TOPIC: SOCIAL AND TERRITORIAL DIFFERENTIATION OF VOCABULARY

Navai State Pedagogical institute
Researcher: **Istamova Shahnoza**
Scientific advisor: **Iskanova Nasiba**

ABSTRACT

The study of language and its usage has long captivated researchers, revealing insights into human communication and societal dynamics. A significant area of focus within this field is the social and territorial differentiation of vocabulary. This phenomenon explores how language usage varies among diverse social groups and geographical regions, illuminating the complex relationship between language, identity, and social structures.

The social and territorial differentiation of vocabulary encompasses the distinct linguistic patterns and word choices observed within specific social communities and geographic areas. Language is not a fixed entity; it evolves and adapts to the needs and experiences of its speakers. Consequently, individuals belonging to different social groups, such as various age groups, ethnicities, socioeconomic backgrounds, or professions, develop unique sets of vocabulary that reflect their shared experiences, values, and cultural practices.

Furthermore, the geographical aspect of vocabulary differentiation examines how language varies across different regions and territories. Languages are not homogeneous across vast geographic spaces, and variations can be observed in terms of vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and even syntax. These regional differences in vocabulary usage often arise due to historical, cultural, and environmental factors, resulting in the development of distinct dialects, accents, and even entirely separate languages.

Understanding the social and territorial differentiation of vocabulary is crucial for various disciplines, including sociolinguistics, anthropology, and education. This knowledge sheds light on how language reflects and shapes social identities, power dynamics, and cultural practices within a society. Additionally, it has practical implications for language teaching and learning, as educators must be aware of the linguistic diversity and variations that exist within and across communities. By recognizing and incorporating these variations, educators can create inclusive and effective language education programs that cater to the diverse linguistic needs of learners.

INTRODUCTION:

The study of language and its usage has always been a fascinating area of research, shedding light on various aspects of human communication and societal dynamics. One particular facet of language that has garnered significant attention is the social and territorial differentiation of vocabulary. This phenomenon explores how language use varies across different social groups and geographical regions, highlighting the intricate relationship between language, identity, and social structures.

The social and territorial differentiation of vocabulary refers to the distinct linguistic patterns and lexical choices observed within specific social communities and geographical areas. Language is not a static entity but rather evolves and adapts to the needs and experiences of its speakers. As a result, individuals belonging to different social groups, such as different age groups, ethnicities, socioeconomic backgrounds, or professions, develop unique vocabulary sets that reflect their shared experiences, values, and cultural practices.

Moreover, the geographical aspect of vocabulary differentiation examines how language varies across different regions and territories. Languages are not uniform across vast geographical spaces, and variations can be observed in terms of vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and even syntax. These regional differences in vocabulary usage often emerge due to historical, cultural, and environmental factors, leading to the development of distinct dialects, accents, and even entirely separate languages.

Understanding the social and territorial differentiation of vocabulary is crucial for various disciplines, such as sociolinguistics, anthropology, and education. This knowledge can shed light on the intricate ways in which language reflects and shapes social identities, power dynamics, and cultural practices within a society. Additionally, it has practical implications for language teaching and learning, as educators need to be aware of the linguistic diversity and variations that exist within and across communities.

Regarding functional styles, vocabulary can be categorized into bookish or literary, which is commonly found in formal styles, and colloquial vocabulary, which is typical of informal oral communication[1]. Additionally, there exists a stylistically neutral vocabulary that can be used across different styles. Consider the following examples:

Child (neutral) – Kid (colloquial) – Infant (bookish, official) – Offspring (bookish, scientific) Father (neutral) – Daddy (colloquial) – Male parent/ancestor (formal) Leave/go away (neutral) – Be off/get out/get away/get lost (colloquial or familiar-colloquial) – Retire/withdraw (bookish) Continue (neutral) – Go on/carry on

---

[1] Labov, William. (1972). Sociolinguistic Patterns. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

(colloquial) – Proceed (bookish, formal) Begin/start (neutral) – Get going/get started/Come on! (colloquial) – Commence (formal)

Stylistically **neutral words** are typically the main members in synonyms, known as **synonymic dominants**. They can be used in any style, lack emotional coloring, and do not have additional evaluative elements.

Contrary to neutral words that simply denote a concept and possess denotational meaning, **stylistic synonyms often carry connotations**, which are additional components of meaning expressing emotional coloring or evaluation of the named object. These additional components can also signify a particular functional style of speech.

Colloquial style refers to the style of informal and friendly oral communication. The vocabulary associated with colloquial style is generally less formal than that of neutral or formal styles. It often carries **emotional coloring** and connotations, such as endearing connotations in words like "daddy" or evaluative components in words like "trash."

