
SOCIOLINGUISTICS

(LANGUAGE – SOCIETY - CULTURE)

Sociolinguistics is the study of language in relation to social factors.

Sociolinguistics is the study of the different ways in which different groups of people use language.

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***Chapter 1. Introduction: Language-Society-Culture-
Thought***

***Chapter 2. Language and Society: Varieties of
Language***

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Silence; Linguistic Routines***

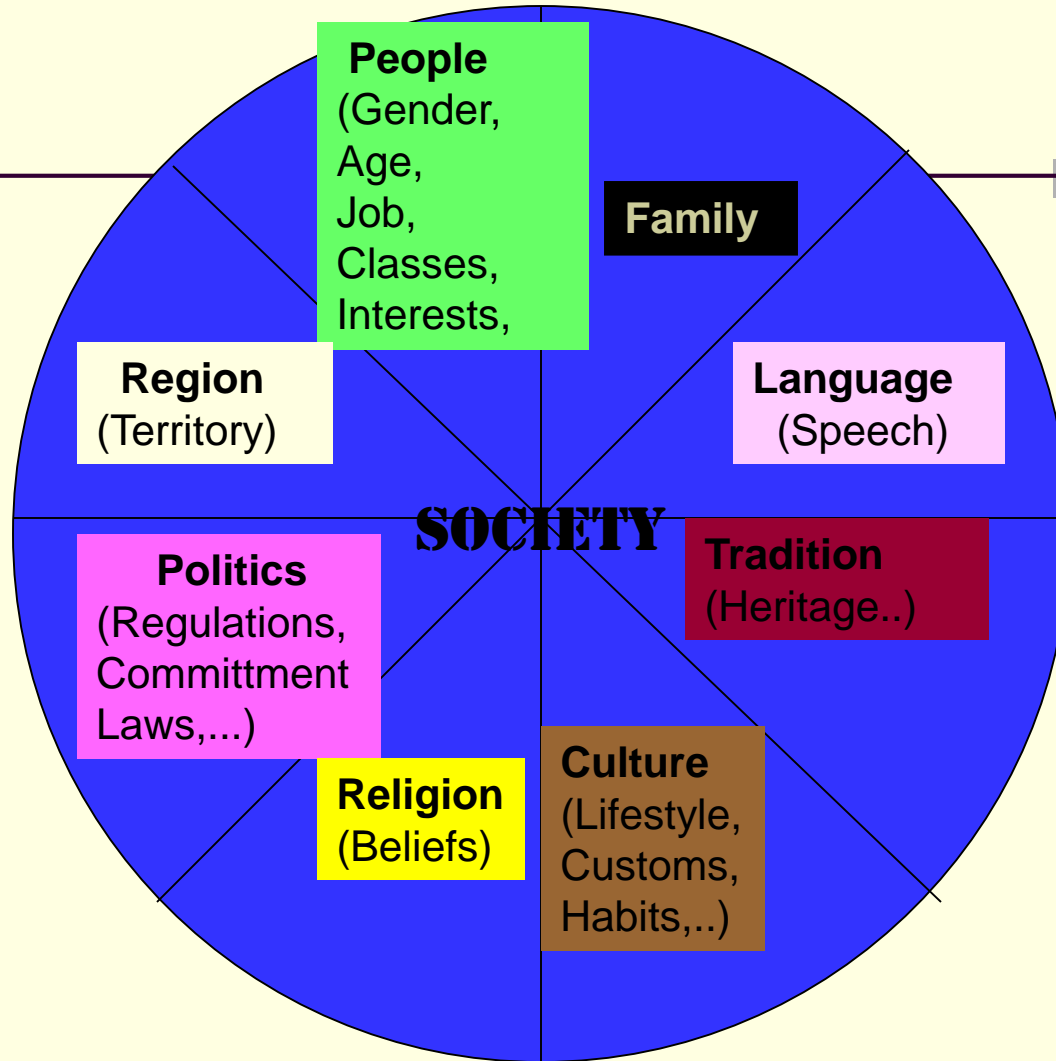
Chapter 5. Language Change

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

- 1. How is SOCIETY formed?**
- 2. What aspects are there in CULTURE?**
- 3. What is LANGUAGE?**
- 4. How is LANGUAGE structured?**
- 5. How are LANGUAGE and SOCIETY related?**
- 6. How are LANGUAGE and CULTURE related?**
- 7. How are LANGUAGE and THOUGHT related?**

1.How is SOCIETY formed?

- Society is a community of **people** belonging to a certain gender, age, job, interest, behavior, emotional status, family (blood and law relations), social class...
- residing at a certain **region** or a **territory**,
- obeying a **politics** (a system of rules, regulations),
- following a **religion** (a common belief),
- sharing a majority/mainstream **culture** (values, habits, traditions, customs,...) and
- communicating with each other by a **language** and its varieties.



2. What aspects are there in CULTURE?

CULTURE?: *the customs and beliefs, art, way of life and social organization of a particular country or group.*

- **Material culture:** *Arts, Clothing, Eating, Drinking...*
- **Mental culture:** *World view, Values, Thought*
- **Behavior culture:** *Conduct, Habits, Customs, Traditions,...*
- **Language and Language behavior**

Cf: CIVILIZATION?: *a society, its culture and its way of life during a particular period of time or in a particular part of the world.*

=> the civilizations of ancient Greece and Rome.

=> Western civilization.

Material - Food, Clothes
Behavior
Lifestyles
Language

Attitudes
Values
Traditions
Beliefs
Perceptions
Thought
Human view
World view

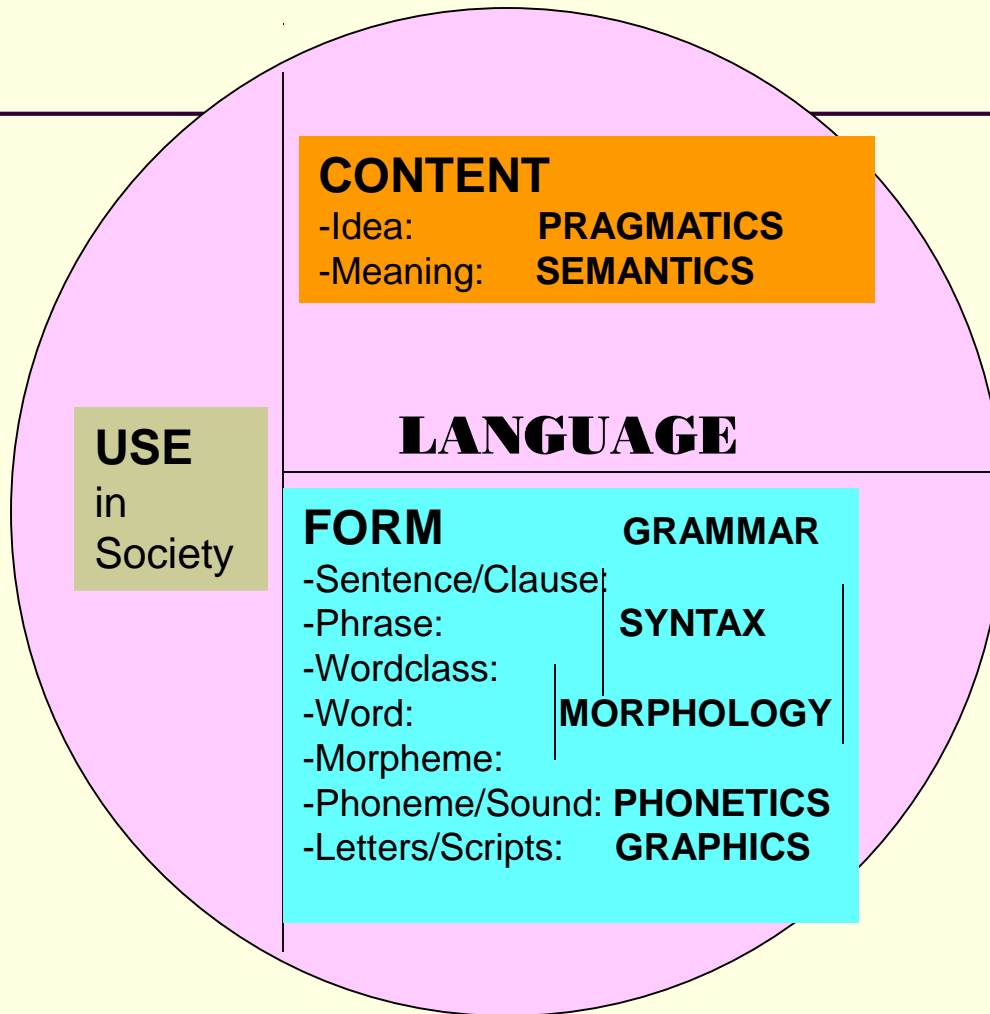
3. What is LANGUAGE?/ How is it structured?

4. What are LANGUAGE functions?

- *Language (and its varieties) is a system of vocal and written signals/symbols (sounds, morphemes, words, phrases, clauses, sentences, texts/discourses): **FORM***
- *conveying senses/meanings and ideas: **CONTENT***
- *accepted and used by a **SOCIETY***
- *sharing a mainstream **CULTURE***

- *to perform such **FUNCTIONS** as*
 - ***THINKING (SELF-EXPRESSION) (COGNITIVE function);***
 - ***COMMUNICATING – TRANSACTIONAL function;***
 - ***COMMUNICATING –INTERPERSONAL function;***
 - ***TEXTUAL function (linking ideas in a discourse).***

transactional: giao dịch; interpersonal: giữa cá nhân với cá nhân.



5.How are LANGUAGE and SOCIETY related?

5.1. The influence of society on language

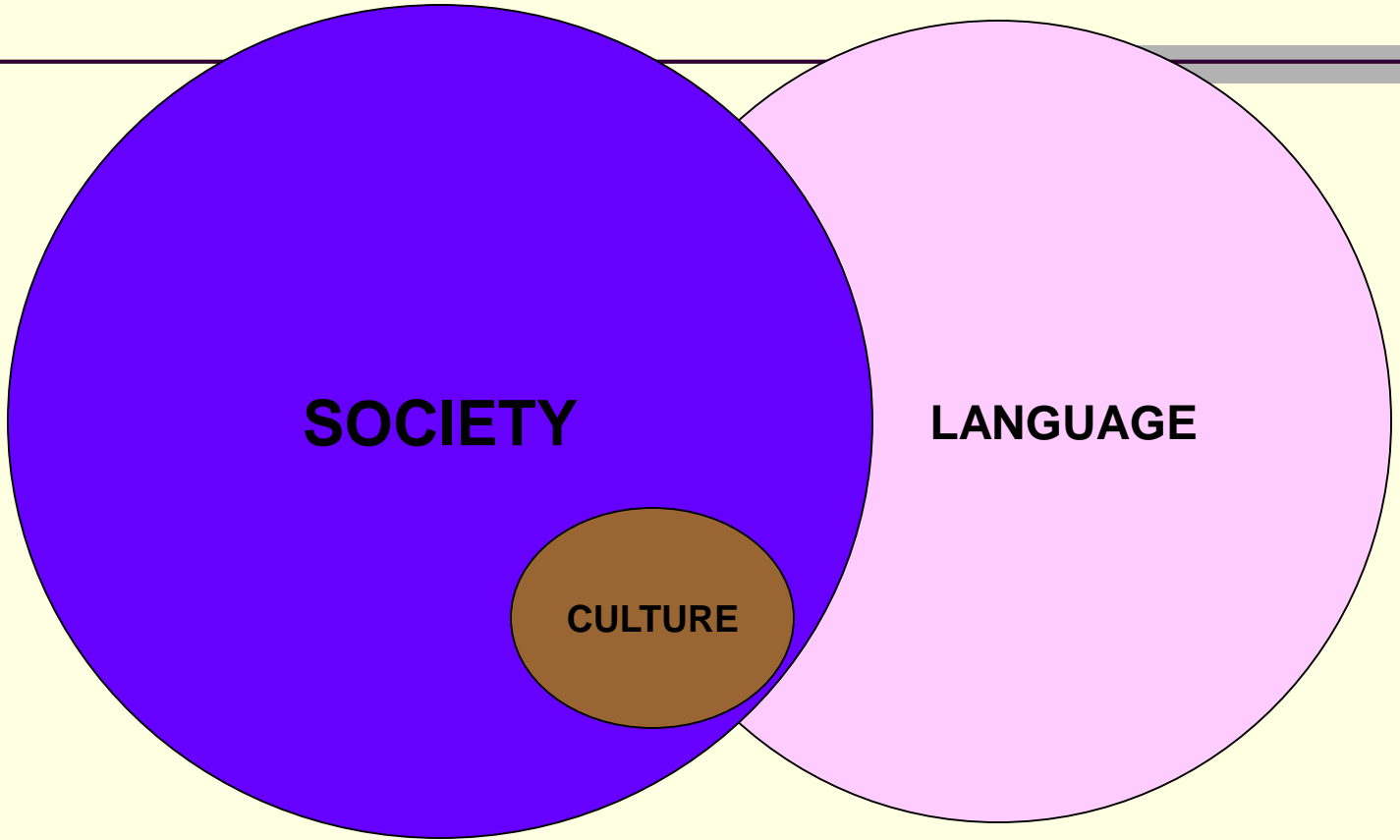
- 1.Language exists and develops when society exists and develops.
- 2.Language is produced by society and serves social needs.
- 3.Language change reflects social change.
- 4.Social structure (social components: people, gender, age, jobs, region, politics, religion, culture,...) dominates/influences language structure (language components: sounds, letters, words, phrases, sentences, texts/discourses).
- 5.The physical environment in which a society lives is reflected in its language: rice, food, fruits,...
- 6.The social environment is reflected in language through language varieties (social, regional, ethnic, gender, kinship terms factors...)

