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Summary

Universal #1926 as specified in Plank and Filimonova's Universals Archive assumes that there is a universal iconic tendency for diminutives to contain high front vowels in their morphological markers. Ultan (1978) and Niewenhuis (1985) add that palatal and post-alveolar consonants prevail in diminutives. However, the recent research on phonetic iconicity in evaluative morphology has not proved the mentioned sound symbolism (cf. e.g. Bauer 1996, Štekauer et al. 2009, Gregová – Körtvélyessy – Zimmermann 2010). But evaluative morphemes seem to cause various (mor)phonological changes in word stems.

The analysis of changes of segments in word stems caused by evaluative affixes in Slavonic languages shows that there are some differences between individual languages which indicate the areal nature of phonetic symbolism in diminutives.

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LANGUAGE VARIATION

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The branch of linguistics, named as sociolinguistics is the study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used; or it talks about how and why people use language to interact with others in their society. It also studies how varieties differ between groups separated by certain social variables, e.g., ethnicity, religion, status, gender, level of education, etc., and how creation and adherence to these rules is used to categorize individuals in social class or socio-economic classes. Its other focus is on the situation existing in the society when it is possible to use two or more languages distinctively. Related to this situation, bilingualism or multilingualism becomes also an interesting matter discussed in

sociolinguistics. Of course, sociolinguistics concerns also with an inevitable phenomenon, as a result of bilingualism or multilingualism, how the members of a society create new code by adopting and combining some of elements from two or more languages. Therefore, how a language changes and develops from time to time, and how a government plans an authorized long-term sustained and conscious effort to alter a language's function in a society for the purpose of solving communication problems, are also important parts of this study.

Sociolinguistics differs from sociology of language in that the focus of sociolinguistics is the effect of the society on the language, while the latter's focus is on the language's effect on the society. Sociolinguistics is different from many of the other branches of linguistics in that it studies external as opposed to internal language. Internal language applies to the study of language on the abstract level, or in the head, put simply. External language applies to language in social contexts, or outside the head. This distinction is important, because internal language analyses, such as syntax and semantics, operate on the assumption that all native speakers of a language are quite homogeneous in how they process and perceive language. External language fields, such as sociolinguistics, attempt to explain why this is in fact not the case. Sociolinguistics as a field distinct from dialectology was pioneered through the study of language variation in urban areas. Whereas dialectology studies the geographic distribution of language variation, sociolinguistics focuses on other sources of variation, among them class. Class and occupation is one of the most important linguistic markers found in society.

It is very natural that two persons from the same speech community seem to use a little bit different pronunciation and even grammar in their communication. The differences in pronunciation and grammar of a language do not lead to the existence of two distinct languages, but they are only varieties of a language. Variety can be defined as a set of linguistic items including pronunciation, words, and grammar with similar distribution associated with geographical or social factors. According to Wardhugh, variety is defined in terms of a specific set of linguistic items or human speech patterns presumably, sound, words, and grammatical features which can uniquely associate with some external factors presumably a geographical area or a social group [Wardhaugh 1986:22].

The varieties of a language that differ in some of pronunciation, words, and grammars from the others are known as *dialect*. The dialect which is associated with regional factors is called *regional dialect*; while the one which is associated with social class status is known as *social dialect*. Differences in pronunciations are of two types: totally patterned and partially patterned. In one hand, a totally patterned difference is one in which the sound behaves consistently in a particular situation. For example, in some parts of the country, especially New England, the pronunciation of "r" is lost before consonants and in word-final position as in *Park the car* which is pronounced as /pa:k ðə ka:/. On the other hand, partially patterned difference may occur in a few words or even in only one. The partially patterned sound is not consistent throughout the dialect. In most Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, *wash* is pronounced /worʃ/ by adding the "r", but the pronunciation *bosh* and *josh* has no "r" sound [Clark 1997:359].

