

Global diffusion and local implementation – the discourse particle LIKE around the world

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Relevance and research question

- Sociolinguists have only recently begun to look at globalization from a variationist perspective (e.g. Meyerhoff & Niedzielski 2003; Buchstaller 2008; Buchstaller & D'Arcy 2009)
- Implications for the standard model of language change?

in other words...

How appropriate is the Labovian paradigm, i.e. the standard model, in cases of...

- dialect contact and multilingualism
- lexical change
- culturally diverse settings?



Labov's standard model

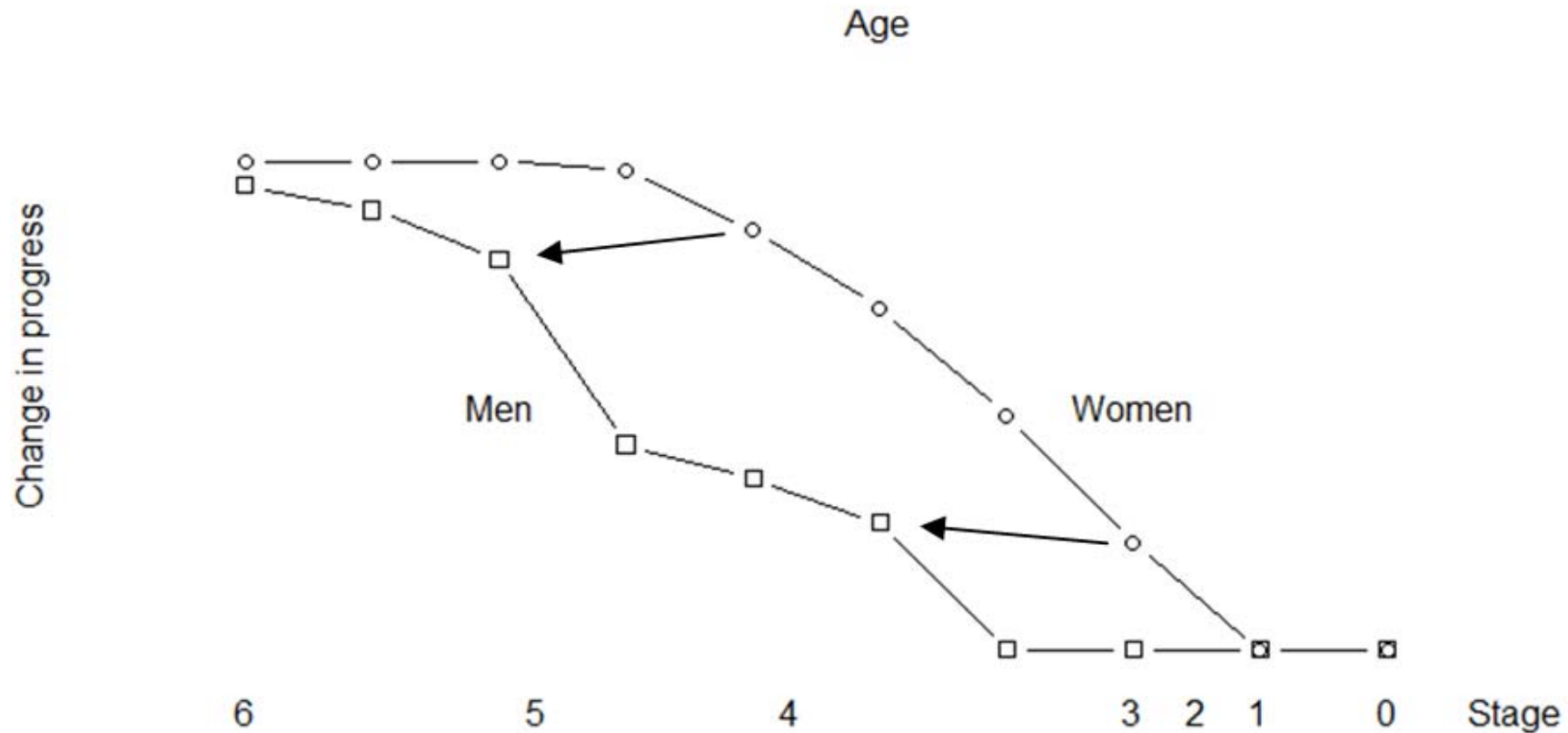


Figure 1: Six-stage model of gender relations in linguistic change from below (Labov 1994: 65)