5.2. The influence of language on society

- 1.Linguistic/Language structure and behavior may either influence or determine social structure
- 2.Society develops due to language education and literacy

5.3. The differences between language and society

- 1.Society has its rules of development (evolution)
- 2.Language has its own rules of development (language change)



SOCIETY

LANGUAGE

CULTURE

6. How are LANGUAGE and CULTURE related?

6.1. The relation between language and culture

- 1. Language is part of culture.
- 2. Language reflects culture.
- 3. Culture can be recovered through language (written or spoken form).
- 4. Cultural rules dominate language use.
- 5. Many words, phrases, sentences are culture-bound.
(ràng buộc về mặt văn hóa).

6.2. Differences between language and culture

- 1. Culture is sometimes represented not by language, but by images.
- 2. There are meaning differences in language which have nothing to do with other aspects of culture.

7. How are LANGUAGE and THOUGHT related?

7.1. The relation between language and thought

- 1. Language is the instrument of (sharpening) the thought.
- 2. Much of our thinking is facilitated and improved by language.
- 3. Linguistic items (words, phrases) are concepts.
- 4. Word meanings are concepts. Sentence meanings are propositions.

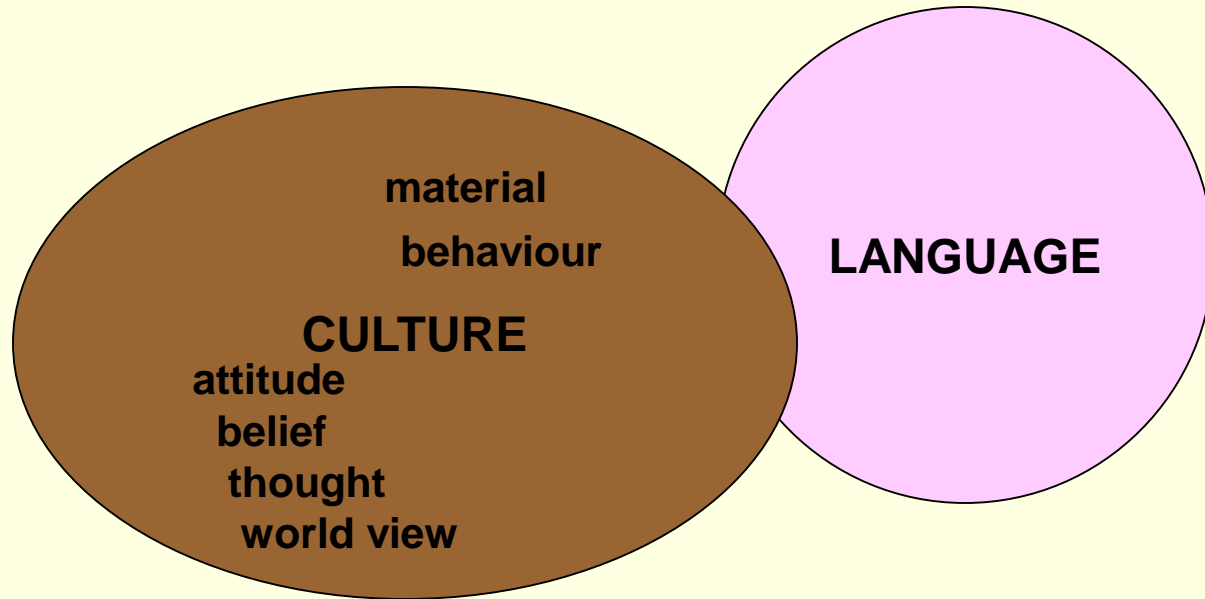
7.2. The influence of thought on language

- 1. Thought is the content of language.
- 2. No thought brings nothing to communication.
- 3. Ideas widen language choice...

7.3. Differences between language and thought

- 1. Units of language are phonemes, morphemes, words, phrases, sentences.
- 2. Units of thought are concepts, propositions

facilitate: thuận lợi/tiện; dễ dàng



CHAPTER 2: LANGUAGE AND SOCIETY

VARIETIES OF LANGUAGE - DIALECTS

2.1. What are VARIETIES OF THE SAME LANGUAGE?

What is DIALECT?

2.1. 1: The concept of dialect

- Language is not homogeneous. What everyone speaks or writes everyday is not language but **a certain variety of language** recognized and understood by his/her speech community.
- A dialect as a variety of language is **a set of linguistic items with similar social distribution** or any **distinguishable form of speech** used by **a speaker or group of speakers**.

2.1. 2: Characteristics of dialect

- 1. sharing the common linguistic and cultural characteristics of the same language
- 2. mutually intelligible by regional speech communities, social groups; (dễ hiểu/nhận thức)
- 3. different forms/ varieties of the same language;
- 4. systematic differences in pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, ways of expression.

homogeneous: đồng nhất/đều; thuần nhất.

2.2. DIALECT AND STANDARD LANGUAGE

2.2.1. A dialect becomes a standard language when it is

- used and understood by the whole speech community;
- used for education, mass media (newspapers...);
- used for diplomacy, business, politics;
- learned by foreigners;
- accompanied by a written form.

2.2.2. A national language is different from dialects in the following criteria:

- standardization;
- vitality; (sức sống)
- historicity;
- autonomy; (tự trị)
- reduction; (thu gọn, giản lược)
- mixture;
- de facto norms. (chuẩn mực tồn tại như một thực tế ko phụ thuộc pháp lý)

2.3. GLOBAL/INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE

- 1.The status of a global language
- 1.1.A great number of users;
- 1.2.International relations;
- 1.3.The media: the press, advertising, broadcasting, motion pictures, popular music,...
- 1.4.International travel;
- 1.5.International safety: aircraft control (Airspeak), Seaspeak, Emergencyspeak, ...
- 1.6.Education;
- 1.7.Communications: telecoms, postalcoms, electronic networks, internet, ...

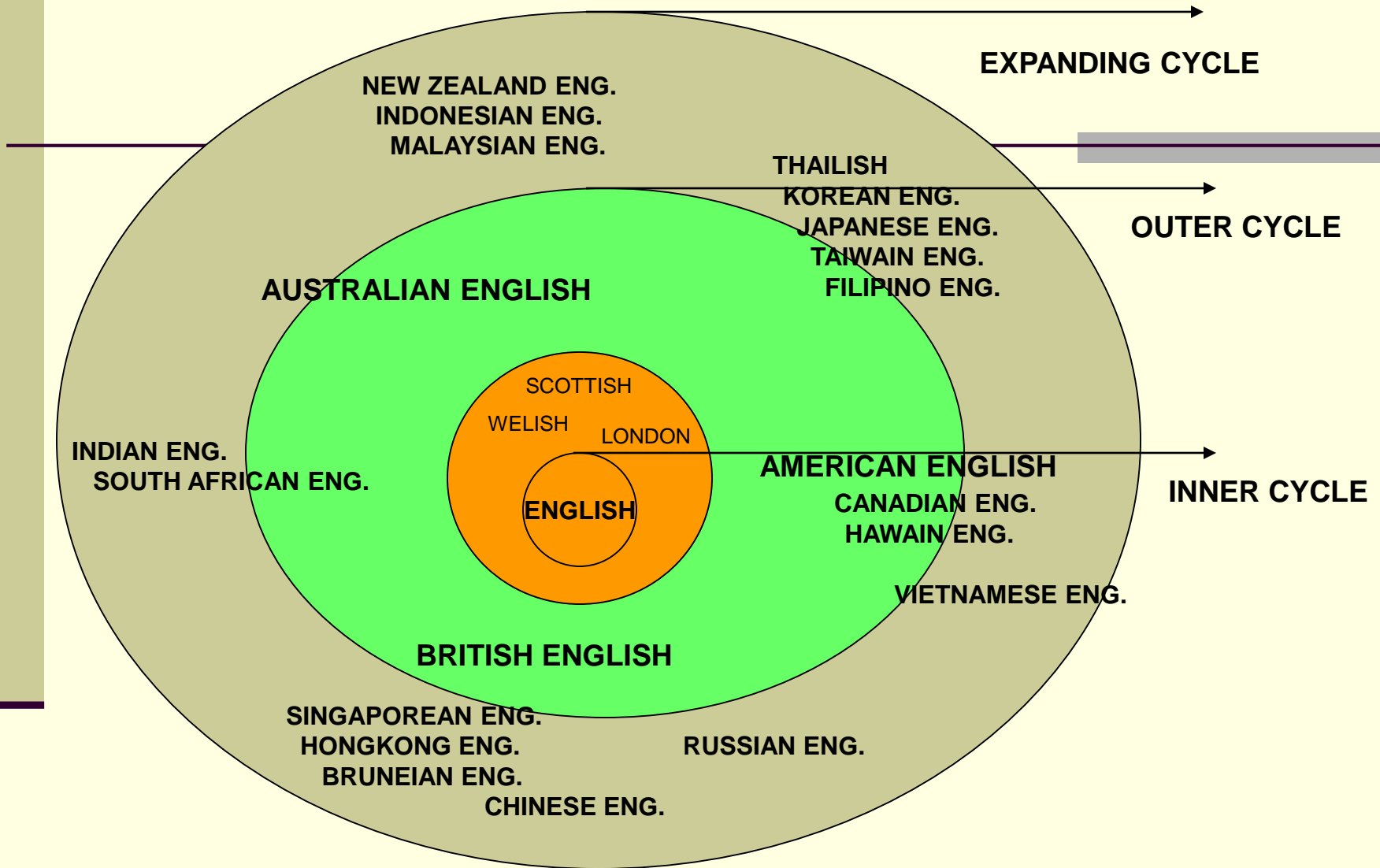
2.3. GLOBAL/INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE

■ 1.8.ENGLISH:

- the language of the leading colonial nation (Britain)
- the language of the leader of the industrial revolution (Britain)
- the language of the leading economic power (the USA)
- the language of international political, academic, and community meetings
- the language of Bill Gates (Microsoft)

■ 2.The dangers of a global language

- 2.1.linguistic power (linguistic imperialism)
- 2.2.linguistic complacency (no one wants to learn other languages)(tính tự mãn/thỏa mãn)
- 2.3.linguistic death



2.4. TYPES OF VARIETIES/DIALECTS:

1. **Idiolects** (Individual Dialects) reflect the **individuals'** characteristics.
2. **Regional** or **territorial** dialects belong to **typical regions**.
3. **Sociolects /Styles** belong to **typical social groups**.