Colloquial speech frequently employs words with broad meanings, leading to polysemy. Speakers tend to use a small group of words with diverse meanings. In formal styles (such as official, business, or scientific), each word is expected to be used in a specific and unambiguous sense. For example, the verb "get" often replaces its more specific synonyms in oral speech:

I got (= received) a letter today.

Where did you get (= buy) those jeans?

They didn't get (= there wasn't) much snow last winter.

I got (= caught) the flu last month.

Where has my pen got to (= disappeared)?

I got (= forced) him to help me with the work.

I didn't get (= hear) you/what you said.

Colloquial style is characterized by specific phrases and constructions, such as "What's up?" (meaning "What has happened?"), "so-so" (indicating something is not particularly good), "Sorry? Pardon?" (used to request a repetition when something wasn't heard clearly), "See you" (used as a farewell), "Me too/neither" (agreeing), and so on.

In terms of grammar, colloquial style may involve (a) the use of shortened word forms, such as "isn't," "can't," "I'd say," "we've done" (meaning "we would have done"), "Yaa" (meaning "Yes"), and (b) the use of elliptical or incomplete sentences, for instance, "Where's he?" with the response "At home," or "Like it?" with the response "Not too much" (indicating dislike). Another example is "Shall I open it?" with the response "Don't!" or "May I?" (meaning "May I do this?").

The syntax of colloquial speech is also characterized by the preferable use of simple sentences or by asyndetic connection (absence of conjunctions) between the parts of composite sentences; complex constructions with non-finite forms are rarely used[2].

Besides the standard, literary-colloquial speech, there is also a non-standard, or substandard, speech style, mostly represented by a special vocabulary. Such is the familiar-colloquial style used in very free, friendly, informal situations of communication – between close friends, members of one family, etc. [3]Here we find emotionally colored words, **low-colloquial vocabulary, and slang words**. This style admits also of the use of **rude vocabulary**, including expletives (obscene words / four-letter words / swear words): rot/trash/stuff (= smth. bad); the cat's pyjamas (= just the right/suitable thing); bread-basket (= stomach); tipsy / under the influence / under the table / has had a drop (= drunk); cute /great! (Am.) (= very good); wet blanket (= uninteresting person); hot stuff! (= smth. extremely good); You're damn right (= quite right).

The term **slang** is used in a very broad and vague sense. Besides denoting low-colloquial words, it is also used to denote special jargons/cants, i.e. words typically used by particular social groups to show that the speaker belongs to this group, as different from other people. Originally **jargons** were used to preserve secrecy within the social group, to make speech **incomprehensible** to others – such is the thieves' jargon/cant. There is also prison slang, army slang, school slang, teenagers slang, etc. Consider the examples of American campus slang: dode (= an appealing/stupid person, idiot); harsh (= very bad, mean); nerd / nurd (= a person who studies a lot or is socially outdated); thrash (= perform well on a skateboard); throg (= drink any alcoholic drink); of American teenagers slang: flake (= a stupid erratic person); scarf (= eat or drink; consume); scope out (= look at, examine, check out); chill out (= relax, calm oneself); babe magnet (= a person or thing that attracts members of the opposite sex).
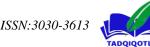
But often words from a particular jargon spread outside its social group and become general slang. See examples of general British slang: crackers (= crazy people); the year dot (= long ago); get the hump (= get angry); mac (= Scotsman); ratted (= drunk); snout (= tobacco); of general American slang: buck (= dollar); cabbage (= money); John (= lavatory); give some. wings (= teach to use drugs); top dog (= boss); stag party (= a party without a woman).

There are also professional words that represent a kind of jargon/slang used by people in their professional activity. See some professional jargon words for a blow in

---

[2] Trudgill, Peter. (1974). Sociolinguistics: An Introduction to Language and Society. London: Penguin Books.

[3] Auer, Peter, & Hinskens, Frans. (Eds.). (2005). Language and Space: An International Handbook of Linguistic Variation. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.

boxing: an outer (a knock-out blow); a righthander; an uppercut; and a clinch (position of fighting close, body pressed to body).

Within the English formal language, the following styles are distinguished: the style of official documents, the scientific prose style, the publicistic style, the newspaper style, and the belle-lettres style[4]. Most of these styles belong exclusively to writing, insomuch as only in this particular form of human intercourse can communications of any length be completely unambiguous. Each style is characterized by a number of individual features which can be classified as leading or subordinate, constant or changing, obligatory or optional, essential or transitory. Each style can be subdivided into a number of substyles. The latter present varieties of the root style and have much in common with it. The root styles fall into the following substyles:

The style of official documents: business documents, diplomatic documents, legal documents, military documents.

The scientific prose style: the humanities, the exact sciences.

The publicistic style: speeches (oratory), essays, and articles.

The newspaper style: newspaper headlines, brief news items, advertisements.

