

THE EVOLUTION OF LANGUAGE: ERAS, WORD USAGE, AND STYLES OF SPEECH A COMPREHENSIVE ACADEMIC OVERVIEW

Asomiddinova Charos

Samarqand davlat chet tillar instituti

Ingliz filologiyasi va tarjimashunoslik fakulteti 2513-guruh talabasi.

charosasomiddinova12@gmail.com

<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.20719510>

Abstract. *Language is not a static artifact but a living system that evolves continuously in response to cultural, social, technological, and historical forces. This article provides a comprehensive and professional examination of the English language's historical development, the principles that govern word usage (lexical choice), and the registers and styles of speech that shape effective communication. Drawing on classical and contemporary scholarship in historical linguistics, sociolinguistics, and pragmatics, the discussion traces the trajectory of English from its Indo-European roots through Old, Middle, and Modern English, before turning to an analysis of the functional styles—formal, informal, academic, literary, journalistic, and conversational—that speakers and writers deploy today. The article concludes with a reflection on the digital age and the emerging trends that are reshaping the linguistic landscape of the twenty-first century.*

Keywords: *historical linguistics, English language, word usage, speech styles, registers, sociolinguistics, lexical semantics, digital communication.*

Introduction

The study of language is, in many respects, the study of humanity itself. Every utterance, every written sentence, and every borrowed term is a record of the communities, migrations, conquests, inventions, and ideas that have shaped the human experience. No language illustrates this truth more vividly than English – a tongue that began as a modest collection of Germanic dialects spoken on a remote island and grew, over fifteen centuries, into the most widely used lingua franca in human history.

For linguists, educators, writers, and professional communicators, an understanding of how language has evolved - how words enter and leave the lexicon, how registers shift according to context, and how style influences meaning – is not merely an academic exercise; it is a practical necessity. The contemporary communicator must navigate a complex spectrum of speech styles, ranging from the most elevated academic discourse to the abbreviated shorthand of digital messaging, and must do so with an awareness of how each choice of register, each lexical decision, and each stylistic manoeuvre shapes the message received by the audience.

This article is organised into three principal parts. The first part traces the historical eras of the English language, examining the major linguistic transformations that have defined Old, Middle, Early Modern, and Late Modern English. The second part explores the principles of word usage, including the processes of word formation, semantic change, and the social factors that govern lexical choice. The third part analyses the styles of speech - commonly termed registers in modern linguistics - that speakers and writers employ in different communicative contexts.

A concluding section considers the implications of digital communication for the future of English usage.

The Historical Eras of the English Language

Linguists traditionally divide the history of English into three major periods, each marked by distinctive phonological, morphological, syntactic, and lexical features. The conventional periodization - Old English (c. 450–1100), Middle English (c. 1100–1500), and Modern English (c. 1500–present) – remains the standard framework, although recent scholarship has refined the boundaries and emphasised the gradual nature of linguistic transition (Crystal, 2003; Algeo, 2006).

Old English (c. 450–1100 CE) The Old English period begins with the arrival of three Germanic tribes - the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes - on the British Isles during the fifth century.

These invasions displaced the Celtic languages that had previously dominated the region, although Celtic substrate influence can still be detected in place names and certain syntactic patterns. Old English was, like other Germanic languages of the era, a highly inflected language: nouns, adjectives, and verbs carried rich morphological markers indicating case, number, gender, tense, and mood.

The lexicon of Old English was overwhelmingly Germanic in origin. The bulk of the most common words in modern English – the pronouns (I, you, he, she), the prepositions (in, on, at, with), the conjunctions (and, but, or), and the numerals (one, two, three) – descend from this period. A single sentence of Old English, such as the opening of *Beowulf* – “Hwæt! We Gardena in geardagum, þeodcyninga, þrym gefrunon” – appears almost unintelligible to a modern reader; yet its basic grammatical skeleton anticipates the structure of the present-day language.

The Christianisation of Anglo-Saxon England, beginning in 597 CE with the mission of St Augustine, introduced a substantial layer of Latin vocabulary, particularly in religious, scholarly, and administrative domains. Words such as altar, priest, candle, monk, mass, and school entered the language at this time and remain in active use today.