LANGUAGE AND SOCIETY: IDIOLECTS

(PRACTICE)

Interview one of your classmates on the following questions:

- a. What is your favorite topics in everyday conversations?*
- b. What is your favorite non-verbal means frequently used in conversations?*
- c. What are your favorite types of words, phrases?*
- d. What are your favorite types of sentence, utterance frequently used in conversations?*

2.5.INDIVIDUAL DIALECTS (IDIOLECTS)

■ Whose Idiolect ? A

Idea Presentation:

- collect information;
- talk about information;
- change another topic or stop if friends have no interest in;
- speak loudly if they have interest in;

Topics:

-boyfriend; skin-care; eating;

Structure:

-*"What?"*

-*"It's up to you."*

-*"What do you cook today?"*

-*"Distance is really a big problem for lovers."*

Vocabulary:

- simple words: *"qúa", "qué", "quó"*
- idioms: *"There's no free lunch."*
- phrase: *"Just this?"*
- formulas: *Eating and Sleeping.*

Prosody:

- when **happy**: high intonation; loud voice; rapid rhythm; friendly tone; no pauses; clear enunciation; smile; patting one's back.
- when **sad**: low intonation; soft voice; slow rhythm; icy-cold tone; many pauses; vague enunciation; closed eyes

2.5.INDIVIDUAL DIALECTS (IDIOLECTS)

■ Whose Idiolect? B

Idea Presentation:

- use dialects to classmates;
- talkative;
- talk about funny things without caring their interest in

Topics:

- food; favorite places

Structure:

- end the conversation by saying **"It's very funny"**

Vocabulary:

Prosody:

- loud voice

■ Whose Idiolect? C

Idea Presentation:

- hit someone slightly, gently if disagree
- joking;
- someone disturbs, angry;

Topics:

- childhood; little animals;

Structure:

- saying with joke **"Muốn chết a!"** when someone disturbs

Vocabulary:

Prosody:

LANGUAGE AND SOCIETY: REGIONAL DIALECTS (PRACTICE)

Ask the 5 classmates coming from the same region to

a. write down or speak out 10 words naming local products, trees, fishes, food...

b. find out 10 words denoting

- family relatives - human body parts - family cooking tools

- domestic animals - labor tools

2.6.REGIONAL DIALECTS

REGIONAL DIALECT N

*PRONUNCIATION *SPELLING

-6 tones: Thái Bình, Hà Nội, QuảngNinh,
Hưng Yên, Hải Phòng: 0, ‘, ` , . , ? , ~

Ex: cung, cúng, cùng, cụng, cụng, cũng

-20 consonants:

Ex : s = x : sung sướng = xung xướng;

r = d = gi: ra giêng = da diêng

tr = ch : trăn trở = chẵn chở

l = n : lẫn lộn = nẫ nộn

*VOCABULARY

-Bố/Thầy - Mẹ/U; -Thầy-Em; -chú=cậu;

-Ôm = Đau; -một chút; chén chè; cấp
trên; đầu; quả na; quả dứa; trái roi; cái ô

REGIONAL DIALECT C

*PRONUNCIATION *SPELLING

-5 tones:

+Thanh Hoá/Bình Trị Thiên:

Ex : ? = ~ : cụng = cũng

+Nghệ Tĩnh: ~ = . : cũng = cụng

-23 consonants:

Ex : s # x : sung sướng = xung xướng;

r # d = gi: ra giêng = da diêng

tr # ch : trăn trở = chẵn chở

*VOCABULARY

-Cha-Mẹ; Thầy-con; chú-cậu; ôm # đau;
một xí; ly trà; cấp coi; trốt; trái măngcâu;
trái thơm; trái đào; cái dù;

2.6.REGIONAL DIALECTS

REGIONAL DIALECT: S

*PRONUNCIATION *SPELLING

-5 tones: Quảng Nam→Sài Gòn

Ex: ~ = . : cững = cụng

-23 consonants:

+ s, t, tr, w:

- v = d: vợ = dợ; vớ vẩn = dớ dẩn;

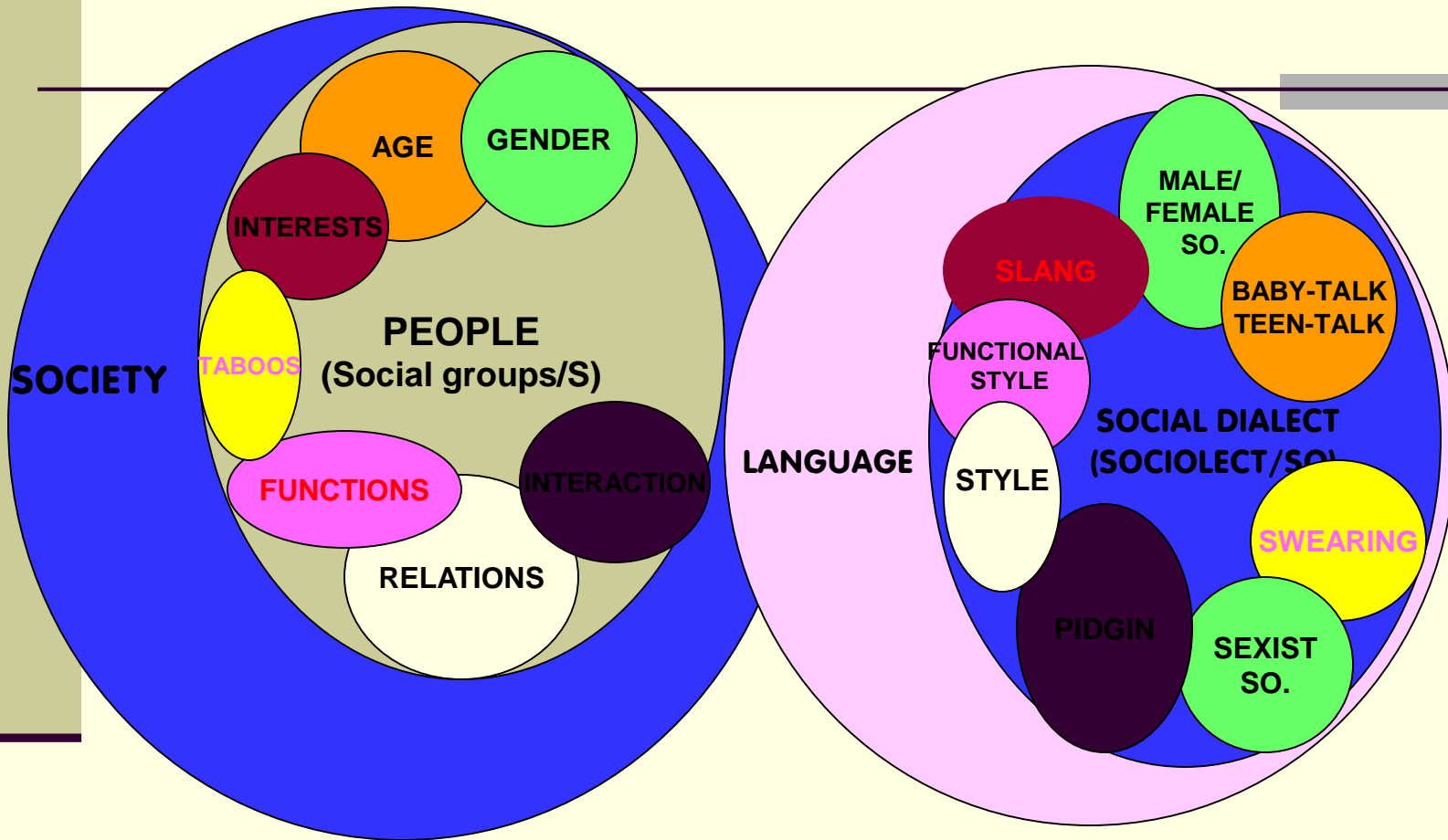
- z = j:

- a = ă

- In = inh; it = ich; un = ung; ut = úc

*VOCABULARY

-Ba-Má; Thây-em; chú-cậu; ốm # đau;
một xí; tách trà; cấp côi; trớt; trái măng cầu;
trái thơm; trái mận; cái dù;



2.7. SOCIAL DIALECTS/SOCIOLECTS

2.7.1.LANGUAGE & GENDER

2.7.1.1.Male & Female Sociolect

- 1.Sex differences can be considered the result of different social attitudes towards the *behavior* of men and women, and of the *attitudes* men and women themselves consequently have to language as a social symbol.
- 2.Differences can be due to *innate differences, personality, cultural elaboration, division of labour by sex, male dominate, and differing value systems.*
- 3.English, Vietnamese, Chinese Languages provide many instances of males and females *different styles of speech via frequency* rather than markers in their pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and context of use.

innate: bẩm sinh; elaboration: sự sản sinh

How are Men and Women different in Language Use?

Women

- *talk too much, more than men,*
- *are more polite,*
- *are indecisive/hesitant,*
- *complain and irritate,*
- *ask more questions,*
- *support each other,*
- *are more co-operative,*

Men

- *swear more,*
- *don't talk about emotions,*
- *talk about sport, women,*
- *insult each other frequently,*
- *are competitive in conversation*
- *dominate conversation,*
- *speak with more authority,*
- *give more commands,*
- *interrupt more.*

1. According to George Keith & John Shuttleworth in *Living Language* (p. 222).

Women's Sociolect

- **Hedge:** (rào đón) using phrases like “sort of”, “kind of”, “it seems like”,...
- **Use (super) polite forms:** “Would you mind...”, “I'd appreciate it if..” “...if you don't mind”.
- **Use tag questions:** “You're going to dinner, aren't you?”
- **Speak in italics:** intonational emphasis equal to underlining words - so, very, quite.
- **Use empty adjectives:** divine (tuyệt diệu), lovely, adorable (tôn sùng),

- **Use hypercorrect grammar and pronunciation:** English prestige grammar and clear enunciation (nói, phát biểu).
- **Use direct quotation:** men paraphrase more often.
- **Use question intonation in declarative statements:** women make declarative statements into questions by raising the pitch of their voice at the end of a statement, **expressing uncertainty**. For example, “*What school do you attend? Eton College?*”

Women's Sociolect (cont'd)

- **Have a special lexicon:** women use more words for things like colours, men for sports.
- **Use “wh-” imperatives:**(such as “Why don't you open the door?”)
- **Speak less frequently**
- **Overuse qualifiers:**(for example “I Think that...”)
- **Apologise more:** (for instance, “I'm sorry, but I think that...”)
- **Use modal constructions:** (such as *can, would, should, ought* “Should we turn up the heat?”)
- **Avoid coarse (thô lỗ) language or expletives (đệm, chêm thêm tiếng tục)**
- **Use indirect commands and requests:** (for example, “My, isn't it cold in here?”- really a request to turn the heat on or close a window)
- **Use more intensifiers:** especially so and very (for instance, “I am so glad you came!”)
- **Lack a sense of humor:** women do not tell jokes well and often don't understand the punch (sức mạnh) line of jokes.

2. According to Robin Lakoff (1975) in *Language and Woman's Place*.

Six Contrasts in Male and Female Language Use

1. **status** (uy quyền) **vs. support**
2. **independence vs. intimacy** (thân mật/tình)
3. **advice vs. understanding**
4. **information vs. feelings**
5. **orders vs. proposals**
6. **conflict vs. compromise**

3. Deborah Tannen in *You Just Don't Understand*

2.7.1.2 SEXIST SOCIOLECT

GENDER DISCRIMINATION

1. What is sexism? (sự phân biệt giới tính)

- Sexism is about **discrimination on the grounds of sex**, based on assumptions that women are both different from and inferior to men.

- "We can assume an act of linguistic discrimination against women has occurred if:
 - 1. there is a difference in the way men and women are treated;
 - 2. this differing treatment is less favourable to women; and
 - 3. the basis for the difference is gender related."

(King, Ruth. 1991. *Talking Gender; A Guide to Nonsexist Communication*. Toronto: Copp Clark Pitman Ltd)

2. How is Sexism represented through language use?

- Language itself is not racist or sexist, its use **reflects the views in society.**
- If change in society is occurring, change in the language too.
- **In Grammar:**
 - * the gender suffixes, prefixes or words are added to the existing words:
e.g.:- prince - princess - master - mistress
 - author - authoress - he - goat - she - goat
 - hero - heroine - male-nurse - nurse
 - governor - governess - doctor - lady-doctor
 - man - woman

■ In Vocabulary and Language choice

- the sexual discrimination in jobs, in labour division in society.
e.g: - chairman, - policeman, - Mr /Sir, -actor, - salesman,
- nurse, - housewife,
- the connotations implied through the use of words
e.g: - governor <governs the state> - governess < takes care of
children>
 - master (host) - mistress (not a female master)
 - My neighbour has great legs (= women)
 - King-size <excellent size> - Queen-size < for fat women>

How are Sexist Sociolects Avoided?