The impact of gender

- Most of the linguistic changes which have been studied in the 2nd half of the 20th century show a high degree of social stratification and gender differentiation (Labov 1994, 2002).
- The role of women is especially crucial at the onset of change as they serve as initiators while males adopt incoming forms only later in the process.
- As a general tendency, females are approximately one generation ahead of males in their rates of incoming variants (Labov 2001: 294).



The impact of gender

- “[G]irls must rely more on symbolic manifestations of social membership than boys” (Eckert 1989: 265; cf. also Eckert 1999, 2003, 2004)
 - Female adolescents are expected to show a preference for linguistic means to indicate group membership
 - Male adolescents are expected to express group membership ...
 - less than females
 - through non-linguistic means .
- Labov’s (1994, 2002, 2010) model and Eckert’s (1989, 2003, 2004) analyses both predict that innovations are adopted first by female adolescents.



Labov's standard model (1994, 2002, 2010)

- Advantages
 - Based on many studies (highly stable)
 - High predictive and explanatory power
- Problems
 - Based mostly on studies of AmE and EngE
 - Focus on phonological changes
 - Neglect of dialect contact and multilingualism
 - (Overemphasizing generational change, the apparent time construct and face-to-face contact)

Outline

- Theoretical background
- The discourse marker LIKE
- Data cleaning, editing & processing
- Statistical design
- Results
- Summary & Discussion
- Conclusion, outlook & final remarks
- References



(1) Clause-initial LIKE

- a. *Like* every time we spend a decent amount of time together I think i'm so happy. (ICE New Zealand: S1A-055\$A)

Clause-medial LIKE

- b. No the one where they were uhm they were *like* worshipping that golden cow or something that they have made. (ICE Philippines: S1A-007\$B)

Clause-final LIKE

- c. That's amazing *like*. (ICE Ireland: S1A-036\$A)

Non-clausal LIKE

- d. I mean I love American crap especially comedies *like* crap comedies that everybody thinks are crap. (ICE GB: S1A-041\$A)



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- (2) Clause-medial LIKE
- a. Should I make *like* tartar sauce or something really decadent?
(Santa Barbara Corpus: sbc003\$Marilyn)
 - b. Cos he just won a place to *like* <,> Canterbury Cathedral Choir
School. (ICE-Canada: S1A-051\$A)
- Properties
 - Modifies element to its right (rightward scope)
 - Hedges or focuses lower level constructions
(phrases and words, not clauses and sentences)
 - Globally available innovation (occurs in almost all regional varieties)



Data editing & processing

- *International Corpus of English (ICE)*
 - Distinct regional components
 - Santa Barbara Corpus of Colloquial American English
 - ICE Canada
 - ICE Ireland
 - ICE New Zealand
 - Matching standardized design
 - Most informal register (S1A): face-to-face conversation, telephone calls (highest frequency of non-standard and discourse features)



Data editing & processing

- *International Corpus of English 2.0*
 - Extraction of the word counts for each speaker using PERL
 - Using the word counts, it was possible to calculate the per-1,000-word frequencies of clause-medial LIKE for each speaker
 - Making use of the available speaker information provided by the ICE teams the normalized frequencies of clause-medial LIKE could be correlated with extra-linguistic factors (speaker age, gender, occupation, current place of residence, education level, etc)



Variety (ICE component)	Words (SUM)	Speaker (N)	INI (N)	MED (N)	FIN (N)	NON (N)	NA (N)	ALL (N)
Canada	194,574	244	368	381	26	112	13	900
Santa Barbara C.	246,258	163	220	390	1	234	15	860
Ireland	189,787	309	249	237	318	118	14	936
New Zealand	229,193	227	209	183	20	115	2	529
SUM	859,812	943	1,046	1,191	365	579	44	3,225