Middle English (c. 1100–1500 CE) The Norman Conquest of 1066 constitutes the single most consequential event in the history of the English language. The new Anglo-Norman ruling class spoke a dialect of Old French, and for nearly three centuries following the Conquest, English was reduced to the status of a vernacular language used primarily by the lower classes, while French dominated the court, the legal system, and the higher registers of literature and administration. This bilingual contact situation produced profound changes. The English lexicon expanded dramatically through the absorption of thousands of French loanwords, particularly in the domains of government (parliament, government, sovereign), law (judge, jury, verdict), military (army, captain, soldier), cuisine (beef, pork, cuisine, chef), and fashion (dress, gown, fashion). Notably, the English words for the animals raised by the Saxon peasants (ox, swine, sheep, calf) coexisted with the French words for the meats served at the Norman tables (beef, pork, mutton, veal) – a lexical stratification that persists to this day.

By the late fourteenth century, English had reasserted itself as the dominant language of the kingdom, propelled by a growing sense of national identity, the disruptive effects of the Black Death, and the rise of a vernacular literature exemplified by the works of Geoffrey Chaucer.

The London dialect of Middle English, recorded in Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*, emerged as a standard literary language. Morphologically, Middle English saw a dramatic simplification of the inflectional system inherited from Old English: the loss of grammatical gender, the reduction of case distinctions, and the levelling of verb conjugations. Word order, which had been relatively free in Old English, became increasingly fixed, and the language began its transition from a synthetic to a more analytic structure.

Early Modern English (c. 1500–1700 CE) The Early Modern English period is marked by two transformative developments: the printing revolution and the Renaissance. William Caxton's establishment of a printing press in Westminster in 1476 initiated a process of standardisation that gradually fixed the spelling, grammar, and vocabulary of English. The invention made books widely accessible, fostered the dissemination of a uniform written standard, and contributed to the increasing prestige of the London dialect.

The Renaissance brought renewed contact with classical languages, particularly Latin and Greek, and a flourishing of scholarly interest in the English language itself. Renaissance humanists, in their efforts to dignify the vernacular, borrowed extensively from classical sources, enriching the English lexicon with thousands of learned words such as pedestrian, omnivorous, epidermis, encyclopedia, and genuine. The first English dictionaries appeared in this period: Robert Cawdrey's *A Table Alphabeticall* (1604) listed approximately 2,500 “hard words” with their definitions, while Samuel Johnson's *A Dictionary of the English Language* (1755), produced at the close of this period, became the most influential English dictionary ever compiled and set the standard for lexicography for more than a century.

The most distinctive phonological event of the Early Modern English period was the Great Vowel Shift—a series of changes in the pronunciation of the long vowels of English that took place roughly between 1400 and 1700. The shift raised the Middle English long vowels, fundamentally altering the sound of the language. The consequences of the shift are visible in the often dramatic differences between English spelling and pronunciation: the Middle English word *bite* was pronounced approximately as “beet-uh,” while *house* rhymed with the German *Haus*.

Late Modern English (c. 1700–1900) The Late Modern English period witnessed the consolidation of the standard language, the codification of grammatical rules, and the massive expansion of the lexicon driven by the British Empire, the Industrial Revolution, and the burgeoning of scientific inquiry. The eighteenth and nineteenth centuries saw the publication of influential prescriptive grammars, including Robert Lowth's *A Short Introduction to English Grammar* (1762) and Lindley Murray's *English Grammar* (1795), which attempted to fix the rules of “correct” usage – a project that, despite its prescriptivist orientation, shaped modern attitudes toward grammar and style.

The British Empire carried English to every continent, bringing it into contact with hundreds of languages and, in turn, absorbing a vast number of loanwords: bungalow from Hindi, kangaroo from an Aboriginal Australian language, safari from Swahili, pajamas from Urdu, and tomato from Nahuatl.

The Industrial Revolution introduced terminology for new technologies (locomotive, telegraph, photograph, telephone), while the growth of modern science produced a specialised vocabulary that continues to expand at an accelerating pace.

Contemporary English (c. 1900–Present) The twentieth and twenty-first centuries have produced new varieties of English unprecedented in their diversity and global reach. The distinction between British English and American English, codified in Noah Webster's *An American Dictionary of the English Language* (1828), has been joined by numerous regional standards: Australian, Canadian, Indian, Singaporean, South African, and Nigerian English, among others. Each of these varieties carries its own phonological, lexical, and pragmatic norms.

