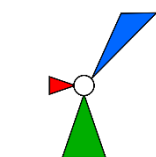


## 1676 AC

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| <b>bncdoc.id</b>                  | HXY   |
| <b>bncdoc.author</b>              | Sebba, Mark   |
| <b>bncdoc.year</b>                | 1993  |
| <b>bncdoc.title</b>               | London Jamaican.  |
| <b>bncdoc.info</b>                | London Jamaican. Sample containing about 48271 words from a book (domain: social science) |
| <b>Text availability</b>          | Ownership has not been claimed  |
| <b>Publication date</b>           | 1985-1993   |
| <b>Text type</b>                  | Written books and periodicals   |
| <b>David Lee's classification</b> | W_ac_soc_science  |

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| <1676/c> | <p>recreolisation” involving focusing on the Jamaican basilect comes from research in Bradford by S. Tate already mentioned (Tate 1984; Sebba and Tate 1986). Bradford is unusual among British cities in that the largest group of Caribbeans in the city are not Jamaicans, but Dominicans. Dominica is one of the Eastern Caribbean islands where a French Creole is spoken by the older generation. While no systematic research has been done on language use within families in the Bradford Dominican community, Tate considers that her informants, who were Rastafarian members of a band, had competence in JC on a par with natives of Jamaica (Tate is herself Jamaican-born). Since the parents are presumed to be native speakers of Dominican French Creole, (they probably speak a variety of Caribbean English as well) the Bradford Dominican speakers of JC must have acquired it through peer contact in their own community - where Jamaicans are a minority. Leaving aside this rather striking example of language shift, what can we say about the role of JC for young black Londoners? There are relatively few points of difference between JC and the other Caribbean English-based Creoles that might enable us to pinpoint their focus as JC rather than some other variety. However, those differences which do exist point to JC rather than any other Creole as the focus. For example, the vowel sounds of FACE and GOAT have differing pronunciations in different parts of the Caribbean, and in the basilect and acrolect: We see that JC, together with <a href="#">the basilectal varieties of Montserrat and St Kitts-Nevis</a>, is distinctive in having an opening diphthong as the vowel of FACE and GOAT. The other varieties, both Standard and basilectal, have close pure vowels which are long, except in the case of Trinidadian. If “focusing” in this case were to involve levelling as part of new dialect creation, then we might expect /e:/ and /o:/ to become the new focus, as they are the majority variants, the prestige variants almost everywhere, and arguably simpler in phonological terms than the others. But this is not what has happened: at least, my data shows no sign of it. The “Patois” vowel for GOAT is typically [ ] and for FACE, [ ], just as in JC: see, for example, the Patois “performances” of Susan and Joan in Chapter 2, who both use the Jamaican form [ P5, P6 ] (see Appendix 1 for an explanation of the grammatical and phonological features in square brackets). While <a href="#">Montserrat and St Kitts-Nevis</a> could plausibly provide the focus on the basis of the phonological evidence, it is unlikely in practice, as there are</p> <p><a href="#">so few speakers of those varieties</a></p> <p>in Britain. <a href="#">They</a> are heavily outnumbered by <a href="#">Jamaicans</a> as well as, probably, <a href="#">Trinidadians and Guyanese</a>. The evidence suggests that in London, too, the focus of “black talk” is JC. Creole learning as new dialect acquisition It is well established (see, for example, Giles and Smith 1979) that speakers accommodate to other speakers - in other words, make their speech more similar to that of their interlocutor(s) - for a variety of social reasons. Accommodation is a significant driving factor in the process of new dialect formation as described by Trudgill (1986), but it is more easily studied at the level of individuals who adjust their language behaviour given a particular set of circumstances. Speakers who move to a</p> |
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Key:

[Footprint](#)  
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[ConEn2](#)  
[Footprint](#)  
[ConEn3](#)

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|  | <p>new dialect area may, over time, adjust their speech, or “accommodate”, in the direction of the new dialect - with varying degrees of success. For example, an English person who lives for some time in the United States will often acquire a “partially” American accent. However, unless they move at a very early age, such people rarely sound “totally” American. Trudgill begins by trying to identify those features which are accommodated to most readily or earlier than others. As a way of studying accommodation - which for the most part is unconscious - he looked at imitation, in particular, the imitation of American accents by British pop singers. His conclusion is that accommodation involves a similar process to imitation, and in both cases, the key factor is the salience of particular features. Salient features are those features of a dialect which are likely to be imitated by a would-be mimic, or accommodated to by a would-be member of the community. Salience, of course, means salience for the hearer, and is therefore a relative term: those features of New York English which are salient for a Londoner may not be those which are salient for someone from Toronto. As a speaker’s speech undergoes a process of accommodation to the norms of the new dialect, a new grammar is acquired through the addition to the speaker’s internal grammar of rules which “convert” the existing dialect forms into the new ones. In many cases, features of the new dialect are learned in a set order: this is called the “fixed route” hypothesis by Trudgill (1986). The result is an implicational scale which looks like the “acquisitional hierarchy” proposed by Edwards and Sutcliffe. However, Trudgill also shows that different speakers may follow different routes towards complete acquisition of a new dialect. Drawing on research by Nordenstam (1979), Rogers (1981) and Trudgill (1982)</p> |
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