As explained above, language varieties differ in some words or vocabularies from the others. This difference is due to that a language may have many synonyms to show different shades of meaning. The choice of the words may reveal or indicate many facts about his age, sex, education, occupation, and his geographical and cultural origins. The choice of *ice box*, and *spider* instead of *refrigerator* and *frying pan* in Northern dialect of English indicates older native speakers as both words are not well known in modern English. The vocabulary used also indicates whether the speaker is male or female. In their conversation boys tend to talk about sports, automobile, or war; while, girls prefer to talk about nursery, fashions, making cakes, or sewing. This affects the way they choose the vocabularies. The boys are more familiar with *gun, bullet, screwdriver, puller, thank, bomb, boxing, gasoline, football, basketball,* and so on; but the girls know very well the words like, *pregnant, midwife, menstruation, giving birth, gown, strings, sewing machine, tarts, pies, skirts, ingredient, mode,* so on. Educational background may also be indicated by the choice of vocabularies. Well-educated persons prefer using the words from prestigious dialect to those from the lower one. Besides, they also learn specialized vocabularies of psychology, physics, and other before they are fully accepted as insider. The occupations may also be revealed by the choices of vocabulary. The words *semantics, psycholinguistics, phonemes, lexemes, syntax, morphemes, affixes, prefixes, and suffixes* indicate that the user of those words is specialized in linguistics; while the words *injection, medicines, blood pressure, heart attack, angina, influenza, fever, cough, stomachache, and drug stores* refer to medical field. It is well known that certain words indicate where the person is from. American uses *sidewalk, elevator, chimney stack* and *first floor,* instead of *pavement, lift, smokestack* and *ground floor.* In addition to pronunciation and vocabulary differences in dialects, there are differences which involve matters of grammar, such things as past tenses of verbs, plural nouns, and word order (syntax) patterns. For example, many people use *dived* as the past tense of the verb *dive.* Others use *dove.* Still others use both forms. Likewise, some people say *this is as far as I go.* Others habitually say *this is all the farther I go.* These forms are used by educated and respectable people, and their English is considered equally educated and respectable. If one or two of the above examples sound strange or wrong to someone, then he is probably living in an area which uses the alternative form. This does not mean that his way is better or worse—only that it is different. On the other hand, some variants of grammatical items are used by relatively uneducated people. For the past tense of *dive* they might use the forms *dove* or *dived.* For the distance statement they might say *this is the furtherest I go* or *this is the fartherest I go* [Clark 1997: 379-380].

As discussed above, a language may have varieties used by people from a particular geographic area or social class. They differ at least in three aspects: pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. The varieties of a language are commonly known as dialects. Of the dialects, there must be one that receives higher prestige than the others as it is used in governmental activities and education; and is widely used by the people in various areas of fields. This higher dialect is called a standard dialect and the lower dialect is named as nonstandard dialect. A standard dialect also known as standard language is a dialect that is supported by institutions. Such institutional support may include

government recognition or designation; presentation as being the "correct" form of a language in schools; published grammars, dictionaries, and textbooks that set forth a "correct" spoken and written form; and an extensive formal literature that employs that dialect (prose, poetry, nonfiction, etc.). There are no universally accepted criteria for distinguishing *language (standard)* from *dialects (nonstandard)*, although a number of paradigms exist, which render sometimes contradictory results. One attempt has already been proposed by R.T. Bell [Bell 1976: 147-57] who has listed seven criteria that may be useful in discussing different kinds of languages. These criteria consisting of standardization, vitality, historicity, autonomy, reduction, mixture, and de facto norms, may be used to distinguish one type of language from another.

Standardization refers to the process by which a language has been codified in some way that usually involves the development of such things as grammars and dictionaries. Governments sometimes very deliberately involve themselves in the standardization process by establishing official bodies of one kind or another to regulate language matters or to encourage changes which are felt desirable. Standardization is sometimes deliberately undertaken quite rapidly for political reasons. Besides, it is also obviously one which attempts either to reduce or eliminate diversity and variety. The standardization performs a variety of functions that are to unify individuals and groups within a larger community while at the same time separating the community that results from other communication; to reflect and symbolize some kind of identity; and to give prestige to the speakers marking off those who employ it from those who do not. *Vitality* refers to the existence of a living community of speakers. This criterion can be used to distinguish languages that are alive from those that are dead. Many languages while not dead yet, nevertheless are palpably dying: the number of people who speak them diminishes drastically each year and the process seems irreversible, so that the best one can say of their vitality is that it is flagging. A language can remain a considerable force even after it is dead, that is, even after it is no longer spoken as anyone's first language and exists almost exclusively in one or more written forms, knowledge of which is acquired only through formal education. Classical Greek and Latin still have considerable prestige in the Western world, and speakers of many modern languages continue to draw on them in a variety of ways. *Historicity* refers to the fact that a particular group of people finds a sense of identity through using a particular language: it belongs to them. Social, political, religious, or ethnic ties may also be important for the group, but the bond provided by a common language may prove to be the strongest tie of all. Historicity can be long-standing: speakers of the different varieties of colloquial Arabic make much of a common linguistic ancestry, as obviously do speakers of Chinese. *Autonomy* is an interesting concept because it is really one of feeling. A language must be felt by its speakers to be different from other languages. However, this is a very subjective criterion. Some speakers of Black English maintain that their language is not a variety of English but is a separate language in its own right. *Reduction* refers to the fact that a particular variety may be regarded as a sub-variety rather than as an independent entity. Speakers of Cockney will almost certainly say that they speak a variety of English, will admit that they are not 'representative' speakers of English, and will recognize the existence of other