The most striking development of the contemporary period, however, is the rise of digital communication. Email, instant messaging, social media, and short-form video platforms have introduced new registers, new lexical items, and new conventions of spelling and punctuation.

Emojis, acronyms (e.g., LOL, OMG, BRB), and the genre of the hashtag represent novel forms of communication that have no direct precedent in the history of the language. The scholarly community continues to debate whether these developments constitute a fundamental restructuring of English or merely the emergence of new, situationally specific registers layered atop a more stable underlying system.

Principles of Word Usage The choice of words – lexical selection – is the most fundamental act of linguistic communication. Word usage is governed by a complex interaction of semantic, syntactic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic factors. The following sections outline the principal dimensions of lexical choice in modern English usage.

Word Formation Processes New words enter a language through several well-documented processes, each of which contributes to the continuous expansion of the lexicon. The most productive word-formation processes in English include the following:

Derivational affixation involves the addition of prefixes or suffixes to a base word, often changing its grammatical category or meaning. The suffix *-ness*, for example, transforms the adjective *happy* into the noun *happiness*; the prefix *un-* negates the meaning of *fair* to produce *unfair*. Affixation is one of the oldest and most consistent sources of new vocabulary in English.

Compounding combines two or more free morphemes to create a new word, such as *sunflower*, *bedroom*, *blackboard*, *software*, and *database*. Compounds may be written as single words, hyphenated, or left open; the conventions governing their orthography have evolved significantly over the centuries.

Conversion (also called zero derivation) involves the reassignment of a word from one grammatical category to another without any change in form. The noun *email*, for instance, has given rise to the verb *to email*, and the noun *Google* has been converted into a verb meaning “to search for information online.” Conversion is a particularly productive process in modern English.

Borrowing (also called loanword adoption) is the incorporation of words from other languages. English has been called the great borrower: it contains elements from Latin, Greek, French, Norse, Dutch, German, Italian, Spanish, Arabic, Hindi, Japanese, and countless other

languages. The Oxford English Dictionary records entries from more than 350 distinct source languages.

Blending combines parts of two existing words to form a new one. Examples include smog (smoke + fog), brunch (breakfast + lunch), motel (motor + hotel), and Brexit (Britain + exit).

Blending is particularly characteristic of informal and commercial registers.

Acronymy and initialism reduce multi-word phrases to their initial letters, either pronounced as a word (e.g., NASA, NATO, SCUBA) or as a sequence of letters (e.g., FBI, BBC, CEO). The acronymic register has expanded dramatically in the digital age.

Back-formation creates a new word by removing what appears to be an affix from an existing word. The verb edit, for example, was back-formed from the noun editor; the verb donate was likewise back-formed from the noun donation.

Semantic Change Beyond the creation of new words, the meanings of existing words change over time. The principal types of semantic change include the following:

Broadening (also called generalisation) expands the range of a word's meaning. The word dog, originally the name of a specific breed, came to refer to the entire species. The word holiday, originally a religious term meaning “holy day,” has broadened to refer to any day of rest or recreational travel.

Narrowing (also called specialisation) restricts a word's meaning. The word meat once referred to food in general; the word deer once denoted any animal; the word wife once meant simply “woman.”

Amelioration improves the social evaluation associated with a word. The word knight, originally meaning “boy” or “servant,” acquired its elevated connotations as a designation for a mounted warrior of noble rank. The word nice, derived from Latin nescius (“ignorant”), underwent a remarkable amelioration through the senses “foolish,” “shy,” “delicate,” “fastidious,” and finally “pleasant.”

Pejoration degrades the social evaluation of a word. The word villain originally meant simply a person who worked on a villa or country estate; it has since acquired strongly negative connotations. The word silly once meant “blessed” or “happy.”

Semantic shift involves a wholesale change in a word's referent or meaning. The word silly, in addition to its amelioration, has shifted in meaning multiple times. The word awful originally meant “inspiring wonder” (awe-ful) but now means “very bad.”

Metaphorical extension transfers a word's meaning from one domain to another based on perceived similarity. The word head, for example, has been extended to refer to the leader of an organisation, the top of a nail, and the front of a queue.