Table 3: Overview of the data used for the present analysis



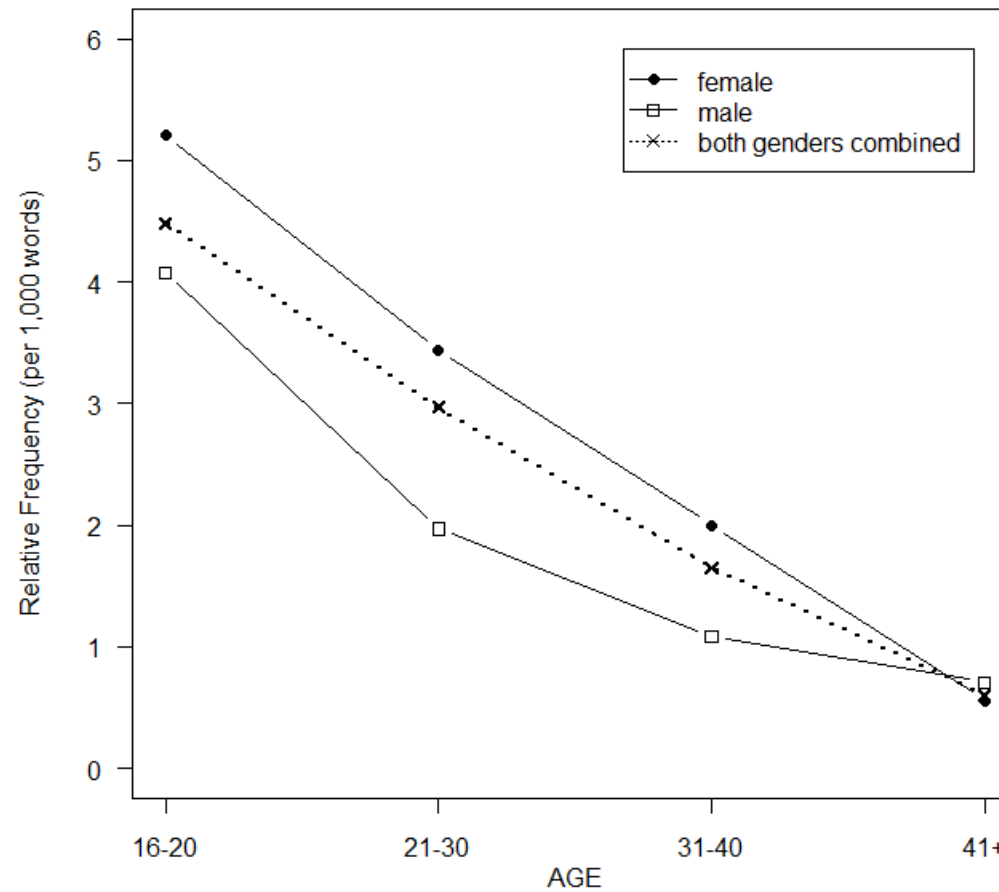
Multivariate statistics

- Multivariate regression model (Quasi-Poisson Regression)
- Dependent Variable
 - Clause-medial LIKE per 1,000 words (counts)
- Independent Variables
 - Age (nominal: age group 1, 2, 3, or 4; 1 = dummy)
 - Sex/Gender (nominal: m/f)
 - PAI (priming, accommodation, Idiosyncratic overuse; numeric)
(to save-guard against over-estimating extra-linguistic variables)