The belle-lettres style: poetry proper, emotive prose, drama.

Any comparison of the texts belonging to different stylistic varieties listed above will show that the first two of them – official documents and scientific style varieties – are almost entirely devoid of the emotive coloring being characterized by the neutrality of style, whereas the last three are usually rich in stylistic devices.

1.1. **Social differentiation of English vocabulary**

The social differentiation of English vocabulary refers to the phenomenon where different social groups or classes use distinct linguistic features and vocabulary choices. These variations in language use can reflect social status, education level, occupation, regional background, or cultural influences[5]. While it is challenging to provide an exhaustive amount of data on this topic, I can offer some common examples and trends in the social differentiation of English vocabulary.

1. Socioeconomic Status:

- High social status: Individuals from higher socioeconomic backgrounds often employ more formal and prestigious vocabulary. They may use words like "extravagant," "prestigious," or "opulent" to describe luxury or wealth.

- Low social status: Individuals from lower socioeconomic backgrounds tend to use more informal or colloquial vocabulary. They may opt for words like "cheap," "affordable," or "basic" when discussing economic matters.

2. Education Level:

---

[4] Milroy, Lesley, & Milroy, James. (1999). Authority in Language: Investigating Language Prescription and Standardisation. London: Routledge

[5] Chambers, J.K. (1995). Sociolinguistic Theory: Linguistic Variation and its Social Significance. Oxford: Blackwell.

- Highly educated: People with advanced education tend to utilize specialized terminology associated with their field of study. For instance, a physicist might use words like "quantum," "relativity," or "particle" in their discourse.

- Less educated: Individuals with limited formal education may rely on simpler and more accessible vocabulary. They may use everyday words and phrases to describe concepts that are more technical or academic in nature.

3. Occupation:

- Professional jargon: Different professions develop their own jargon or technical vocabulary. For example, lawyers may use terms like "plaintiff," "defendant," or "litigation" in legal discussions, while medical professionals may employ words such as "diagnosis," "prescription," or "symptom" in their domain.

4. Regional Variation:

- Dialects and accents: Vocabulary choices can vary across different regions and dialects. For instance, in the United States, people may refer to a carbonated soft drink as "soda" in the Northeast, "pop" in the Midwest, or "coke" in the South.

5. Cultural Influences:

- Borrowed words: English vocabulary is enriched by words borrowed from other languages due to cultural influences. For example, English has adopted numerous words from French, such as "cuisine," "ballet," or "rendezvous," which are associated with high culture and refinement.

It is essential to note that these examples are generalizations, and individuals' language use can be influenced by multiple factors simultaneously. Moreover, language is highly dynamic, and vocabulary choices and social associations can change over time as linguistic trends and societal norms evolve[6].

The part played by variations within a language in differentiating social and occupational groups in society has already been referred to above[7]. In language transmission, this tends to be self-perpetuating unless deliberately interfered with. Children are in general brought up within the social group to which their parents and immediate family circle belong, and they learn the dialect and communication styles of that group along with the rest of the subculture and behavioral traits and attitudes that are characteristic of it. This is a largely unconscious and involuntary process of acculturation, but the importance of the linguistic manifestations of social status and of social hierarchies is not lost on aspirants for personal advancement in stratified societies. The deliberate cultivation of an appropriate dialect, in its lexical, grammatical, and phonological features, has been the self-imposed task of many persons wishing "to better themselves" and the butt of unkind ridicule on the part of

---

[6] Labov, William. (2006). The Social Stratification of English in New York City. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[7] Labov, William. (2001). Principles of Linguistic Change: Social Factors. Oxford: Blackwell.

persons already feeling themselves secure in their social status or unwilling to attempt any change in it. Much of the comedy in George Bernard Shaw's *Pygmalion* (first performed in 1913, with subsequent film adaptations) turns on Eliza Doolittle's need to unlearn her native Cockney if she is to rise on the social scale. Culturally and subculturally determined taboos play a part in all this, and persons desirous of moving up or down in the social scale have to learn what words to use and what words to avoid if they are to be accepted and to "belong" in their new position.

The same considerations apply to changing one's language as to changing one's dialect[8]. Language changing is harder for the individual and is generally a rarer occurrence, but it is likely to be widespread in any mass immigration movement. In the 19th and early 20th centuries, the eagerness with which immigrants and the children of immigrants from continental Europe living in the United States learned and insisted on speaking English is an illustration of their realization that English was the linguistic badge of full membership in their new homeland at the time when the country was proud to consider itself the melting pot in which people of diverse linguistic and cultural origins would become citizens of a unified community. A reverse movement, typically by third-generation immigrants, manifests a concern to be in contact again with the ancestral language.