Lexical Choice and Register

Effective word usage is not merely a matter of selecting the “correct” word but of selecting the appropriate word for a given context, audience, and purpose. The principle of register—the idea that language varies according to social situation – is fundamental to professional communication. Consider, for example, the range of possible ways to indicate that someone has died:

- He passed away. (formal, polite)
- He died. (neutral, direct)
- He kicked the bucket. (informal, colloquial)
- He bought the farm. (slang, often humorous)
- He is no longer with us. (euphemistic, soft)
- The deceased has expired. (legal, technical)

Each of these expressions is grammatically acceptable English; yet they differ profoundly in tone, formality, and social appropriateness. The skilled communicator chooses among them with careful attention to context.

Connotation, Denotation, and Pragmatic Force

Words carry both denotative meaning – their literal, dictionary sense – and connotative meaning – the associations, evaluations, and emotional resonances they evoke. The denotation of home is simply “a dwelling place,” but its connotations include warmth, security, family, and belonging. Skilled writers and speakers exploit connotation to achieve effects that literal denotation cannot produce.

Pragmatic factors further complicate lexical choice. The same word may carry different pragmatic force in different contexts: the word fine may express genuine approval, mild irritation, or resigned acceptance, depending on the speaker's tone, facial expression, and the situation in which it is uttered. Grice's (1975) theory of conversational maxims - quality, quantity, relevance, and manner – provides a useful framework for analysing the pragmatic principles that govern word usage in conversation.

Styles of Speech (Registers)

In modern linguistics, a register is a variety of language used in a particular social setting or for a particular purpose. The term, introduced by the linguist T. B. W. Reid in 1956 and developed by M. A. K. Halliday and his colleagues, refers to the systematic correlation between language features and situational context. The principal registers of English may be classified along a continuum of formality, with each register characterised by distinctive lexical, grammatical, and pragmatic features.

The Formal Register

The formal register is characterised by elevated vocabulary, complex syntactic structures, and a degree of detachment between speaker and audience. It is the register of academic discourse, legal writing, official correspondence, and ceremonial oratory. Features of the formal register include the following:

Lexical sophistication: preference for Latinate and Greek-derived vocabulary (e.g., commence rather than begin, utilise rather than use, reside rather than live).

Complex syntax: use of subordinate clauses, passive voice, and embedded structures.

Avoidance of contractions: do not rather than don't; it is rather than it's. Impersonal constructions: emphasis on objective, third-person reference rather than first-person engagement.

Precise terminology: technical vocabulary appropriate to the discipline or domain.

Example of formal register:

“The research findings indicate a statistically significant correlation between the variables under examination. Further investigation is warranted to elucidate the underlying causal mechanisms.”

The Academic Register

The academic register, a specialised variety of the formal register, is the language of scholarly communication: research articles, monographs, conference papers, and university lectures. It is characterised by the following features:

- **Argumentative structure:** explicit thesis statements, supporting evidence, and counter-arguments.
- **Citation conventions:** formal acknowledgement of sources, often following discipline-specific style guides (e.g., APA, MLA, Chicago, Harvard).
- **Disciplinary vocabulary:** technical terms specific to the field of inquiry.
- **Hedging:** cautious, qualified claims (e.g., “the results suggest,” “it appears that,” “preliminary evidence indicates”).
- **Nominalisation:** the conversion of verbs and adjectives into noun forms (e.g., the analysis of rather than we analysed).

Academic writing is governed by a strong tradition of objectivity, evidence-based reasoning, and intellectual rigour. The conventions of the academic register vary somewhat across disciplines – humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, and engineering each have their own preferred styles—but the underlying commitment to clarity, precision, and logical coherence is universal.

The Informal (Conversational) Register

The informal register is the language of everyday conversation, characterised by colloquial vocabulary, simple or elliptical syntax, and a high degree of contextual reliance. Its features include the following:

- **Colloquial vocabulary:** slang, idioms, and informal expressions (e.g., guy, kid, awesome, weird).
- **Contractions and abbreviations:** don't, gonna, wanna, kinda.
- **Simple sentence structure:** short clauses, frequent use of coordinating conjunctions, and a high proportion of simple sentences.
- **Context-dependent meaning:** heavy reliance on shared knowledge, gesture, and prosodic cues.
- **Discourse markers:** well, you know, I mean, like, right—used to structure spontaneous speech.

Example of informal register:

“Yeah, I bumped into her at the coffee shop the other day. We had a great chat, caught up on stuff. She's doing really well with the new job.”