Canadian English

Clause-medial LIKE



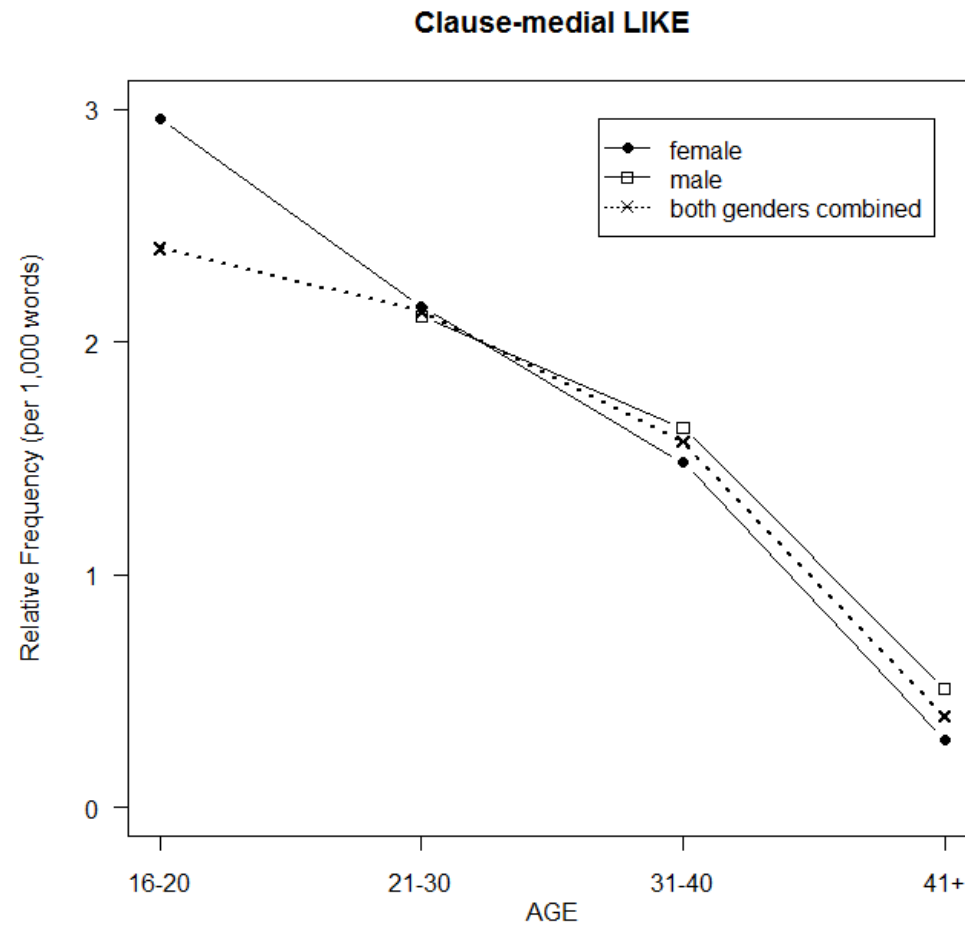
Canadian English

Real-time analysis of LIKE use in CanE comparing data compiled from 1990 to 1994 to data compiled 2001 to 2005. (non-parametric t-tests)

	A1 (16-20)	A2 (21-30)	A3 (31-40)	A4 (41+)
ALL	n.s.	N.A.	n.s.	n.s.
INI	n.s.	N.A.	n.s.	n.s.
MED	n.s.	N.A.	n.s.	n.s.
FIN	n.s.	N.A.	n.s.	n.s.
NON	-1.607.	N.A.	n.s.	n.s.

