, trade, politics, and relations. Furthermore, it is extensively utilized as the Internet's common language and dominates the domains of technology and worldwide communication in general. It is also the language of tourism, urbanization, scientific research, education, literature, new entertainment genres such as video games, travel, and media, among others. As a result, it serves as a language doorway to economic success as its users have access to desirable employment and business options. It's interesting to note that its worldwide reach stems not only from its geographic dispersion but also from its dominance in a variety of domains, settings, forms, functions, discourses, and media (spoken and written).

Thus, the expansion of English into new regions, areas, and functions aided its evolution and variety by being adapted to fit new contexts of usage. This resulted in new terminology, different methods of speaking and writing, and new grammatical forms. English has been influenced by different languages and cultures, resulting in adaptations to satisfy communication demands. As a result, numerous diverse variations of English arose (mostly regional dialects and registers), some of which are unintelligible. In this way, the evolution of English sparked discussions among linguists on whether the phrase "global language" refers to these emerging variants, sometimes referred to as "World Englishes," or to a standard form of the language spoken globally.

3. World Englishes

Kashru (1985) originally used the term "World Englishes" to describe the many dialects of English spoken in various geographical areas. He divided the global expansion of English into three groups, which he named the Inner, Outer, and Expanding Circles.

- The Inner Circle : includes The United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, New Zealand, Australia, and other nations where English is the primary language.
- The Outer Circle: comprises the former British colonies, such as India, Ghana, Singapore, Nigeria, Namibia, and others, where English is established as an official language and regarded as a second language.
- The Expanding Circle: comprises nations like China, Japan, Algeria, Egypt, and others where English is prioritized for foreign language instruction despite having no official status.

4. Factors of the Global Spread of English

One may question why English has expanded over the world more than other languages like Chinese, Spanish, French, or Arabic. One of the causes is historical legacies; as a result of British colonial expansion, English has spread from its birthplace to several nations worldwide. English was preserved after these colonies gained their independence because it is a lingua franca, a language used for intercommunication between groups whose mother tongues are different (particularly in African nations where English is used to enable communication among hundreds of languages).

The growth of the US as a dominant power in the twentieth century coincided with the expansion of the language in many economic, technological, and cultural spheres. David Crystal argues that the quantity of individuals speaking a language has no impact on its

globalization. It has far more to do with who the speakers are. According to him, a language gains worldwide status based on its people's political and military might. He demonstrates that the international language's supremacy is not exclusively due to military power. Establishing a language requires a strong military, but maintaining and expanding it requires economic strength.

It is important for university English students to comprehend why they are learning English from a sociolinguistic standpoint. English has managed to transcend not just geographical boundaries, but also to establish itself in a variety of domains such as the economics, international relations, commerce, education, entertainment, tourism, and the Internet. Globalization has led to English being the dominant language in several fields, displacing competing languages in both international and local situations. As a result, many believe it is a "killer" language and a new sort of cultural/linguistic imperialism. English, being a worldwide language, has both helped to and caused globalization. Since becoming the global lingua franca, it has promoted interconnection across all areas. People do not need to learn many languages for economic and business interactions, tourism, research, and communication. Instead, they should have a basic grasp of English.

Task: Choose the right answer

1. Globalisation

a- The process of increasing worldwide connections in economy, communication, travel, and culture, often supported by technology.

b- When a community gradually stops using its traditional language and adopts another, often more powerful, language instead.

c-Decisions and regulations made by governments or institutions about which languages are used in education, media, and official domains

2.World Englishes

a-The spread and use of English across many countries and domains (business, education, media, tourism) as a major international language.

b-The many different national and regional varieties of English that have developed around the world (e.g. Indian English, Nigerian English)

c-The process of increasing worldwide connections in economy, communication, travel, and culture, often supported by technology

3-English as a Global language

a-A situation in which a language is no longer being transmitted to children and risks disappearing.

b-The sense of belonging and self-definition people have that is connected to shared language, traditions, and cultural practices

c-The spread and use of English across many countries and domains (business, education, media, tourism) as a major international language.

Task2: Say whether the following statements are true or false

-Globalisation has no effect on which languages people choose to learn or use.

-Globalisation has made it easier for people from different countries to communicate with each other.

Language Planning

Objectives

- Understand what is language planning.
- Distinguish between the different types of language planning.

Language has an important part in people's lives. Language has a crucial role in representing identities, social values, and cultures as well as being a primary mode of communication. It is also concerned with history, civilization, education, economics, and politics. That is, it is embedded in the social systems in which it functions. Governments prioritize language in nation-building efforts. Indeed, many countries' constitutions place a high value on language, and the function it plays in society is frequently expressed plainly. The lecture explains the concept of language planning. Language planning will be discussed in terms of status, corpus, and acquisition. Important features of language planning and the significance of language planning and multilingualism will be also expounded .

1. Language Planning Definition

Language planning is a field that studies language use in society. This is part of applied linguistics, which analyzes language in use rather than abstracting it from extra-linguistic aspects, as opposed to twentieth-century linguistics. Language planning is frequently seen through a political lens, as political decisions shape language functions in society. However, language form and use are equally important considerations. Language planning is multidisciplinary, combining linguistics, political science, and anthropology. As a result of the many perspectives taken, definitions vary significantly. Cooper (1989,p. 45), for example,

states that "language planning refers to deliberate efforts to influence the behavior of others with respect to acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of their language codes." Similarly, it is assumed to be "a future-oriented intervention in language which aims to influence language and language use" (Daoust, 1997, p. 438). In other words, implementing language plans into practice aims to achieve certain future changes in terms of language status, structures, acquisition, and functions. In other words, it is a conscious effort to modify language usage in certain situations. As a result, the discipline has been divided into four main categories

2. Types of Language Planning

It's crucial to understand the language and language usage features involved in various language planning processes. This study examines three forms of planning: status planning, corpus planning, and acquisition planning.