The Literary Register

The literary register is the language of fiction, poetry, drama, and other creative forms. It is characterised by an unusually high degree of deliberate stylistic choice, including the following:

- **Figurative language:** metaphor, simile, personification, and other tropes.
- **Rhythm and sound:** attention to the phonetic and prosodic qualities of language.
- **Invented or archaic vocabulary:** neologisms, coinages, and the deliberate use of older forms for stylistic effect.
- **Syntactic variation:** deliberate departure from conventional sentence structure for artistic purposes.

Literary language is not a single register but a continuum ranging from the spare, plain prose of Hemingway to the dense, allusive poetry of T. S. Eliot. The literary register is governed above all by the writer's artistic intention rather than by the conventions of a particular social situation.

The Journalistic Register

The journalistic register is the language of newspapers, magazines, news broadcasts, and online news media. It is characterised by the following:

- **Clarity and accessibility:** writing that can be understood by a broad audience.
- **Brevity:** concise sentences, short paragraphs, and the “inverted pyramid” structure, which places the most important information at the beginning.
- **Neutrality:** at least in traditional reporting, an attempt to present facts without overt bias.
- **Headline conventions:** distinctive vocabulary and grammar designed to capture attention.
- **Attribution:** explicit identification of sources (e.g., “according to,” “the minister said,” “officials reported”).

The contemporary digital news environment has significantly altered the journalistic register, with social media platforms encouraging shorter, more emotionally engaging, and often more partisan forms of expression.

The Technical and Professional Register

Technical and professional registers are the languages of specialised fields: medicine, law, engineering, information technology, finance, and so on. These registers are characterised by the following:

- **Highly specialised vocabulary:** terms of art that have precise meanings within the field (e.g., myocardial infarction in medicine, habeas corpus in law, algorithm in computing).
- **Discipline-specific conventions:** formats, abbreviations, and citation styles.
- **Precision and unambiguity:** careful avoidance of terms that could be misinterpreted by a non-specialist.

Effective professional communication requires not only mastery of the technical vocabulary but also the ability to translate that vocabulary into language accessible to non-specialist audiences – a skill often termed translation in the broader sense.

The Digital Register

The digital register is the most recent and most rapidly evolving of the major registers.

Emerging from text messages, emails, chat applications, and social media platforms, it is characterised by the following:

- **Brevity:** short messages, often limited by character counts or platform conventions.

- **Acronyms and abbreviations:** LOL, OMG, BRB, TBH, IMO.
- **Emojis and emoticons:** visual symbols used to convey emotional tone.
- **Non-standard spelling:** deliberate departures from conventional orthography (e.g., gonna, wanna, cuz).
- **Punctuation conventions:** distinctive use of punctuation for emphasis or tone. For example, the period is increasingly used in text messages to signal seriousness or finality, in stark contrast to its absence in casual messages.

The digital register is highly context-dependent and varies significantly across platforms, age groups, and communities. Recent scholarship (Crystal, 2011; Tagliamonte & Denis, 2008) suggests that, contrary to early fears about the deterioration of language, digital communication has in fact expanded the expressive resources of English, allowing for new forms of creativity, intimacy, and community-building.

The Persuasive (Rhetorical) Register

The persuasive register is the language of argument, advocacy, and rhetoric. It is used in political speeches, advertising, legal argument, and editorial writing. It is characterised by the following:

- **Rhetorical devices:** parallelism, antithesis, repetition, and rhetorical questions.
- **Strategic appeals:** appeals to logic (logos), emotion (pathos), and credibility (ethos), as classically described by Aristotle.
- **Manipulation of connotation:** careful selection of words with strong positive or negative associations.
- **Audience awareness:** explicit tailoring of language to the values, beliefs, and expectations of the audience.

The persuasive register has a long and distinguished history in English, from the political oratory of Winston Churchill and Martin Luther King Jr. to the contemporary rhetoric of political campaigns and social media movements.

Register and Context: A Unified View

Although the registers described above are often presented as distinct categories, in practice they exist along continua and frequently overlap. A single academic paper may include passages of formal argumentation, illustrative examples drawn from informal speech, and quotations from a literary source. The effective communicator is able to shift between registers as the situation demands, deploying the formal register in a job interview, the academic register in a research paper, the literary register in a poem, the technical register in a scientific report, and the digital register in a text message.

The choice of register is governed by a small number of interacting variables:

1. **Audience:** who is the message addressed to? A specialist, a general reader, a friend, a superior?
2. **Purpose:** what is the message intended to achieve? To inform, to persuade, to entertain, to express emotion?