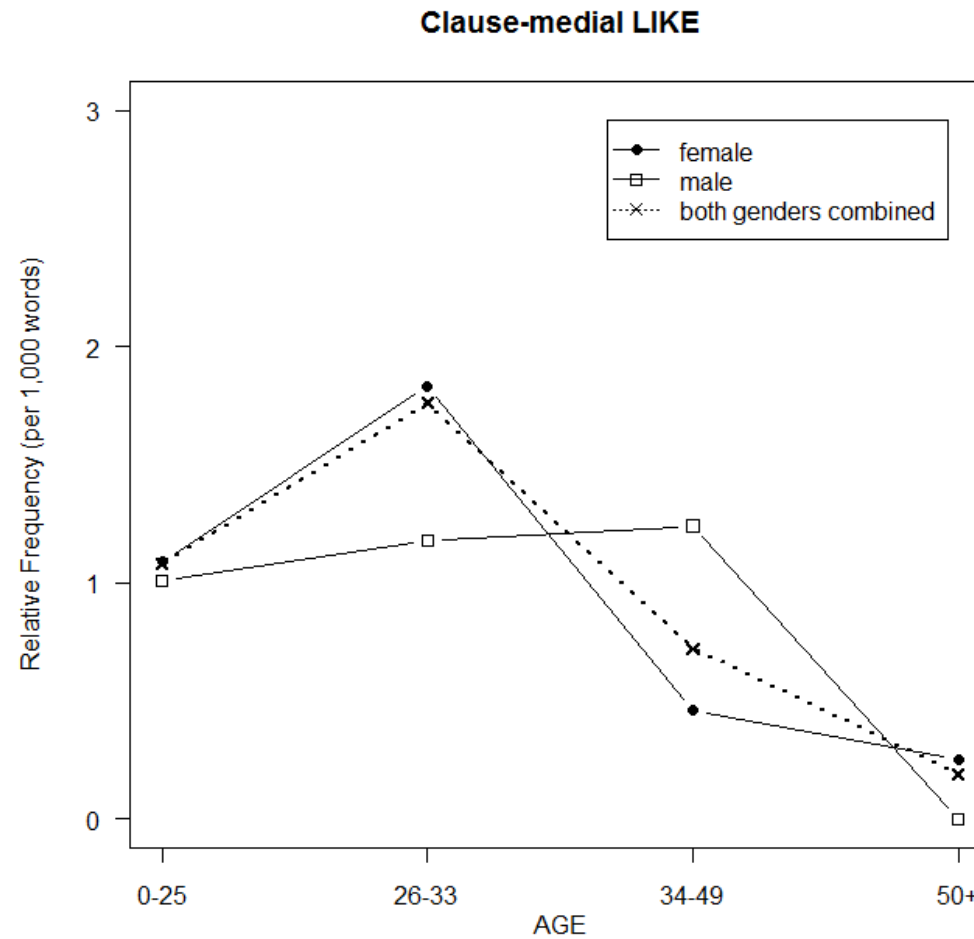


American English





Irish English



Irish English

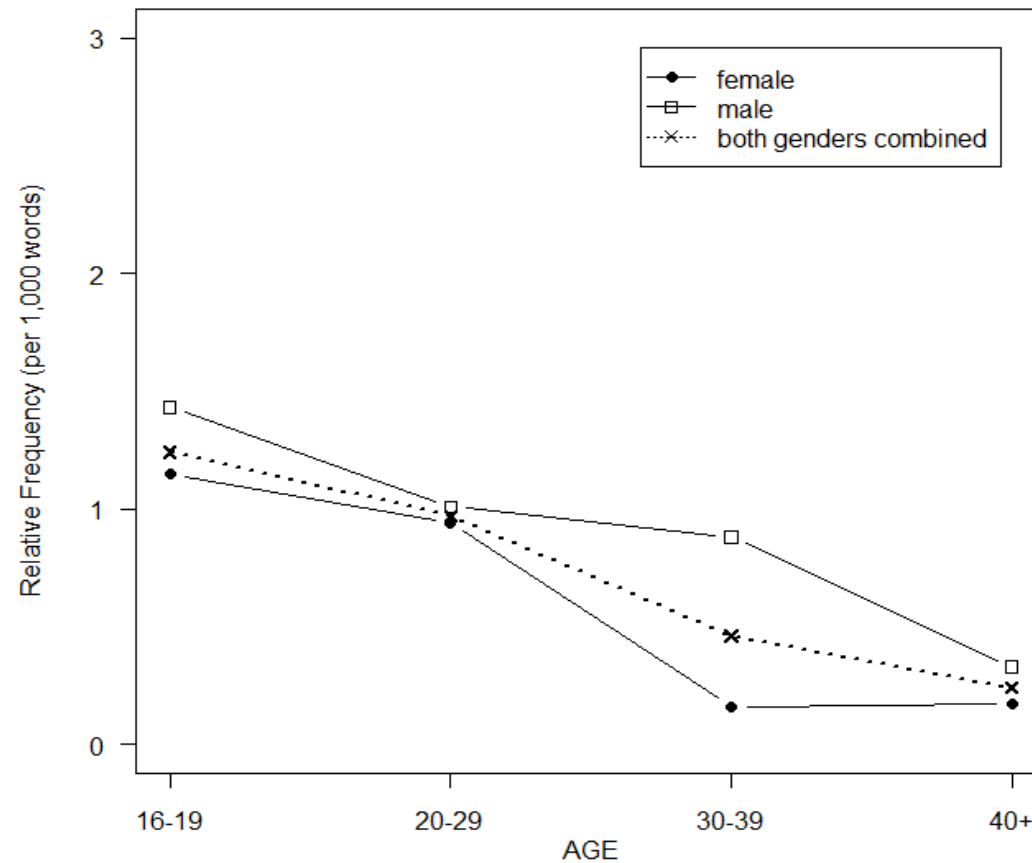
Real-time analysis of LIKE use in IrE comparing data compiled from 1990 to 1994 to data compiled 2001 to 2005. . (non-parametric t-tests)