1. Eliminate the generic use of *He* by:

- using *plural nouns*
- deleting *he, his, and him* altogether
- substituting *articles (the, a, an)* for *his*; and *who* for *he*
- substituting *one, we, or you*
- minimizing use of indefinite pronouns (e.g., *everybody, someone...*)
- using the *passive voice* (use sparingly)
- substituting *nouns* for *pronouns* (use sparingly)

2. Eliminate the generic use of *man*:

- for *man*, substitute *person/ people, individual(s), human(s), human being(s)*
- for *mankind*, substitute *humankind, humanity, the human race*
- for *manhood*, substitute *adulthood, maturity*
- delete *unnecessary references* to generic *man*

How are Sexist Sociolects Avoided?

3. Eliminate sexism when addressing persons formally by:

- using **Ms** instead of **Miss** or **Mrs.**, even when a woman's marital status is known.
- using a married woman's **first name** instead of **herhusband's** (“*Ms. Annabelle Lee*” not “*Mrs. Herman Lee*”).
- using the corresponding **title for females** (Ms., Dr., Prof.) whenever a title is appropriate for males.

- using **Dear Colleague** or **Editor** or **Professor**, in letters to unknown persons (instead of **Dear Sir, Gentlemen**)

4. Eliminate sexual stereotyping of roles by:

- using the same term (which avoids the generic man) for both females and males (e.g., **department chair** or **chairperson** or by using the corresponding verb (such as to **chair**)
- not calling attention to irrelevancies (for example, **lady lawyer, male nurse**)

2.7.2 LANGUAGE & AGE:

2.7.2.1 BABY/CHILD-TALK

1. When Adults Talk to Babies

- We have all heard the special talk that is reserved just for infants. What language experts once called "motherese" is now known as infant-directed speech.
- Infant-directed speech is different from speech we use with others in several ways:
 - We use a higher pitch;
 - We exaggerate the range of pitches;
 - We use shorter phrases & longer pauses between phrases;
 - We use clearer pronunciation.

Studies of infants and their mothers have shown that:

- Newborn infants can recognize the natural rhythm of speech from having heard it within the womb. (bào thai)
- We constantly adjust speech as babies grow.
- Parents' talk to newborns is filled with greetings and endearments (âu yém) and has a strong emotional content.
- Talk to one-year-olds is much more information-laden-filled with labels, directions, questions & descriptions.

2. Vocabulary

- "Baby talk" often involves shortening words to make them simple to say, including non-verbal sounds and slurred or simplified versions of ordinary words, but it also includes a vocabulary of its own. Some of these are handed down from parent to parent or invented by parents and are not known outside of a particular family, but others are more or less widespread.

- A fair number of baby-talk and nursery words refer to bodily functions or private parts, partly because the words are easier to pronounce, partly to reduce adult discomfort when using them, and partly to make it possible for children to discuss these topics without breaking adult taboos.

Some examples of widely used baby talk words & phrases in English

- *baba* (bottle)
- *beddy-bye* (go to bed, sleeping, bedtime)
- *binkie* (pacifier or blanket)
- *boo-boo* (wound)
- *bubby* (brother)
- *didee* (diaper: *bĩm*)
- *din-din* (dinner)
- *ickle* (little (chiefly British))
- *icky* (disgusting)
- *jammies* (pajamas)
- *nana* (grandmother)
- *oopsie-daisy* (small accident)
- *poo-poo* (defecation: *đại tiện*)
- *potty* (toilet)
- *sissy* (sister)
- *sleepy-bye* (go to bed, sleeping, bedtime)
- *stinky* (defecation)
- *wawa* (water)
- *wee-wee* (urination or penis)
- *widdle* (urine (chiefly British))
- *wuv* (love)
- *yucky* (disgusting)
- *yum-yum* (meal time)

3. When Babies Talk Back

3.1 Eye Contact and Gestures

- Babies join in "conversations" with their caregivers. Even newborns use eye contact to let us know when they want to interact.
- By four months, they can follow the direction that we are looking. We also tend to look where the baby is looking, often commenting on what we think she is looking at. Researchers have shown that this kind of joint attention is especially helpful to babies' later language development, leading to earlier and more use of words.
- Babies also learn to communicate by using gestures. By the end of his first year, a baby can gain our attention and make his wishes known by touching an object, holding it up, or pointing to it as he makes eye contact with us.

3.2 Cooing (nói thì thầm, rừ rừ) and Babbling (bập bẹ, bi bô)

- As early as two months, infants begin producing cooing sounds.
- By four months, they begin playing with sounds that are easy to make, repeating strings of vowel and consonant combinations, like "bababa." Early babbling is found in babies everywhere, even those who are deaf. But for babbling to continue to develop into words, babies need to hear spoken language from others.
- By seven months, babbling begins to include the sound combinations distinct to their native language and,
- By a year old, babies' babbling includes a broad range of sound combinations and may include their first words.

3.3 Conversational Turn-taking

- As early as three months old, infants begin to learn the conversational skill of turn-taking. In the beginning, we adults take the primary responsibility in turn-taking. When we talk to an infant, we pause and then respond as though she answered back. We also model turn-taking when we play games like pat-a-cake and peek-a-boo with babies. Over the next several months, babies gradually become more and more active participants in back-and-forth play and conversation.
- By the beginning of the second year, babies use combinations of gestures, turn-taking, and word-like sounds to communicate. A close listen to an older baby's babbling will reveal someone hard at work experimenting with language sounds and matching those sounds to the right objects and the right circumstances.

3.4 Building a Strong Foundation for Language Development

- Time and time again, early exposure to language leads to greater language skills as children get older—and the more, the better.
- At home and at child care, the more we talk to babies, the better they will understand and use language later.
- Talk that is especially effective in boosting language is talk that involves describing actions, asking questions, and using a rich vocabulary. When we talk to babies while we are dressing and feeding them as well as playing with them, we are providing exactly what they need to learn to effectively use language to communicate.
- Babies who hear more spoken language tend to use more words sooner. In turn, those children who have larger vocabularies at age three have larger vocabularies and comprehend language better when they enter school.

2.7.2.2 TEEN-TALK

GIẢI MÃ NGÔN NGỮ CỦA 8X, 9X, 2K_Một vài ví dụ:



1. *Hũu chít lìn (Hiểu chết liền)*
2. *“M có dj choj 0” (Mày/ Em có đi chơi không)*
3. *“T đag pùn, t mún ra ngoài choj cho zui” (Tao đang buồn, tao muốn ra ngoài chơi cho vui)*
4. *“Pé ui, sang hum nj nha mjnh co vjek, pé dj hok mot mjnh dk ko ak?” (Bé ơi, sáng hôm nay nhà mình có việc, bé đi học một mình được không ạ)*
5. *“Mjn h0ng bjs ns j hun. Chuk pan sjh nkat zuj ze nhen. Hep py bit day tu dju” (Mình không biết nói gì hơn. Chúc bạn sinh nhật vui vẻ nhé. Chúc mừng sinh nhật bạn)*
6. *“t * a lại nói vs e nt. A có bik la em pùn lắm k? We nên nghĩ l nhg j đã làm. We đã có 1 tg iu nhao r đẹp, jò * lại nói vs nhao nhg lời k vui?” (Tại sao anh lại nói với em như thế. Anh có biết là em buồn lắm không? Chúng ta nên nghĩ lại những gì đã làm. Chúng ta đã có một thời gian yêu nhau rất đẹp, giờ sao lại nói với nhau những lời không vui?).*

7. “Em chut ar2 dzui dze trog ngey le tizh iu nha!”

8. “bùn wá mài nhì, lei gàn hít nem lép 12 roài... thí tụi mìn ko đc zui như hồi nem ngoái, nghĩ vậy thoai mùr teo bùn ghê gúm... nhưng mìn hứa sẽ mãi lè bẹn thân, đeng wên teo dzà mái trừng iu zấu nì nha”

9. “*Bùn wá kô nhì, lei sắp phải xa kô roài...nghĩ vậy thoai mùr e bùn ghê gúm...nhưng e sẽ ho wên kô và mái trừng iu zấu*”. (Buồn quá cô nhì, lại sắp phải xa cô rồi...nghĩ vậy thôi mà em buồn ghê gúm...nhưng em sẽ không quên cô và mái trường yêu dấu)

Other teen-talk words or phrases

tiền thành xiền, tình yêu thành tình iu, ghét như con bọ chét, nhỏ như con thỏ, tin vịt, chạy mất dép, bó tay.com, bốc hơi (biến mất), đít chai (kính), 2 (hi-chào), 4U (For you - cho bạn), 2NT (Tonight - tối nay), G92U (Good night to you)

=> Teen nói chuyện với nhau -> hiểu nhau -> đó là ngôn ngữ để teen dùng. Con người tạo ra ngôn ngữ thì cũng có quyền thay đổi ngôn ngữ. Ngôn ngữ để phục vụ cuộc sống chứ không phải ta sống theo ngôn ngữ, đơn giản vì chúng ta tạo ra ngôn ngữ.

=> Teen không sai khi dùng ngôn ngữ của teen. **Điều quan trọng là nên dùng nó khi nào, ở đâu và như thế nào mà thôi.** Teen nói teen hiểu, người lớn muốn hiểu họ phải học.

Thử hỏi nếu bây giờ nghe **mí** bà cụ già nói **chiện** thì xem ai làm méo tiếng Việt nào? Với trình độ dân trí người dân ngày càng cao, việc du nhập các từ nước ngoài vào là lỗi của ai? Xin được cho hỏi tại sao cứ phải bắt dịch từ tiếng Anh sang tiếng Việt làm gì khi mà nó làm méo ý nghĩa của từ đó đi. Cũng giống như người Pháp gọi **Áo dài** hay **Phở** Việt Nam là “**Ao dai**” hay “**Pho**” chứ mấy ai gọi là “Long Robe” hay cái gì đó tương tự dù hoàn toàn có thể. Tại sao cứ phải chuyển Liveshow, MC, Forum, Hacker... sang tiếng Việt làm gì khi mà giới **tẻ** đã quá quen thuộc với những từ ngữ tiếng Anh rồi, dịch ra chỉ tổ làm mất nghĩa mà thôi. Thế giới quanh ta luôn thay đổi, con người phải sáng tạo và thay đổi theo vì chính con người góp phần cho những thay đổi cũng như chịu ảnh hưởng của những thay đổi.

=>Thay lời kết, xin được dành 1 lời khuyên cho những ai đang dùng thứ ngôn ngữ này. Rằng đó là ngôn ngữ của @, của blog, của chat thôi, **đừng đem nó vào sách vở nhà trường**. Hãy tự hào khi bạn có thứ ngôn ngữ của bạn, khi chúng ta nói với nhau, nhưng chú ý **đừng dùng sai lúc sai chỗ**.

2.7.3 LANGUAGE & TABOOS

2.7.3.1.TABOOS

1.What are taboos?

- Taboos are written and **unwritten rules** of a culture which prohibit people from
 - thinking of,
 - touching, pointing to
 - speaking of
 - writing about or
 - something regarded as forbidden.

2.How are taboos represented?

(a) verbal means: words, phrases, sentences; swear-words...

(b) non-verbal means: attitudes, behaviour, gestures, facial expressions;

(c) visual means: pictures, signs,...

3.Examples of Taboos in Vietnamese, English, Chinese...

- Don't think of
- Don't touch at/ point at.....
- Don't talk about.....
- Don't write about.....

4. Taboos: What are their causes?

- (a) fearful attitudes to ghosts, the dead, the supernatural beings, or creatures having supernatural qualities ;
- (b) religious beliefs relating to god, the blood of god;
- (c) decent sense to things related to sex, bodily functions or strong emotions;
- (d) views, opinions, liking or disliking or parts of society based on delicate attitudes to unpleasant, unfavourable subjects like death, illness, war, defects (bodily or mental)

5. How are taboo-words formed?

- 1. names of gods, devils, sacred places, the future life; anyone or anything that holds a sacred place in the belief systems of the community, sometimes expressions from other belief systems;
- 2. names of dead relatives, rulers or famous persons ;
- 3. mother, father, grandparents, ...in-laws;
- 4. symbols of powers, natural forces ;
- 5. words denoting body parts and functions that society considers taboos;
- 6. an animal;
- 7. a plant;
- 8. names of diseases, illnesses...
- 9. nonsense words

2.7.3. 2. Swearing

1. Concept

Swearing is usually **uttering profanities or obscenities** that express such emotions as hatred, antagonism, frustration, and surprise.

profanities: báng bổ, xúc phạm, coi thường.

obscenities: tục tĩu, khiêu dâm.

antagonism: đối lập, tương phản.