3. **Setting:** where is the message delivered? A formal meeting, a classroom, a casual gathering, an online forum?

4. **Channel:** through what medium is the message transmitted? Speech, writing, broadcast, or digital text?

5. **Relationship:** what is the social relationship between speaker and audience? Intimate, professional, hierarchical, or peer-to-peer?

These variables, sometimes called the tenor, field, and mode of discourse in Hallidayan linguistics, determine the appropriate register for any given communicative act.

The Digital Age and the Future of Word Usage

The twenty-first century is witnessing transformations in language use that rival in scale those of any previous era. The rise of artificial intelligence, machine translation, voice-activated assistants, and global social media has created new communicative contexts, new lexical items, and new norms of style and register.

Several trends are particularly noteworthy:

- **The globalisation of English:** as the dominant language of international business, science, and the internet, English continues to absorb lexical and structural features from a vast range of contact languages, producing new varieties such as Global Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF).

- **The rise of multimodal communication:** text is increasingly combined with images, video, and audio, requiring new frameworks for analysing “language” that incorporate all these modes.

- **The acceleration of lexical change:** new words enter the lexicon at unprecedented rates, driven by technological innovation, social change, and the speed of digital dissemination. The Oxford English Dictionary now updates its online edition quarterly, with hundreds of new entries each year.

- **The politicisation of language:** debates about “correct” usage, “inclusive” language, and the politics of speech have become increasingly prominent in public discourse, reflecting broader cultural and social tensions.

- **The persistence of human creativity:** despite—or perhaps because of—technological change, the fundamental human capacity for linguistic creativity remains undiminished. Neologisms, portmanteaus, and playful recombinations of existing forms continue to enrich the language, demonstrating that the evolution of English is an open-ended process with no foreseeable terminus.

CONCLUSION

Language is, in the words of the linguist Edward Sapir, “a great stockpot.” Into it are poured, generation after generation, the words, phrases, and constructions of countless communities, and out of it emerges a continually evolving system of communication that both reflects and shapes the human experience. The history of the English language – from its modest Old English origins to its current status as a global lingua franca – is a story of contact, change, and creative adaptation.

The principles of word usage – the semantic, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic factors that govern the choice of one word over another – remain as relevant today as they were in the age of Shakespeare. And the styles of speech, or registers, that speakers and writers deploy in different contexts continue to provide the rich expressive resources on which effective communication depends.

For the professional communicator – whether writer, teacher, translator, lawyer, scientist, or diplomat – a deep understanding of these dimensions of language is not a luxury but a necessity. The ability to move fluently between registers, to choose words with precision and sensitivity, and to appreciate the historical and cultural forces that have shaped the language is the foundation of all effective professional communication. As English continues to evolve in the digital age, this understanding becomes ever more valuable, and ever more worth cultivating.

REFERENCES

1. Algeo, J. (2006). The origins and development of the global English-language dictionary. In B. B. Kachru, Y. Kachru, & C. L. Nelson (Eds.), *The handbook of world Englishes* (pp. 50-51). Blackwell.
2. Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
3. Crystal, D. (2011). *Internet linguistics: A student guide*. Routledge.
4. Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole & J. L. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and semantics 3: Speech acts* (pp. 41-42). Academic Press.
5. Halliday, M. A. K., McIntosh, A., & Stevens, P. (1964). *The linguistic sciences and language teaching*. Longmans.
6. Hogg, R. M. (Ed.). (1992). *Cambridge history of the English language*. Cambridge University Press.
7. Hughes, A. (2006). *A history of English words*. Blackwell.
8. McArthur, T. (1998). *Concise Oxford companion to the English language*. Oxford University Press.
9. Mufwene, S. S. (2001). *The ecology of language evolution*. Cambridge University Press.
10. Pescuma, V. N., et al. (2023). Situating language register across the ages, languages, modalities, and cultural aspects: Evidence from complementary methods. *PMC*.
11. Sapir, E. (1921). *Language: An introduction to the study of speech*. Harcourt, Brace.
12. Tagliamonte, S. A., & Denis, D. (2008). Linguistic ruin? LOL! Instant messaging and teen language. *American Speech*, 83(1), 3-6.
13. Trudgill, P. (2000). *Sociolinguistics: An introduction to language and society* (4th ed.). Penguin.