	A1 (0-25)	A2 (26-33)	A3 (34-49)	A4 (50+)
ALL	-1.36·	-3.13**	n.s.	n.s.
INI	-1.60·	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
MED	-1.48·	-3.00**	-1.50·	n.s.
FIN	1.39·	-3.22**	n.s.	n.s.
NON	-2.29*	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.



New Zealand English

Clause-medial LIKE





Summary

- Age distributions are highly stable across varieties of English
- The effect of gender is variety specific and not universal (findings challenge biological approaches; cf. Chambers 2003: 132)
- Less gender differentiation than predicted by the standard model and by Eckert (1989, 2003, 2004)
- Generational change too slow to account for the drastic increase observed in IrE: not the only type of change involved (additional communal change)
- Real time change in some though not all varieties (confined to younger cohorts in IrE)



Summary & Discussion

- Supra-locally stable patterns

- Monotonic recess with age

The results confirm that “the association of *like* with younger speakers seems to hold across the English-speaking world” (D’Arcy 2007: 391).

- Variety-specific patterns

- Degree and direction of gender differences

“These trends show that sex differences [...] are developmental, and are learned. They do not appear to be endemic to the features themselves, but are created in the speech community, within the peer group” (Tagliamonte 2005: 1912-1913).



Summary & Discussion

- Phonological change (transmission)
 - generational change (slow)
 - Distinct social stratification and gender differentiation
 - High quality of face-to-face contact required: Media are negligible with respect to transmission (Labov 2001: 2001: 228-229, 362-363, 385)
- Lexical change (diffusion)
 - (partial) communal change (rapid)
 - Less social stratification and gender differentiation
 - No high quality of face-to-face contact required
 - Transmission via mass-media (Muhr 2003)



Summary & Discussion

- Focus on gender
 - Why is there no (near) universal effect of gender?
 - Social meaning of LIKE is variable and culture-dependent

It might not be desirable to identify with Californian „Valley girls“
 - Then why should males use it at all?
 - LIKE is not an innovation in the strict sense since similar variants (clause-final LIKE) had already been in use in Britain, Ireland and New Zealand for at least a century. Therefore, adolescent speakers might regard it as archaic rather than hip.
 - Then why do we observe the monotonic age distribution?



Summary & Discussion

- Focus on gender
 - Why is there no (near) universal effect of gender?
 - Randomness?

Not satisfactory since it does not provide predictions

Contradicts Eckert's (1989) hypothesis that females are more prone to expressing category membership by symbolic means.

- More analyses are needed...



Conclusion, outlook and final remarks

- The present investigation ...
 - strongly suggests that impact of cultural diversity and dialect contact need to be considered in cases of both local and global analyses of language change and variation.
- The larger study represents the first micro-level, sociolinguistic study which analyzes ongoing change from a truly global perspective
 - It could be expanded to investigate the diffusion of innovations through the web similar to epidemiological studies.

Thank you very much for LIKE your attention
and
I would like to thank the committee for inviting me!