2. What are its causes?

- (a) most obviously, it is an outlet (thoát ra, thỏa mãn) for frustration or pent-up (dồn nén, chất chứa) emotion;
- (b) and a means of releasing energy after a sudden shock;
- (c) It has also been credited with various social functions as a marker of group identity;
- (d) and solidarity
- (e) and as a way of expressing aggression without resort to violence.

3. How are they avoided?

- (a) silence;
- (b) synonyms;
- (c) near-synonyms;
- (d) substitutes;
- (e) euphemisms.

2.7.3.3. CURSING

- swearing.
- saying rude things to somebody or think rude things about somebody/something.
- using a magic word or phrase against somebody in order to harm them. (lời nguyền, sự nguyền rủa.)

2.7.3.4. Euphemism

1. A **euphemism** is an expression intended by the speaker to be **less offensive, disturbing, or troubling** to the listener than the word or phrase it replaces.

2. **Euphemisms for the profane** (xúc phạm, báng bổ)

2.1. Religious euphemisms

2.2. Excretory (bài tiết, thải ra) euphemisms

2.3. Sexual euphemisms

2.4. Euphemisms referring to profanity itself

2.5. Euphemisms for death

Some Examples of Euphemisms?

- Other common euphemisms include:
- **restroom** for **toilet room** (the word *toilet* was itself originally a euphemism). This is an Americanism.
- **acting like rabbits, making love to, getting it on, doing it, or sleeping with** for **having sexual intercourse with**
- **sanitary landfill** for **garbage dump** (and **a temporary garbage dump is a transfer station**), also often called a **Civil Amenity** in the UK
- **third-party unauthorized use** for **cracking**.
- **ill-advised** for **very poor** or **bad**
- **pre-owned vehicles** for **used cars**
- A student being **held back** a grade level for **having failed** the grade level

Some Examples

- **correctional facility** for prison
- an athlete **favoring a particular (body part)** for **injuring another corresponding body part** -- for example, putting more weight on one's right leg because of an injury to one's left leg
- **the big C** for **cancer** (in addition, some people whisper the word when they say it in public, and doctors have euphemisms to use in front of patients, e.g. "**c.a.**")
- **bathroom tissue, t.p.,** or **bath tissue** for toilet paper (Usually used by toilet paper manufacturers)
- custodian or **caretaker** for janitor (also originally a euphemism — in Latin, it means *doorman*.)
- **sanitation worker** (or, sarcastically, **sanitation engineer**) for "**garbage man**" (Also known as **dustman** in the UK)

Some Cross-Cultural Euphemisms

	Old- Aged	Cancer AIDS COVID	WC	Poor	...		
E	elderly people pensioner	the big C the century disease	restroom	developing low-income, working class, modest, underprivileged			
VN	người cao tuổi	bệnh thế kỷ	phòng nghỉ	đang phát triển, thu nhập thấp			
CH							

2.7.4. LANGUAGE & INTERESTS

SLANGS

- **1.SLANG** is a **sociolect**, a colloquial departure from standard usage; it is often imaginative, vivid, and ingenious (khéo léo) in its construction - so much so that it has been called "the plain man's poetry".
- SLANG consists of words, expressions, and meanings that are **informal** and are **used by people who know each other very well or who have the same job or the same interests**. Slang is not considered suitable for formal social situations or serious writing.
- SLANG is used to escape the dull familiarity of standard words, to suggest an escape from the established routine of everyday life.

2.Reasons for creating slangs

- 1. for the fun of it
- 2. as an exercise
- 3. to be different
- 4. to be picturesque
- 5. to escape from clichés
- 6. to be arresting
- 7. to enrich the language
- 8. to add concreteness to speech
- 9. to reduce seriousness
- 10. to be colloquial
- 11. for ease of social interaction
- 12. to introduce intimacy
- 13. to show that one belongs
- 14. to exclude others
- 15. to be secret

intimacy: thân mật, riêng tư.

clichés: sáo, rỗng, rập khuôn

arresting: lôi cuốn, hấp dẫn, thu hút sự chú ý

3. Development of Slang

1. In the mid-eighteenth century, slang was 'the special vocabulary used by any set of persons of a low and disreputable character'.
2. After the mid-eighteenth century, the meaning of 'slang' broadened to include 'the special vocabulary or phraseology of a particular calling or profession'.
3. In the early years of the nineteenth century, the term 'slang' came to be applied much more generally to any 'language of a highly colloquial type, considered as below the level of standard educated speech, and consisting either of new words or of current words employed in some new special sense.
4. Today slang covers all three of these areas: not all colloquial or informal vocabulary is slang, but all slang is colloquial or informal.

4. Types of Slangs

1. Teen slangs:

- "Anh xã oai, em tiếc là em hông cóa bít nấu nhưng ăn thì bít zì zậy nè mình nên kím osin đi". "Bè nhéc tui nhìu wé, tui mè không dzào nói mí câu dẻm bè bứt gứt ngùi kén móng te móng chựn sút đim không ngủ thì tội nghiệp. Thui, lèm bè tọ nghịn mọt lìn dzi".
- = "Anh xã ơ, em tiếc là em hông có biết nấu nhưng ăn thì biết vì vậy nhà mình nên kiếm osin đi". "Bà nhắc tôi nhiều quá, tôi mà không vào nói mấy câu dám bà bứt rứt ngòi cấn móng tay móng chân suốt đêm không ngủ thì tội nghiệp. Thôi, làm bà toại nguyện một lần vậy".

4.Types of Slangs

2.Criminals' slangs:

chĩa, chôm, chốt, dân mánh, đạ, động, chuột, hiệu, thối (xê)...

3.Pollution slangs:

Áo mưa, bèo, bị, ẻm, dập, đi, đi làm, giết, ghe, khứa, quạt, xào khô, xào ướt...

4.Fighting slangs:

Bụp, chó, chó lừa, dập, dọn, dứt, đồ chơi, hoạn, phen, thủ, triệt...

5.Legal slangs:

bể, bò vàng, bù đạp, cào cào, ngúm, thặng, thua, tó,...

4.Types of Slangs

6.Students slangs:

bốn mắt, cây gậy, chậm tiêu, con ngỗng, cua, cúp cua, đá lông nheo, đại úy, đại tá, ghi đông, giả nai, kính gãy gọng, trứng ngỗng, trứng vịt, leo cây, phôtô, quay phim, tưng, viêm màng túi, bắn đạn, cái chảo, hia, dò đài, đêm trường, Hai Lúa, kẹt đạn, lên đoạn đầu đài, nổ, phao, quăng lựu đạn, quậy, sửa, tiến sĩ gậy mê, quê một cục, quê một cây, lầu sư phụ, lầu thầy, lãnh lịch, gỡ lịch, tươi mát, văn nghệ, lịch nhà nghèo, phim chăn nuôi, mang ba lô ngược, chương trình thể giới động vật, chương trình những bông hoa nhỏ...

5. Formation of Slangs

- 1. Newly coined: CD, chôm, phóng
- 2. Acquiring new meanings: cool, cat, bốc hơi, cò, vui vẻ, ẵm, vịn = bắt, đồ chơi = vũ khí, bom, mìn, hết phim...
- 3. Using a sense among senses of polysemous words: đạn, pháo, hàng = ma túy, lậu, dao búa, súng, gái, lên đời, hình sự, thuốc, luộc,
- 4. Clipping, abbreviation: WC, VIP, (nhảy) nhót, bụi (đòi), (uể) oải, (ngắm) nghĩa,...
- 5. Adopting borrowings: xe-cần-hen, xi-căng-đan, quá đát, lóp-bi, pê-đê = péderaste, bo = pourboire, vitamin T,, gấn ẵng ten, tầu, thiên, ngân = tiền, hia = giày, xé = xe, tút = retoucher, MBA = Married but available! , NATO = never action talk only.

5. Formation of Slangs

- 6. Taking forms as metaphors, similes: dead as a door nail, đứt bóng = chết, xà beng, dựa cột = bị tử hình, mở rô-bi-nê, úp sọt = bị bắt,
- 7. Changing sounds: thủ tục đầu tiên = tiền đầu, chà đồ nhôm = chôm đồ nhà; đồng = đồng hồ, (con) ghệ = gái,...
- 8. Using proper name: Thị Nở, Đời cô Lựu, sến = con sen

6. Some Cross-Cultural Slangs

	Tiền	Người yêu	Chết	Đi đại tiện			
VN	tờ xanh, đở đạn, băng, Bác vé, xì, lúá, ly, chai,	mèo bò, bịch nhí, cưng,	đi, tử, toi, tở, tịch, tiêu, biến, châu tiên tổ, trời, Diêm vương,	đi ngoài, đi ngòi, đi đồng, đi sông, đi cầu, đi núi, đi bụi, đọc báo, rửa tay,			
E	beans, peas Benjamin,	sweetheart, baby, pidgeon, doll, cat,	pass away, have a long sleep,	go to WC, go washing,			
CH							

2.7.5. LANGUAGE & SOCIAL RELATIONS)

1. Frozen styles
2. Formal styles
3. Consultative styles
4. Casual styles
5. Intimate styles

2.7.6. LANGUAGE & COMMUNICATIVE FUNCTIONS FUNCTIONAL STYLES (FS)

(1) Dear Joan,
(2) I'm sitting here at my desk writing to you. (3) Outside my window is a big lawn surrounded by trees,(4) and in the middle of the lawn is a flower bed. (5) It was full of daffodils and tulips in the spring. (6)You'd love it here. (7) You must come and stay sometime. (8)We've got plenty of room .
(9) Love,
(10) Sally

(1) On a September afternoon, fifty-five people fell ill after eating hot, sliced turkey sandwiches in the cafeteria of an Ontario university.(2) Typical food poisoning symptoms were evident: nausea, cramps, vomiting, diarrhea, and headaches.(3)Fourteen of the victims were hospitalized for eight hours and one for three days. (4) It was later learned that the sliced turkey had been delivered hot from a central kitchen to the dispensing cafeteria (5) and there maintained in a warm state for ten hours .

-
- (1) **COLLOQUIAL STYLES:** phatic function
 - (2) **PUBLISTIC STYLES:** conative function
 - (3) **BELLES-LETTRES:** aestheticognitive function
 - (4) **LEGAL STYLES:** directive function
 - (5) **SCIENTIFIC STYLES:** informative function

(1) COLLOQUIAL STYLES

- **1.Function: the phatic function**
- **2.SLFs:**
- **2.1.Discoursal:**
- ---> Transaction
- ---> Genres: Conversation, dialogue, chat, email, small talk, personal letter, diary
- ---> Incoherent, Informal, Stereotyped, Inexplicit, Creative, Clumsy, Hesitating, Careless-planning, Badly-prepared, Disorderly, Incomplete, Ambiguous expressions, Randomness of topics
- ---> Accompanied with non-verbal means

■ **2.2.Lexico-Semantic:**

- ---> Colloquialisms, Slangs, Swearings, Cursings, Concrete words, Descriptive words, Monosemous words, Simple words, Social phrases, Vocatives, Words expressing everyday life topics, Hyperboles, Similes,

■ 2.3.Morpho-Syntactic:

- ---> concrete nouns, qualitative adjectives, perceptive verbs, HAVE, GET, THINK, GUESS, LOVE, LOVELY, intensifiers: VERY, TERRIBLY, A BIT, FANTASTIC, WONDERFUL, EXCELLENT, simple and continuous present, interjections, comparatives, indefinites...
- ---> simple one-element sentences, ellipsis, substitution, reference, parenthetical compound types of sentences I SEE, YOU KNOW, I MEAN, YOU SEE, active sentences, clumsy long sentences, false starts,...

■ 2.4. Phonetic-Graphic:

- ---> the range of voice qualities, a variety of intonation types, dialectal pronunciation, regional accents, assimilations, elisions, linking, insertions, pauses, overstressing, non-verbal means
- ---> multiplication of letters, spacing, punctuation marks
- I LOVE LOVE LOVE Y O U !!!

(1) *Dear Joan,*

(2) *I'm sitting here at my desk writing to you. (3)*

Outside my window is a big lawn surrounded by trees,

(4) and in the middle of the lawn is a flower bed. (5) It

was full of daffodils and tulips in the spring. (6) You'd

love it here. (7) You must come and stay sometime. (8)

We've got plenty of room .