varieties with equivalent subordinate status. Sometimes the reduction is in the kinds of opportunities afforded to users of the variety. For example, there may be a reduction of resources; that is, the variety may lack a writing system. Or there may be considerable restrictions in use; e.g., pidgin languages are much reduced in the functions they serve in society in contrast to standardized languages.

Mixture refers to feelings speakers have about the 'purity' of the variety they speak. This criterion appears to be more important to speakers of some languages than of others, e.g., more important to speakers of French and German than to speakers of English. However, it partly explains why speakers of pidgins and creoles have difficulty in classifying what they speak as full languages: these varieties are, in certain respects, quite obviously 'mixed', and the people who speak them often feel that the varieties are neither one thing nor another, but rather are debased, deficient, degenerate, or marginal varieties of some other standard language. *De facto norms* refer to the feeling that many speakers have that there are both 'good' speakers and 'poor' speakers and that the good speakers represent the norms of proper usage. Sometimes this means focusing on one particular subvariety as representing the 'best' usage. Standards must not only be established (by the first criterion above), but they must also be observed. When all the speakers of a language feel that it is badly spoken or badly written almost everywhere, that language may have considerable difficulty in surviving; in fact, such a feeling is often associated with a language that is 'dying'. Concern with the norms of linguistic behavior may become very important among specific segments of society. For example, so far as English is concerned, there is a quite profitable industry devoted to telling people how they should behave linguistically, what it is 'correct' to say, what to avoid saying, and so on. People's feelings about norms have important consequences for an understanding of both variation and change in language. Trying to decide whether something is or is not a language or in what ways languages are alike and different can be quite troublesome. There is usually little controversy over the fact that they are either regional or social varieties of something that is widely acknowledged to be a language. That is true even of the relationship of Cantonese and Mandarin to Chinese if the latter is given a 'generous' interpretation as a language. Some people are also aware that the standard variety of any language is actually only the preferred dialect of that language: Parisian French and Florentian Italian. It is the variety that has been chosen for some reason, perhaps political, social, or economic, or some combination of reasons, to serve as either the model or the norm for other varieties. As a result, the standard is often not called a dialect at all, but is regarded as the language itself. One consequence is that all other varieties become related to that standard in some way and may be regarded as dialects of that standard [Wardhaugh 1986: 32-6].

It is widely accepted norm that most of western people are able to use a single language in their communication at home, school, or in other public places. Such ability is termed as monolingualism and the person who acquires this ability is called monolingual. However, it is also possible to find out that a single language has two or more varieties or dialects associated with the region where the people live; that is what

is named as regional variation. In many countries, regional variation is not simply a matter of two dialects of a single language, but a matter of two or more quite distinct and different languages. According to Wardhaugh, a diglossic situation exists in a society when it has two codes which show clear functional separation; that is one is employed in one set of circumstances and the other in an entirely different set [Wardhaugh 1986: 87]. Ferguson [1959: 336] defines diglossia as follows: *Diglossia is 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 is not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation.* Diglossia as explained above can be understood in terms of narrow and broad sense. In the narrow sense, diglossia means situation that exists in a society when it has two varieties: high variety and low variety which show clear functional separation. Such a diglossia has three crucial features: 1) two distinct varieties of the same language are used in the community, with one regarded as a high (H) variety and the other a low (L) variety; 2) each variety is used for quite distinct functions: H and L complement each other; 3) no one uses the H variety in everyday conversation [Holmes 2001: 27].

In more detailed explanation, Wardhaugh [1986: 88-9] proposes six features to define diglossia: 4) two varieties are kept quite apart functionally. One is used in one set of circumstances and the other in entirely different set; 5) one does not use an H variety in circumstances calling for an L variety, e.g., for addressing a servant; nor does one usually use an L variety when an H is called for, e.g., for writing a serious work; 6) the H variety is the prestige variety; the L variety lacks prestige; 7) considerable body of literature is found to exist in H variety and almost none in the other; 8) the L variety often shows a tendency to borrow learned words from H variety, particularly when speakers try to use the L variety in more formal ways; 9) all children learn the L variety.