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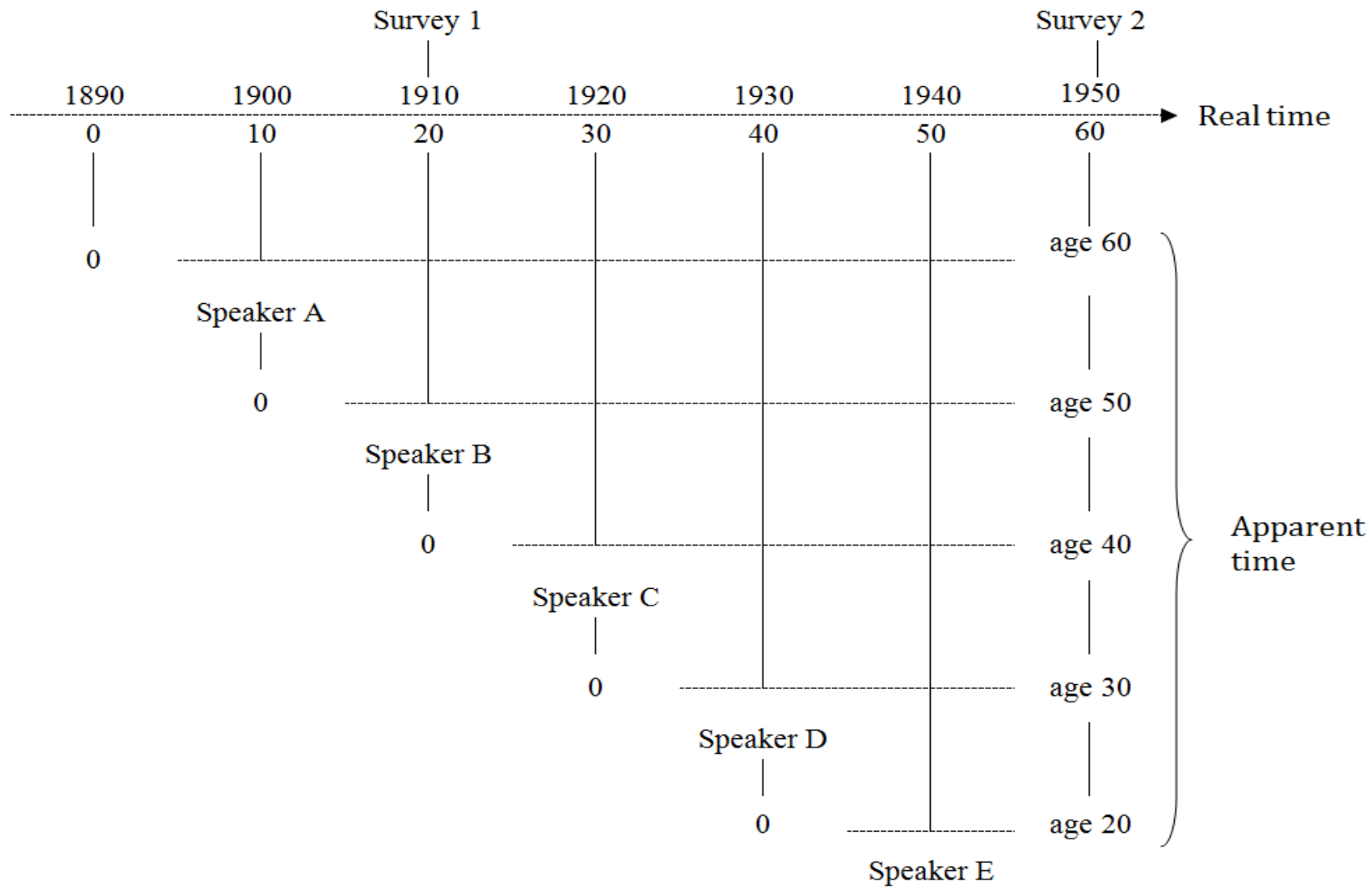


Figure 2: Real and apparent time in language change (Downes 1998: 238)



Types of change (Labov 1994: 84)

- *Age-grading*
Individuals change their linguistic behaviour throughout their lifetimes, but the community as a whole does not change.
- *Generational change*
“Individual speakers enter the community with a characteristic frequency for a particular variable, maintained throughout their lives; but regular increases in the values adopted by individuals, often incremented by generations, lead to linguistic change for the community.”
- *Communal change*
“In communal change all members of the community alter their frequencies together or acquire new forms simultaneously.”



Data cleaning

- Which instances of *like* are discourse markers/particles?
 - Syntactically optional
 - Not verb, noun, adverb, comparative preposition, ...
- What was not included?
 - General extenders, lexicalizations (something *like* that, it's *like*, ...)
 - *like* before numerical expressions (There's *like* two of them.)
 - Quotative BE LIKE (And he was *like* 'What's going on')
 - Ambiguous cases (I've had *like* ... and everything was fine)