(9) Love,

(10) Sally

(2) PUBLISTIC STYLES

- **1.Function: the conative function**
- **2.SLFs:**
- **2.1.Discoursal:**
- ---> Topic ← Comment; Parallelism; Old → New
- ---> Genres: Brief news, Advertisements, Oratories, Speeches, Editorials, Slogans, Posters, Brochures, Arguments, Religious lessons,...
- ---> Coherent, persuasive, descriptive, qualitative, narrative, illustrative, logical, argumentative, evaluative, informative, ...

■ **2.2.Lexico-Semantic:**

- ---> concrete, qualitative, argumentative, descriptive, persuasive, evaluative, illustrative NPs, VPs, Adjs, Advs, idioms,...
- ---> cliches, puns, synonyms, antonyms, hyperboles, metaphors, metonyms, figures of speech, collocations, polysemy, homonymy, double synonymy, repetition, meronymy, hyponymy

■ **2.3.Morpho-Syntactic:**

- ---> NPs (headlines, titles), simple present, past tenses, indicative mood, comparatives,
- ---> abbreviations, acronyms, direct speeches, antithesis,
- ---> simple sentences, simple sentences with coordinating clauses

■ **2.4.Phonetic-Graphic:**

- ---> standard pronunciation, overstressing, euphony,
- ---> pictures, punctuation marks, capitalization, paragraphing

- *(1) You ask, What is our policy ?(2) I will say : It is to wage war, by sea, land, and air, with all our might and with all the strength that God can give us: (3) to wage war against a monstrous tyranny, never surpassed in the dark, lamentable catalogue of human crime. (4) That is our policy. (5) You ask, What is our aim? (6) I can answer in one word: Victory--victory at all costs, victory in spite of all terror. (7) Victory, however long and hard the road may be: (8) for without victory there is no survival. (9) Let that be realized : (10) no survival for the British Empire, (11) no survival for all that the British Empire has stood for, (12) no survival for the urge and impulse of the ages; (13) that mankind will move forward towards its goal. (14) But I take up my task with buoyancy and hope. (15) I feel sure that our cause will not be suffered to fail among men. (16) At this time I feel entitled to claim the aid of all, (17) and I say, "Come, then, let us go forward together with our united strength."*

(3) BELLES-LETTRES

- **1.Function: the poetic/aesthetic-cognitive function**
- **2.SLFs:**
- **2.1.Discoursal:**
- ---> Old → New; Parallelism
- ---> Genres: Fiction, Novel, Short story, Fairy tale, Legend, Poetry, Poem, Drama, Play, Folklore
- ---> Coherent, Picturesque, Imagery, Imaginative, Illustrative,

■ **2.2.Lexico-Semantic:**

- ---> Literary, Bookish, Formal, Abstract, Descriptive, Qualitative, Connotative, Figurative, Creative expressions, Individuality
- ---> Semantic devices: Oxymoron, Epithet, Euphemism, Repetition, Suspense, Hyperbole, Simile, Metaphor, Metonymy, Polysemy, Personification, Synonymy, Antonymy, Paraphrase, Homonymy

■ **2.3.Morpho-Syntactic:**

- ---> NPs, VPs, AdjPs, AdvPs, past tenses, progressive and perfect aspects, active and passive voice, indicative and subjunctive moods, new coinages
- ---> inversion, emphatic constructions, complex-compound sentences, parallelism, rhetorical questions, reported speech, detachment, suspense,

■ **2.4. Phonetic-Graphic:**

- ---> dialectal pronunciation, types of intonation, overstressing, punctuation marks,..
- ---> alliteration, rhyme, reduplication,...

-
- *Of this world's theatre in which we stay,*
 - *My love like the spectator idly sits*
 - *Beholding me that all the pageants play,*
 - *Disguising diversely my troubled wits.*
 - *Sometimes I joy when glad occasion fits,*
 - *And mask in mirth like to a comedy:*
 - *Soon after when my joy to sorrow flits,*
 - *I wail and make my woes a tragedy.*
 - *Yet she, beholding me with constant eye,*
 - *Delights not in my mirth nor rues my smart:*
 - *But when I laugh she mocks, and when I cry*
 - *She laughs and hardens evermore her heart.*
 - *What then can move her? if nor mirth nor moan,*
 - *She is no woman but a senseless stone.*
 - **Edmund Spenser**

(4) LEGAL STYLES

- **1.Function: the directive function**
- **2.SLFs:**
- **2.1.Discoursal:**
- --->Parallelism, Topic← Comment, Old→ New
- --->Genres: constitutions, treaties, agreements, contracts, business letters, memorandum, juridical sentences, forms, documents,
- --->coherent, logical, impersonal, formal, compromising, highly technical,
- , ...

■ **2.2.Lexico-Semantic:**

- --->archaisms, terms, abstract, standard, bookish, legal, business expressions, cliches, monosemy,
- --->hyperboles, epithets, vocatives

■ **2.3.Morpho-Syntactic:**

- --->conjunctions, adverbials, pronouns: WE, I, YOU, THOU, THEE, HE, ONE, simple present tense, subjunctive, indicative moods, active voice, participial constructions, direct speech...
- --->complex-compound sentences, long sentences with logically coordinated clauses...

■ **2.4. Phonetic-Graphic:**

- --->clear, fluent, standard pronunciation,
- --->layouts, formats, capitalization

1 I, JONATHAN MOORES, of 123 Wood Lane, Newtown, HEREBY REVOKE
all Wills and testamentary documents heretofore made by me AND
DECLARE this to be my LAST WILL and TESTAMENT.

1. I DESIRE my body to be donated to medical science.

5 2. I APPOINT my wife *Alice Moores* (hereinafter called 'my wife') to be my
sole executrix of this my will but if the foregoing appointment shall fail for any
reason then I appoint my children *Edward Moores* of 456 Smithfield Road,
Newtown and *Louise Moores* of 789 Church Street, Newtown (hereinafter
10 together called 'my trustees' which expression where the context admits
shall include the trustees or trustee hereof for the time being) to be the
executors and trustees of this my will.

3. I BEQUEATH to my wife all my real and personal property whatsoever
and wheresoever for her own use and benefit absolutely if she shall survive
me by thirty days but if she does not survive me by the thirty days then

15 4. I DIVIDE and BEQUEATH all my real and personal property whatsoever
and wheresoever unto my trustees UPON TRUST that my trustees shall sell
call in and convert into money the same and shall therefore pay my funeral
and testamentary expenses and debts and inheritance tax due and shall
stand possessed of the residue of such moneys (hereinafter called 'my resid-
20 uary estate') UPON TRUST for my children *Edward Moores* and *Louise
Moores* in equal shares absolutely PROVIDED ALWAYS that if any shall
have predeceased me leaving a child or children who attain the age of 18
years such child or children shall stand in place of such deceased and shall
take by substitution and equally between them if more than one the share of
25 my residuary estate which such a deceased child of mine would have taken
if he or she had survived me.

IN WITNESS whereof I the said *Jonathon Moores* the Testator have to this
my LAST WILL set my hand this twenty-first day of May One Thousand Nine

(5) SCIENTIFIC STYLES

- **1.Function: the informative function**
- **2.SLFs:**
- **2.1.Discoursal:**
- ---> topic ← comment
- ---> genres: lectures, instructions, diagrams, descriptions, prescriptions, researches, formulas, ...
- ---> coherent, formal, logical, exact, abstract, descriptive

■ **2.2.Lexico-Semantic:**

- ---> terms, definitions,
- ---> abstract, descriptive words,
- ---> monosemy, paraphrases,

■ **2.3.Morpho-Syntactic:**

- ---> modal words, passive voice, indicative, imperative mood,
- ---> simple present, past tenses, impersonal structures, simple sentences, complete sentences

■ **2.4. Phonetic & Graphic:**

- ---> clear, fluent, standard
- ---> layouts, numbers, formulas, pictures, diagrams, footnotes, clear diction (punctuation)

-
- *When Japanese people write their language, they use a combination of two separate alphabets as well as ideograms borrowed from Chinese. (2) The two alphabets are called hiragana and katakana. (3) The Chinese ideograms are called kanji. (4) Hiragana represents the 46 basic sounds that are made in the Japanese language. (5) Katakana represents the same sounds as hiragana but is used mainly for words borrowed from foreign languages and for sound effects. (6) Kanji are used to communicate an idea rather than a sound. (from Paltridge, 2000)*

2.7.7. LANGUAGE & INTERACTION

BILINGUALISM, CODE-SWITCHING, PIDGIN

- **2.7.7.1. What is Bilingualism?**
- *A person has some functional ability in a second language
- *Switching between their 2 languages in the middle of a conversation by Borrowing /Code switching and Code mixing

2.7.7.2. What is Multilingualism?

- *Many languages in a country due to history, political reasons...
- *Language contact:
 - Language conflict
- - Language maintenance
 - Language shift

2.7.7.3. What is Code-switching?

1. According to Trudgill, “**speakers switch to manipulate or influence or define the situation as they wish, and to convey nuances of meaning and personal intention**” (2000:105).

Drawing upon this quotation, it may be suggested that **code switching can be used for self expression and is a way of modifying language for the sake of personal intentions.**

2. Another function of code switching is that **it may be used in order to build intimate interpersonal relationships among members of a bilingual community.** In this respect, it may be claimed that it is a tool for creating linguistic solidarity especially between individuals who share the same ethno-cultural identity.

manipulate: vận dụng;

nuances: sắc thái;

intimate: thân mật, gần gũi

Some Examples

Buy one ngoài chợ get one free.

Chị ơi, em đang depressed quá vì em và boyfriend vừa split rồi!

Tôi nghĩ fifteen ngày nữa việc này mới xong.

Mặc dù Lan poor nhưng cô ta rất happy.

Tay ấy thì xạo hết chỗ nói rồi, you know.

You can drink coffee, nhưng tôi sẽ uống nước trà.

Nếu mà anh mệt, please stay home tomorrow!

Anh hãy take care khách hàng mới này nhé.

Ê! Hôm nay có làm overtime không?

Tôi đang follow up vụ này.

Some Examples

1. "Sorry mà y nha, tối qua papa với mama cắt cơm, money hết sạch, chứ không thì tao đi overnight với tụi bây rồi. Từ đây tới chiều có chương trình gì, "phôn" cho tao một tiếng. See you!".

2. Thôi đi mấy you (bạn). Mấy you dòm lại cái body (cơ thể) của mình coi, có sport (dáng khỏe, thể thao) chút nào đâu mà chê người ta. Ăn lẹ rồi go (đi). Stay up late (thức khuya) kiểu này hoài thì skinny (ốm lòi xương) cả đám.

3. Ông G. dạy *amateur* (nghệ nghiệp dư) hết chỗ nói. Ít ra phải *gai* (guide – hướng dẫn) tụi mình viết phần *foreword* (lời mở đầu), còn *content* (nội dung) và *decor* (trang trí) thì mình tự lo cũng được.

4. Hơi đâu mà *wait* (chờ), lo mà cày đi chứ *il=he* (ông ta) chạy sô dũ lắm. Thằng nào cũng làm *solo* chứ riêng gì mà.

5. “*Partners* (đối tác) của tụi em chiều nay sẽ tới thành phố, em *book* (đặt) 2 *single room* (phòng đơn) nhé. Coi như em đã *confirm* (xác nhận) luôn rồi đó, chị khỏi cần phải *check* (kiểm tra) lại”.

6. “Anh có thể *arrange* (sắp xếp) cho em một *appointment* (cuộc hẹn) với *director* (giám đốc) được không, em cần *interview* (phỏng vấn) ảnh một số điều về mấy cái *projects* (dự án) ở Vũng Tàu. *Merci* (cảm ơn) anh rất nhiều”...

Thay lời kết:

Code-switching giữa hai ngôn ngữ Việt và Anh là một natural phenomenon, cho nên chúng ta chẳng phải worry gì cả về issue này, OK? Và lại, cái habit chêm tiếng Anh vào tiếng Việt này nó khó quit lắm! Quý bạn cứ try your best nói tiếng Việt về politics hoặc jobs trong một bữa cơm gia đình mà coi. It will be a pain, tin tôi đi!

2.7.7.4. What are Pidgins? (tiếng bồi)

- A simple form of a language, especially in English and French, with a limited number of words that are used together with words from a local language. It is used when people who do not speak the same language need to talk to each other.
- A Pidgin is a **social** rather than an **individual** solution.
- A Pidgin involves the mixture of 2 or more languages:
 - - Grammar based on 1 language
 - - Vocabulary taken from another
- *A Pidgin in limited relations: in the market, in intermarriage (hôn nhân khác chủng tộc).