In the broad sense, diglossia means situation that exists in a society when it has two languages: national and regional language which show clear functional separation. There are features to define that diglossia: 1) two distinct languages are used in the community, with one regarded as a national (NL) and regional language (RL); 2) each variety is used for quite distinct functions: NL and RL complement each other; 3) one does not use the NL in circumstances calling for the RL, e.g., for addressing a servant; nor does one usually use the RL variety when an H is called for, e.g., for writing research; 4) the NL is the prestige language; the RL v lacks prestige; 5) literary works are mostly found to exist in the NL and almost none in the other; 6) the RL often shows a tendency to borrow learned words from the NL, particularly when speakers try to use the RL variety in more formal ways; 7) all children learn the RL.

Language will develop and develop if it has a living speech community that uses it in their interaction and communication. In its development changes may happen to its vocabulary, meanings, syntax, etc., through various processes, such as adopting

components from other languages, creating new items, eliminating the old items, etc. Consider how English, for example, develops as follows. The historical development of English is usually divided into three major periods. The Old English period is considered to last from the time of the earliest written records, the seventh century, to the end of the eleventh century. The Middle English period is from 1100 to 1500 and Modern English from 1500 to the present. One of the most obvious differences between
Modern and old English is in the quality of the vowel sounds. There are three types of changes have been documented: metathesis, epenthesis and prothesis. Metathesis involves a reversal in position of two adjoining sounds as in *bridd → bird,* and *hros → horse*. Epenthesis involves the addition of sound to the middle of the word as in *spinel → spindle* and *aemtig → empty*. Prothesis involves the addition of a sound to the beginning of the word as in (Spanish) *schola → escuela (school),* and *spiritus → espiritu (spirit).* In syntax, some noticeable differences between the structure of sentences in Old and Modern English involve word order. The old English pattern of *the subject – verb – object* is still common in Modern English, but a number of different orders are no longer possible. For example, the subject can follow the verb, as *in ferde he* ('he traveled'), and the object can be placed before the verb, as *he hine geseah* ('he saw him'), or at the beginning of the sentence *him man ne sealde* ('no man gave (any) to him'). The most obvious way in which Modern English differs lexically from Old English is in the number of borrowed words, particularly words of Latin and Greek origin, which have come into the language since the Old English period. Less obviously, many words have ceased to be used. A common Old English term for man was *were* which is no longer in general use, but within the domain of horror films, it has survived in the compound form, *werewolf*. Perhaps more interesting are the two processes of broadening and narrowing of meaning. An example of broadening of meaning is the modern use of the word dog which refers to all breeds, but in its older form it was only used for one particular breed. An example of narrowing is the word *mete,* once used for any kind of food, which has in its modern form, *meat,* becomes restricted to only some specific types [Yule 1985: 172-78].

So, in the course of our research, we have come to the **conclusion** that studying a language may cover not only its micro-aspects, such as phoneme, morpheme, and syntax; but also its macro-aspects, especially how it is used by its community. This makes language study more interesting as it deals with social phenomena that happen in a society. They, mostly, concern with language varieties, standard and dialects, bilingualism, multilingualism, and language changes.

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Summary

Sociolinguistics as the study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used introduces a new horizon in language study. This article focuses its discussion on language variety, standardization, bilingualism and multilingualism, and language changes. They are important aspects as the basis for conducting language use study seen from human's social aspects.

СТРУКТУРНО-СЕМАНТИЧЕСКИЕ ОСОБЕННОСТИ ЗВУЧАЩЕГО ТЕКСТА И ГЛОТТАЛИЗАЦИЯ ГЛАСНЫХ

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Общая тенденция, присущая современной лингвистике, заключается в раскрытии сущностных характеристик деятельности человека, в том числе и речевой деятельности, одним словом, в изучении не столько языка, сколько говорящего человека, что отражается в появившихся в лингвистике формулировках "performative turn", "performative Wende" [21: 6]. В.И. Кушнерик, соглашаясь с теоретической позицией Н. Хомского, говорит о существовании двух аспектов речевой деятельности: языка, то есть языковой способности, потенциального знания о языке (*linguistic competence*) и процесса соотношения языковой способности с конкретными высказываниями (*linguistic performance*) [8: 61; 18: 462].