The same sort of self-perpetuation, in the absence of deliberate rejection, operates in the special languages of sports and games and of trades and professions (these are in the main concerned with special vocabularies). Game learners, apprentices, and professional students learn the locutions together with the rest of the game or the job. The specific words and phrases occur in the teaching process and are observed in use, and novices are only too eager to display an easy competence with such phraseology as a mark of their full membership of the group.

1.2. Time differences in English Vocabulary

English vocabulary includes various terms related to time differences. Here are some common words and phrases used to describe time differences:

1. Time Zone: A region of the globe that observes the same standard time. Each time zone is usually one hour apart from the adjacent zone.

2. Time Difference: The amount of time by which one location differs from another in terms of local time.

3. Daylight Saving Time (DST): A practice of advancing clocks during the warmer months to extend evening daylight. This results in a time difference of one hour for regions that observe DST.

4. Time Lag: The delay or interval between two events occurring in different places or at different times.

---

[8] Chambers, J.K., & Trudgill, Peter. (1998). Dialectology. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

5. Jet Lag: A condition experienced by travelers when they cross multiple time zones, resulting in fatigue, disorientation, and sleep disturbances.

6. Time Discrepancy: A difference or discrepancy in time between two events or locations.

7. Time Differential: The amount of time by which one event or location is ahead or behind another.

8. Time Offset: The difference in time between a specific location and Coordinated Universal Time (UTC).

9. Time Disparity: The inequality or discrepancy in time between two places or occurrences.

10. Time Displacement: The act of shifting or moving in time, resulting in a time difference.

11. Time Dissonance: A feeling of discomfort or confusion caused by differences in time perception or experience.

12. Time Warp: A sudden or abrupt change in time, often associated with science fiction or fantasy narratives.

13. Time Synchronization: The process of aligning or coordinating clocks and timekeeping systems to eliminate time differences.

14. Time Conversion: The act of converting time from one format or time zone to another.

15. Time Interval: The duration or period of time between two events or points in time.

These are just a few examples of vocabulary related to time differences in English. The language is vast and continually evolving, so there may be additional terms or phrases used in specific contexts or fields.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the study of this course paper sheds light on the intricate relationship between language and society. Throughout this course paper, we have explored how various factors, such as social class, education, occupation, and geographic location, contribute to the formation and variation of vocabulary.

One key finding is that social stratification plays a significant role in shaping vocabulary differences. People from different social classes tend to possess distinct vocabularies, with the upper class often exhibiting a more extensive and refined lexicon compared to the lower class. This divergence can be attributed to differences in educational opportunities, cultural capital, and exposure to specialized knowledge.

Additionally, occupation and professional domains have a profound impact on vocabulary variation. Specific industries and professions develop their own terminologies, jargon, and technical vocabulary, creating a specialized lexicon exclusive to those contexts. This phenomenon highlights the importance of

occupational communities and their linguistic practices in shaping vocabulary differentiation.

Furthermore, the geographic aspect of vocabulary differentiation demonstrates that language is not a homogenous entity but rather adapts to regional variations. Dialects, accents, and regionalisms contribute to the diversity of vocabulary, reflecting the unique cultural and historical characteristics of different territories. This territorial differentiation can also be influenced by migration patterns, contact between different communities, and the preservation of linguistic heritage.

Overall, studying the social and territorial differentiation of vocabulary enriches our understanding of language as a dynamic and multifaceted system. It underscores the intricate interplay between individuals, communities, and social structures in shaping linguistic practices. By exploring these variations, we gain insights into the social dynamics and cultural complexities that underlie our communication patterns. As language continues to evolve, it is crucial to recognize and appreciate the diversity of vocabulary as an essential component of our shared human experience.

REFERENCES

1. Auer, Peter, & Hinskens, Frans. (Eds.). (2005). Language and Space: An International Handbook of Linguistic Variation. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.
2. Chambers, J.K. (1995). Sociolinguistic Theory: Linguistic Variation and its Social Significance. Oxford: Blackwell.
3. Chambers, J.K., & Trudgill, Peter. (1998). Dialectology. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
4. Labov, William. (2001). Principles of Linguistic Change: Social Factors. Oxford: Blackwell.
5. Labov, William. (1972). Sociolinguistic Patterns. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
6. Labov, William. (2006). The Social Stratification of English in New York City. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
7. Milroy, Lesley, & Milroy, James. (1999). Authority in Language: Investigating Language Prescription and Standardisation. London: Routledge.
8. Trudgill, Peter. (1974). Sociolinguistics: An Introduction to Language and Society. London: Penguin Books.

Internet sources:

9. https://www.tartetatintales.com/
10. https://1to1progress.com/blog/2020/07/01/difference-between-colloquialism-and-slang/
11. https://langeek.co/en/grammar/course/1555/dialects