CD. Where you from?

F. I'm from Sidney.

CD. How many time you holidays in Vietnam?

F. 1 month.

CD. Oh, too long. In Hue, how long you stay in Hue?

F. 3 days.

CD. Yes, my country very beautiful. You think?

F. Yes, very beautiful in Hue. Too many the garden.

CD. Your country. Too many motorcycle in the your country?

F. No.all in the car.

CD. My country many motorcycle.

F. Many many bicycle. Too busy. Too noisy.

CHAPTER 3: LANGUAGE AND CULTURE:

3.1. Language, social status, social roles, social solidarity, social power and social distance:

Social Status (tầng lớp): is the level of social value a person is considered to hold. More specifically, it refers to the relative level of respect, honour, assumed competence, and deference accorded to people, groups, and organizations in a society.

Social Roles (vai trò) refer to the expectations, responsibilities, and behaviors we adopt in certain situations. The ideas for expected or “normal” behavior are reinforced both by the individual and by society. Each of us takes on many different roles, and we shift among them throughout our lives and throughout each day. You may be, at the same time, **a student, a parent, an aspiring teacher, a son or daughter, a spouse, and a lifeguard.**

CHAPTER 3: LANGUAGE AND CULTURE:

Social Solidarity (đoàn/liên kết) **emphasizes the interdependence between individuals in a society**, which allows individuals to feel that they can enhance (nâng cao) the lives of others. It is a core principle of collective action and is founded on shared values and beliefs among different groups in society.

Social Power is the potential for social influence. The available tools one has to exert influence over another can lead to a change ... Social power is a form of power that is **found in society and within politics**. Social power is found within the rules of society and laws of the land.

Social Distance describes the distance between individuals or groups in society, including dimensions such as social class, race/ethnicity, gender or sexuality.

*In public health, **social distancing**, also called **physical distancing**, is a set of non-pharmaceutical interventions or measures intended to prevent the spread of a contagious disease by maintaining a physical distance between people and reducing the number of times people come into close contact with each other.*

3.2.NAMING

1.How are people named?

The Vietnamese children are named:

- (1) *after his/her parents, sisters or brothers ;*
- (2) *after his/her parents' occupations, products ;*
- (3) *after the names of the well-known people, artists, characters in literature;*
- (4) *after the names of the animals ;*
- (5) *after the names of plants ;*
- (6) *after the names of one's lover; enemy ;*
- (7) *using words relating to temporal notions ;*
- (8) *using words relating to spatial notions ;*
- (9) *using words expressing good wishes ;*
- (10) *using numbers ;*
- (11) *using words relating to events, regions, cities, rivers,...*
- (12) *using foreign names ;*

2.Types of Names:

- (1) *Full names*
- (2) *Code names*
- (3) *Maiden* (tên thời còn con gái) *names*
- (4) *Nick names*
- (5) *Religious names*
- (6) *Honorific* (cao quý, danh dự) *names*

3.3. KINSHIP

- the relationship between members of the same family:
- the fact of being related in a family.
- a feeling of being close to somebody because you have similar origins or attitudes.

(quan hệ họ hàng, thân tộc)

3.4. ADDRESSING (XU'NG HU)

1. Factors influencing addressing people

- 1. Relations:
 - - in highly institutionalized places: court, city hall...
 - - in public: school, office....
 - - in church, pagoda...
 - - among colleagues, apprenticeships...
 - - among neighbours,...
 - - among friends...: friendship, comradeship
 - - among relatives: kinship
- 2. Atmosphere/situations/attitudes/emotions...
- 3. Status/ranks/roles...
- 4. Power/ Solidarity
- 5. Gender
- 6. Age
-

ADDRESSING

- **2.Ways to Address people**

- **2.1.Primary ways**

- 1.Names
- 2.Kinterms?
- 3.Personal Pronouns
- 4.Titles
- 5.Non-verbal means.....

- **2.2.Supplementary ways**

- 1.Polite forms
- 2.Vocatives
- 3.Emotional particles
- 4.Non-verbal means.....

- **2.3.Combining ways**

- 1.Polite forms + Title + Full Name
- 2.Kinterms? + Given Name...

CHAPTER 4: LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

4.1. THE ETHNOGRAPHY OF SPEAKING

1: What are factors of SPEAKING?

- 1. *Setting (time & place / physical setting) & Scene (psychological/cultural setting) ;*
- 2. *Participants (sender+receiver+audience) ;*
- 3. *Ends (recognized and expected outcomes of an exchange);*
- 4. *Act sequence (message content & form = actual form and content of what is said/written : the precise words used, how they are used, and the relationship of what is said to the actual topic at hand) ;*
- 5. *Key (code=tone , manner, or spirit in which a message is conveyed + nonverbal kinds of behavior, gesture, posture, deportment) ;*
- 6. *Instrumentalities (choice of channel) ;*
- 7. *Norms of Interaction and interpretation (loudness , silence , gaze return..) ;* 8. *Genre (types of utterance : poems , proverbs , lectures , editorials , riddles , sermons, prayers..)*

ethnography: dân tộc học.

2: Why is the Ethnography of SPEAKING studied?

- 1. The term of Ethnography of SPEAKING is used to refer to the study of the *nature* and *function* of communicative behaviour in the context of culture ;
- 2. The term of Ethnography of SPEAKING is used to refer to the study of *how people in a community communicate with each other and how the social relationships between these people affect the type of language they use.*
- 3. The study of the Ethnography of SPEAKING will better human communication, help communicators understand more deeply the relation between politeness, solidarity, power in communication...

4.2. TALK & SILENCE

1. Significance of SILENCE

- 1. In communication, cultural rules determine **who** may or may not speak in certain settings, **when** to speak and when to remain silent, **whom** one may speak to, **how** one may use the routines for turn - talking in conversation, **how** one uses speech acts in appropriate settings,...
- 2. Cultural rules are realized **through patterns of communication used in daily formal and informal social interaction** such as Sunday morning sermon, inaugural address, weddings, funerals, chat, under the forms of proverbs, linguistic routines, patterns of greetings, leave taking, curses, ...
- 3. Every culture has particular rules in patterns of communication and cross - cultural differences can result in **cultural misunderstanding** in social interaction.

2. Factors affecting talk and silence are:

- *(a) age;*
- *(b) sex;*
- *(c) family relations;*
- *(d) social relations;*
- *(e) positions;*
- *(f) professions;*
- *(g) events, situations;*
- *(h) cultural rules;*
- *(i) taboos...*

(h) cultural rules;

(i) taboos...

5. SILENCE conveys various meanings based on the different situations and the different roles of participants. For example:

SITUATION	PARTICIPANTS	MEANINGS
1. in the presence of outsiders	1. Wife keeps silent	(a) politeness (b) respects husband
2. meeting strangers	2. Children keep silent	(a) shyness (b) politeness
3. when verbally disciplined	3. Children keep silent	(a) accepting mistakes
4. in the initial stage of courting behaviour	4. Lovers	(a) love
5. in funerals	5. guests	(a) sympathy

5. TALK conveys various meanings based on the different situations and the different roles of participants. For example:

<i>SITUATION</i>	<i>PARTICIPANTS</i>	<i>MEANINGS</i>
<i>1. in the presence of outsiders</i>	<i>1. Husband talks</i>	<i>(a) politeness (b) respects guests</i>
<i>2. meeting</i>	<i>2. Participants</i>	<i>(a) keeping communication open among people (b) maintaining peaceful social relationships</i>

<i>3.in classroom</i>	<i>3. Teacher talks</i>	<i>(a)giving knowledge to students (b)showing knowledge</i>
<i>4.in wedding parties</i>	<i>4. guests</i>	<i>(a) sharing happiness</i>

4.3 LINGUISTIC ROUTINES

The concept of Linguistic Routine (Gambits)

(Thói quen ngôn ngữ hàng ngày/thường nói)

1. Concept: Linguistic routines are expressions occurring regularly in recurrent (tái diễn) social situations.

2. Characteristics:

- a- Routines are highly ritualized; (ngghi thức/lễ)
- b- Routines are idiomatic, therefore, their meanings are not interpretable;
- c- Routines are recurrent sequences;
- d- Routines are predictable exchanges;
- e- Routines are accompanied with non-verbal behaviour,
- f- Routines are formulaic or conventional utterances.

The importance of the study of Linguistic Routine in the Ethnography of SPEAKING

- *1. Linguistic Routines show the nature and the function of the Ethnography of SPEAKING;*
- *2. The study of Linguistic Routines helps us understand that:*

(a) Routines occur in every part of communication (opening, discussion, closing)

In the Classroom:

1. Opening:

<i>Greeting:</i>	<i>Good afternoon!</i>
	<i>Good afternoon!</i>
<i>Apology:</i>	<i>Excuse me, I'm late!</i>
	<i>No problem!</i>

2.Presentation:

Warm-up: Today,Now, Open the book, Turn to page...
Open the book!

Presentation: Open the book!
Copy !
listen, please! repeat after me!

Discussion: May I ask you a question?
May I go out?
May I interrupt you?
For example,....
Or...
I mean...
I don't say so...

Conclusion: Please come back home and do the exercises
on page...

3.Closing:

- *Thank you for your listening!*
- *Now, I think you are very tired...*
- *I would like to check your name list....*

(b) Linguistic routines are determined by cultural rules:

- + *Some universal linguistic routines (in universal social situations such as meals, weddings, funerals,...)*
- + *Some different linguistic routines due to having no direct equivalence in the other cultures such as BBQ party in Australia.*
- + *Some social situations are similar in 2 cultures but linguistic routines are different such as complimenting and thanking;*
- + *Two languages may share a similar routine but uses are different such as thanking (formal or informal in some cultures)*

SAMPLE ANALYSIS

XIV.

Woman: (1) Pan AM.

Man: (2) Oh, hello Pan Am, (3) Erm...I'm wondering what your flights are from London to San Francisco.

Woman: (4) We have one flight per day from London to San Francisco.

Man: (5) Ah... one a day.

Woman: (6) It departs... (7) yes... it departs ten twenty-five a.m.

Man: (8) Yeah.

Woman: (9) And arrives at one ten p.m. local time.

Man: (10) I see, (11) and... erm... does that flight do from Gatwick or Heathrow?

Woman: (12) It goes from Heathrow.

Man: (13) OK, fine, (14) erm ... can you tell me the price of a ... (15) well, let's have a one-way ticket please?

Woman: (16) A one-way ticket.

Man: (17) Yeah ...

Woman: (18) ...to San Francisco. (19) Economy class. (20) That's three hundred and eight pounds.

Man: (21) **That's economy?**

Woman: (22) **Yes.**

Man: (23) **OK, that'll do fine.** (24) Erm ...I'll call you back on this. (25) Thank you very much for the information.

Woman: (26) **Er ...you don't want to make a reservation now?**

Man: (27) **No.** (28) **I'll call you back.**

Woman: (29) **All right.**

Man: (30) **Bye bye now.**

Woman: (31) **Bye bye.**

CHAPTER 5: LANGUAGE CHANGE

Language Change

- All languages change with time. It is fortunate for us that though language change, they do so **rather slowly** compared with to human life span. Evidence of linguistic change is found in the history of individual languages, and in the regular correspondences that exist between different languages and dialects.
- **All parts of language may change.** That is, phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical, and semantic changes occur. The particular type of changes were discussed: phonemes, phonological and syntactic rules, and words may be added , lost, or altered. The meanings of words also change.

5.1. Causes for language change

5.1.1. External reasons:

- Historical changes
- War- Colonism
- Social changes
- Cultural contacts

5.1.2. Internal reasons:

- Language contacts
- Articulatory, Grammatical Simplification
- Purification (gạn lọc)

5.2. Ways of change:

- Slowest changes in idea organization and presentation
- Slow changes in grammar rules
- Gradual changes in pronunciation
- Fast changes in semantic choices
- Fastest changes in vocabulary

5.3. Types of Change

5.3.1. Phonetic Change

- a. Loss of sounds,*
- b. Addition of new words,*
- c. Assimilation,*
- d. Influences from other phonological system.*

5.3.2. Semantic-Lexical Change

- a. Loss of old words / meanings,*
- b. Addition of new words / meanings, and*
- c. Change of meanings (narrowing, broadening, amelioration, pejoration, transfer...).*

5.3.3. Grammatical Changes

a. Loss of inflections,

*b. Appearance of new inflections / forms/
structure,*

c. Simplification of old forms.