2.1. Status Planning

Kloss's (1969) status/corpus dichotomy sheds light on language planning objectives. The former focuses on establishing standards and norms for language usage and social roles (Spolsky, nd.). According to Kloss (1969), government activity tries to affect the social standing of certain linguistic variants, either decreasing or increasing them. Bianco suggests that status planning aims to establish the official status of languages and create rules and regulations governing their usage in public administration. Status planning might involve officializing a language or prohibiting its usage in schools (Spolsky, nd.).

Status language planning has been observed in Algeria throughout colonization (1830-1962) and following independence. After independence, the Algerian leadership intended to replace French with Arabic, notwithstanding the French prohibition on Arabic education and

administration. Tamazight was proclaimed a national language alongside Arabic in 2002 and then recognized as a second official language in 2016, following cultural campaigns by Amazigh Algerians seeking linguistic rights.

2.2. Corpus Planning

Corpus planning, on the other hand, is concerned with making direct changes to language structures by fixing or altering them. This procedure begins after the language's standing in the country is established for usage in a specific context. Language specialists will be in charge of generating dictionaries, grammar books, textbooks, and other linguistic materials, rather than socio-political factors. In other words, corpus planning refers to any effort that seeks to transform the language itself (Kloss 1969). Corpus planning includes removing Arabic words from Turkish, using a different writing script to represent Turkish, removing English words from French, modernizing Arabic after independence, and reviving classical Hebrew after Israel's settlement.

2.3. Acquisition Planning

It is commonly referred to as language-in-education planning. This is primarily concerned with circumstances in which new language forms gain new significance; for example, some persons find themselves in a situation in which they must learn an official language that is not their native tongue. Minorities worldwide must learn both the majority's language and their indigenous language, which is often not taught in schools due to its lack of official status. Berbers in North Africa, Maori in New Zealand, Basques on the borders of Spain and France are all examples of this. Another noteworthy example of language-in-education planning is government policies on foreign language education. Another noteworthy example of language-in-education planning is government policies on foreign language education. English has lately

been a top focus for foreign language instruction in many nations. at Algeria, for example, it is now overtaking French at universities.

3. Language Ideologies and Orientations

The socio-cultural milieu influences language planning decisions and functions in society. Language ideologies influence context-dependent judgments, rather than universal ones. These linguistic methods are formed by political, economic, and moral concerns, as well as cultural and social contexts. Language planning is driven by certain reasons.

Language ideologies are characterized as "morally and politically loaded representations of the nature, structure, and use of languages in a social world" (Irvin, 1989, cited in Woolard, 2020: 1). As a result, language planning is more than just a linguistic activity; it involves a variety of elements. Cooper (1989) argues that language planning is a political, administrative, and linguistic activity aimed at addressing societal language issues.

The government's fundamental attitudes regarding language and its function in society are thus revealed by the character of language planning initiatives in each given setting (Ruiz, 1984: 15). In reality, perceptions of languages vary depending on the situation. They can be seen as a resource, a problem, or a right, and the type of language planning that is employed relies on these perspectives (ibid). Thus, for example, the idea that multilingualism is a problem and a danger to unity leads to assimilationist language planning. This has been observed in the language planning processes used by post-independence Arabic-speaking nations and Europe in the 20th century. Another example of this type of language planning is Australia, which encourages multilingualism, which is seen as a resource rather than a danger. This is an example of a distinct type of language planning. Lastly, minorities like the Berber populations in North Africa and the Galicians and Basques in Spain frequently demand their linguistic rights as a

kind of cultural and linguistic protest against marginalization in administrations that embrace assimilationist language planning.

4. Language Planning in Education

Education is a crucial component of language planning because, among other things, it is the primary tool used to achieve the intended goals, especially as it is mandated and governed by the state. Additionally, according to Ferguson (2006: 33–34), "schools are one of the key agencies of socialization; school pupils are a captive audience, and the curriculum affords the state unequal opportunities to shape the attitudes and behaviors of the next generation." As previously said, specific orientations dictate the style of language planning. Reforms in education are similar to these approaches in this regard. For example, if the approach is assimilationist, governments will only utilize one language in schools. The increasing influence of globalization has led to a widespread promotion of multilingualism in education.

Education may drive significant social, cultural, political, economic, and linguistic changes. Education, which begins at an early age, has far-reaching repercussions. 'Acquisition planning' can lead to increased usage of specific languages, language displacement, the importance of mother tongues in education, and the inclusion of foreign languages as curricular topics.

Language is more than just a medium of communication; it affects many facets of human existence, as evidenced by language planning and policies. Language planning encompasses social, cultural, economic, and political aspects with a focus on future change.

Task One: Say whether the following statements are true or false

1-Status planning focuses on the functions and official roles assigned to languages (e.g. national, official, minority).

2-Language planning is always neutral and is never connected to issues of power, identity, or ideology.

3-Language planning and language policy are closely related, because planning decisions are usually implemented through official policies.

4-Corpus planning deals mainly with decisions about which languages are used in which domains, such as education or government

Task Two: Read the following passage and answer the question

In recent constitutional reforms, **Amazigh** has been recognised as a national and official language. There are efforts to develop a standard form, create teaching materials, and introduce Amazigh in some schools and media. Implementation is gradual and uneven across regions, and some communities still feel their variety is not fully represented.

- **Question:**
 - a) Classify the main decisions here as **status planning** and/or **corpus planning**, with one example of each.

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