5.3.4. Borrowing (*external and internal*)

5.3.5 Changes in the language choice

PHONOLOGICAL CHANGES

1. Assimilation

Two adjacent consonants within a word or at word boundaries often influence each other in such a way that the articulation of one sound becomes similar to or even identical with the articulation of the other one.

2. Degrees of Assimilation:

2.1. Complete Assimilation: For example, *horse shoe* /ho:s Ńu:/ --- > /'ho: Ńu:/.

2.2. Partial Assimilation: For example, in the assimilation of the alveolar variants of the consonants /t/, /d/, /n/, /l/, /s/, /z/ to the dental consonant /θ/ and /ð/ the main phonemic features of the former are retained, but the point of articulation is changed, and they are replaced by the dental variants of the same phonemes under the influence of the following /θ/ and /ð/. Another example is the assimilation of the sound /v/ in *fivepence* /faiv pɛns/ --- > /faifpɛns/.

2.3. Intermediate Assimilation: Examples of intermediate assimilation are *gooseberry* /'guzbɔ̃ri/, where /s/ in *goose* /gu:s/ is replaced by /z/ under the influence of /b/ in *berry*; /'ko ŋ gres/, where /n/ is replaced by /ŋ/ under the influence of /g/.

2. Accommodation

In accommodation the accommodated sound does not change its main phonemic features and is pronounced as a variant of the same phoneme slightly modified under the influence of a neighbouring sound. In modern English there are six main types of accommodation:

2.1. Rounding: An unrounded variant of a consonant phoneme is replaced by its rounded variant under the influence of a following rounded vowel phoneme, as at the beginning of the following words :

**Unrounded variants of
consonant**

/ti:/ *tea*
/les/ *less*

**Rounded variants of
consonant**

/tu:/ *too*
/lu:s/ *loose*

2.2. Nasalization: a vowel becomes nasalized when it stands before, after or between nasal consonants.

For example: *at, attack* ---> *an, mad, man*

2.3. Aspiration: a consonant /p, t, k/ becomes aspirated when it stands before a vowel except rounded vowels. For example: *hat, stop, sky* ---> *time, people, can*

2.4. Syllabication: some clusters of consonants become syllabic when they are pronounced as a syllable with a vowel inserted between them. For example: /pl, bl, tl, dn/ ---> *apple, table, little, garden*

3.Elision

The nature of elision may be stated quite simply : under certain circumstances sounds disappear : one might express this in more technical language by saying that in certain circumstances a phoneme may be realized as zero, or have zero realization. As with assimilation, elision is typical of rapid, casual speech. We will look at some examples of elision:

3.1.Loss of weak vowel after p,t, k. In words like *potato*, *tomato*, *canary*, *perhaps*, *today*, the vowel in the first syllable may disappear; the aspiration of the initial plosive takes up the whole of the middle portion of the syllable, resulting in these pronunciations : /p'teitou/, /t'ma:tou/

3.2.Avoidance of complex consonant clusters. E.g. *acts* ---> /æks/, *looked back* /luk bæk/

3.3.Loss of final v in "of" before consonants. E.g. *lots of them* /lot ə ðəm/

3.4.Contractions of grammatical words. E.g. *Had*---> 'd; *Is* --> 's

4. Weakening:

In English speech, there are certain words which have two forms of pronunciation:

- a- strong, or full, form and
- b- weak, or reduced form.

As an example, the word *can* can be pronounced as /kæn/ (strong form) or /kən/, /kn/ (weak forms). The words which can have both strong forms and weak forms belong to a category which might be called grammatical words. It is important to remember that there are certain contexts where only the strong form is acceptable, and others where the weak form is the normal pronunciation.

There are three degrees of the reduction of strong forms:

1. The reduction of the length of a vowel without changing its quality

Strong form

You [ju:]

He [hi:]

Your [jo:]

Weak forms with qualitative reduction

[ju] [ju]

[hi] [hi]

[jo] [jo]

2. The second degree of reduction consists in changing the quality of a vowel

Strong forms

For [fo:]

Her [hə]

Weak forms with qualitative reduction

[fə]

[hə]

3. The third degree involves the omission of a vowel or consonant.

Strong form

Am [æm]

Of [ov]

Can [kæən]

Weak forms

[m]

[v]

[kn] [kŋ]

5. Linking and Insertion of /r/

In natural communication, we sometimes link words together.

5.1. The normal linking is:

Ex.: What time is it? (It's half past twelve.)

5.2. The most familiar case is the use of **linking r**.

Examples are:

- a- *here* / hiə / but *here are* / hiərə /
 four / fo: / *for egg* / fo: regz /
- b- *formula A* / fo:miələr ei /
- c- *media event* / mi: diər ivent /

Sometimes we should be careful when we link words together. For example, / maitrein / can be *my train* or *might rain*.

6. Reverse:

For example: đầu tiên - □ tiền đâu

LEXICAL AND SEMANTIC CHANGE

Lexical and Semantic Change through 3 main processes of Derivation:

Derivation is the process of forming new words according to a (fairly) regular patterns on the basis of pre-existing word.

1. ***a morphological process*** (e.g. changing the shape of a word by adding a prefix or suffix) = **word-formation**
2. ***a syntactic process*** (changing the part of speech of a word, e.g. from verb to noun) = **word-formation**
3. ***a semantic process*** (producing a new sense).

LEXICAL AND SEMANTIC CHANGE

WORD FORMATION

1. **AFFIXATION** : adding affixes to the old roots/ words
Ex.: GANGSTER, LONDONER, NON-SMOKING
2. **COMPOUNDING** : joining the old roots/ words
Ex.: EASY-GOING, MISSING-IN-ACTION
3. **CONVERSION** : changing the word classes of the old words
Ex.: KNIFE (n) ---> KNIFE (v),
MOTHER (n)---->MOTHER (v)
4. **BACK-FORMATION** : shortening the ending of the old words
Ex.: BURGLE (v) <-----BURGLAR,
TELEWISE (v) <-----TELEVISION (n)

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5. **ABBREVIATION / CLIPPING** : shortening the initial, middle, or / and final parts of the old words
Ex.: (IN)FLU(ENZA), (TELE)PHONE, EXAM(INATION)

6. **ACRONYMY / INITIALISM** : shortening the final parts of each word in the old phrases and joining their initial parts into one new word
Ex.: A(TOMIC)-BOMB, UN, UNESCO,...

7. **BLENDING** : shortening the final part of the first word and the initial part of the second word and blending them into one new word having the new concept
Ex.: SM(OKE) + (F)OG = SMOG, TRANSISTOR,...

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8. **REDUPLICATION** : doubling the old words by repeating the same rhyme of the old words

Ex.: TALKIE-WALKIE, TICK-TOCK,

9. **BORROWING** : borrowing the foreign words and changing the sounds by assimilation

Ex.: SOVIET, SPUTNIK,...

10. **INTERNATIONAL TRANSLATION**:

Ex.: 3-READINESS MOVEMENT;

3-NO CAMPAIGN- 3-YES CAMPAIGN;

RED AND EXPERT;

ROUND TABLE DISCUSSION;

1ST 5-YEAR PLAN

LEXICAL AND SEMANTIC CHANGE

1- *Semantic broadening*

- Semantic broadening is the process in which the meaning of a word becomes more general or more inclusive than its historical earlier form.

Examples:

- Bird : *small fowl* -> *any avian*
- Barn : *place to store barley* -> *any agricultural building*
- Aunt : *father's sister* -> *father's or mother's sister*

2. *Semantic narrowing*

- Semantic narrowing is the process in which the meaning of a word becomes less general or less inclusive than its historically earlier meaning. Examples:

- Meat : *any type of food* -> *flesh of an animal*
- Fowl : *any bird* -> *a domestic bird*
- Disease : *any unfavourable state* -> *an illness*

3. Amelioration

- In amelioration the meaning of a word becomes more positive or more favourable. Examples:
- Pretty: *tricky, sly, cunning* -> *attractive*
- Knight: *boy* -> *a man of honorable military rank*

4. Pejoration

- In pejoration, the meaning of a word becomes more negative or unfavourable. Examples:
- Silly: *happy, prosperous* -> *foolish*
- Wench: *girl* -> *wanton woman, prostitute*

5. Semantic weakening

In this process of language change, the meaning of the word becomes weakened. Examples:

Wreak: avenge, punish -> to cause, to inflict

Quell: kill, murder -> to put down, to pacify

6. Semantic shift

Semantic shift is a process in which a word loses its former meaning taking on a new, but often related, meaning. Attention is usually paid to the following phenomena of semantic shift (or the transference of meaning): metaphor and metonymy.

Metaphor

Metaphor is a figure of speech based on a perceived similarity between distinctive objects or actions. Metaphorical change usually involves a word with a concrete meaning taking on a more abstract sense, although the word's original meaning is not lost. The meanings of many English words have been extended through metaphor.

Metaphor may be based on similarity of

- a- shape (e.g. *head of a cabbage*),
- b- position (e.g. *the tail of procession*),
- c- movement (e.g. *the caterpillar of a tank*),
- d- function (e.g. *the finger of the instrument*),
- e- colour (e.g. *orange*), and
- f- size (e.g. *elephantine*).

More examples about the old meanings of the words:

- *Grasp* -> *understand*
- *Yarn* -> *story*
- *High* -> *on drugs*
- *Down* -> *depressed*
- *Sharp* -> *smart*
- *Dull* -> *stupid*

Metonymy

Metonymy can be considered as the semantic shift on the basis of the real relation between different objects.

This kind of meaning transfer can be based on

a-the use of the name of the container for the thing contained (e.g. *the auditorium* for the audience),

b-the name of a material for the thing made from the material (e.g. *the marble, the iron..*),

c-the name of a part used for the whole (e.g. *roof* for a house).

FURTHER READING: SỰ PHÁT TRIỂN CỦA NGÔN NGỮ

1. Ngôn ngữ phát triển theo sự phát triển của xã hội loài người qua những chặng đường khúc khuỷu, quanh co, rất phức tạp, trong đó, quá trình thống nhất và quá trình phân li chằng chéo lẫn nhau.

1.1. Ngôn ngữ bộ lạc và các biến thể của nó.

1.2. Ngôn ngữ khu vực.

1.3. Ngôn ngữ dân tộc và các biến thể của nó.

Ví dụ: *tiếng Pháp từ chất liệu vốn có (tiếng Latin + tiếng Celtic), tiếng Anh do pha trộn nhiều dân tộc (Anglo, Saxon, Norse, Danes, Celtic), tiếng Nga do sự tập trung của các tiếng địa phương.*

1.4. Ngôn ngữ văn hoá và các biến thể của nó.

1.5. Ngôn ngữ cộng đồng tương lai: quốc tế ngữ (tiếng Esperanto, tiếng Anh quốc tế (International English), biến thể quốc tế của một ngôn ngữ (British English, American English, Australian English, SingEnglish, VietEnglish,...).

2.Cách thức phát triển của ngôn ngữ:

2.1.Ngôn ngữ phát triển từ từ, liên tục, không đột biến nhảy vọt.

2.2.Ngôn ngữ phát triển không đồng đều giữa các mặt: ngữ pháp phát triển chậm nhất, ngữ âm phát triển chậm, không đều, từ vựng phát triển nhanh nhất.

3.Những nhân tố khách quan và chủ quan làm cho ngôn ngữ biến đổi và phát triển

3.1.Những nhân tố khách quan: chiến tranh, phân chia lãnh thổ, thuộc địa hoá, giao lưu văn hoá, đồng hoá,...

3.2.Những nhân tố chủ quan:

3.2.1.*Biến đổi nội bộ của ngôn ngữ.*

3.2.2.*Chủ trương tôn trọng tiếng mẹ đẻ của các dân tộc.*

3.2.3.*Khuyến khích các dân tộc học tập 1 ngôn ngữ làm phương tiện giao tiếp chung.*

3.2.4. Dân chủ hoá, quần chúng hoá ngôn ngữ...

4. Những phương thức phát triển của ngôn ngữ:

4.1. Cấu tạo từ mới

4.2. Bổ sung nghĩa mới bằng chuyển nghĩa

4.3. Loại bỏ từ cũ

4.4. Loại bỏ nghĩa cũ

4.5. Vay mượn

4.6. Chuyển dần ngôn ngữ thông tục thành ngôn ngữ chuẩn mực