



# Wilmslow High School

# English Language A Level

## AQA English Language

## Student Handbook & Learning Guide

Name:

Form:

### Useful links:

- You can also keep up to date by following us on:  
Twitter @whigh\_KS5eng
- Blog: <http://englishlangsfx.blogspot.co.uk/>
- Firefly: <https://wilmslowhigh.fireflycloud.net/english-lang>



## ENGLISH LANGUAGE Course Outline

AQA GCE English Lang.	Unit	Weighting	Assessment
<b>A Level ENGLISH LANGUAGE</b>	<b>Unit 1</b> <b>Language, the Individual and Society</b>	40% of A Level	Exam – 2 hours 30mins
	<b>Unit 2</b> <b>Language Diversity and Change</b>	40% of A Level	Exam – 2 hours 30mins
	<b>Unit 3</b> <b>Non-Examination Assessment: Language in Action</b>	20% of A Level	Internally marked Externally moderated

### AQA Assessment Objective 01

#### **AO1 APPLY**

Apply appropriate methods of language analysis, using associated terminology and coherent written expression.

### AQA Assessment Objective 02

#### **AO2 UNDERSTANDING**

Demonstrate critical understanding of concepts and issues relevant to language use.

### AQA Assessment Objective 03

#### **AO3 CONTEXT**

Analyse and evaluate how contextual factors and language features are associated with the construction of meaning.

### AQA Assessment Objective 04

#### **AO4 CONNECTIONS**

Explore connections across texts, informed by linguistic concepts and methods.

### AQA Assessment Objective 05

#### **AO5 CREATIVITY**

Demonstrate expertise and creativity in the use of English to communicate in different ways.



# Specification at a glance

These qualifications are linear. Linear means that students will sit all the AS exams at the end of their AS course and all the A-level exams at the end of their A-level course.

Paper 1: Language, the individual and society	+ Paper 2: Language diversity and change	+ Non-exam assessment: Language in action
<b>What's assessed</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Textual variations and representations</li> <li>Children's language development (0–11 years)</li> <li>Methods of language analysis are integrated into the activities</li> </ul>	<b>What's assessed</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Language diversity and change</li> <li>Language discourses</li> <li>Writing skills</li> <li>Methods of language analysis are integrated into the activities</li> </ul>	<b>What's assessed</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Language investigation</li> <li>Original writing</li> <li>Methods of language analysis are integrated into the activities</li> </ul>
<b>Assessed</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>written exam: 2 hours 30 minutes</li> <li>100 marks</li> <li>40% of A-level</li> </ul>	<b>Assessed</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>written exam: 2 hours 30 minutes</li> <li>100 marks</li> <li>40% of A-level</li> </ul>	<b>Assessed</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>word count: 3,500</li> <li>100 marks</li> <li>20% of A-level</li> <li>assessed by teachers</li> <li>moderated by AQA</li> </ul>
<b>Questions</b>  <b>Section A – Textual variations and representations</b>  Two texts (one contemporary and one older text) linked by topic or theme. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>A question requiring analysis of one text (25 marks)</li> <li>A question requiring analysis of a second text (25 marks)</li> <li>A question requiring comparison of the two texts (20 marks)</li> </ul> <b>Section B – Children's language development</b>  A discursive essay on children's language development, with a choice of two questions where the data provided will focus on spoken, written or multimodal language (30 marks)	<b>Questions</b>  <b>Section A – Diversity and change</b>  One question from a choice of two: <b>either:</b> an evaluative essay on language diversity (30 marks) <b>or:</b> an evaluative essay on language change (30 marks)  <b>Section B – Language discourses</b>  Two texts about a topic linked to the study of diversity and change. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>A question requiring analysis of how the texts use language to present ideas, attitudes and opinions (40 marks)</li> <li>A directed writing task linked to the same topic and the ideas in the texts (30 marks)</li> </ul>	<b>Tasks</b>  Students produce: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a language investigation (2,000 words excluding data)</li> <li>a piece of original writing and commentary (1,500 words total)</li> </ul>



## English Language A Level Course Outline 2019-2020

### Year 12 Course Outline

**Paper 1: Language, the Individual and the Society**

**Paper 2: Language Diversity and Change**

**Non-examination assessment(NEA): Language in Action**

<b>Summer task</b> - data collection/ introduction to linguistic study		
	<b>Teacher 1</b>	<b>Teacher 2</b>
<b>Autumn 1</b>	Introduction to linguistic methods – written language	<i>Paper 2 – Language Diversity and Change</i> Language and Social Groups Evaluative essay writing skills
<b>Checkpoint w/c 23<sup>th</sup> September</b> Linguistic test		
	Introduction to linguistic methods – spoken language  Prepare for text analysis	<i>Paper 2 – Language Diversity and Change</i> Language and Occupational groups/Power Evaluative essay writing skills
<b>1 Assessment week w/c 14<sup>th</sup> October</b> Text Analysis AS style Paper 2 question		
<b>Autumn 2</b>	<i>Paper 1 – Language, the Individual and the Society</i> Section A	<i>Paper 2 – Language Diversity and Change</i> Language and Gender Evaluative essay writing skills
<b>2 Assessment week w/c 11<sup>th</sup> November</b> Timed essay: Paper 1: Section A Timed essay: Paper 2: Evaluative essay		
<b>Folder scrutiny week w/c 9<sup>th</sup> December</b>		
<b>January Examinations 20<sup>th</sup></b> Timed essay: Paper 1 Section A Timed essay: Paper 2 Evaluative essay		
<b>Spring 1</b>	<i>Paper 1- Language, the Individual and the Society</i> CLA Spoken	<i>Paper 2 – Language Diversity and Change</i> Language and Region Evaluative essay writing skills
<b>Spring 2</b>	<i>Paper 1- Language, the Individual and the Society</i> CLA Literacy	<i>Paper 2 – Language Diversity and Change</i> Language Change
<b>3 Assessment week w/c 23<sup>th</sup> March</b> Timed essay: Paper 1: Section B Timed essay: Paper 2: Q1 Evaluative essay		
<b>Summer 1</b>	NEA Investigation preparation  Examination Revision: <i>Paper 1</i>	NEA Original Writing preparation  Examination Revision: <i>Paper 2</i>
<b>Summer 2</b>	<i>Paper 1-Language, the Individual and the Society</i> Revision	<i>Paper 2 – Language Diversity and Change</i> Revision
<b>Year 12 Exams Weeks 15<sup>th</sup> June till 26<sup>th</sup></b> <i>Paper 1: Language, the individual and society – full paper spoken</i> 2 hours 30mins <i>Paper 2 – Language Diversity and Change: Evaluative essay</i> 1 hour		
Summer Task: NEA preparation		



## English Language A Level Course Outline – 2020-2021

### Year 13 Course Outline

**Paper 1: Language, the Individual and the Society**

**Paper 2: Language Diversity and Change**

**Non-examination assessment (NEA): Language in Action**

Summer task Draft of NEA Investigation & Original Writing		
	Teacher 1	Teacher 2
<b>Autumn 1</b>	NEA Language Investigation  <i>Paper 1- Language, the Individual and the Society</i>	NEA Original Writing  <i>Paper 2 – Language Diversity and Change</i> Change & World Englishes Q1/2 Language Discourses Paper 2 Q3/Q4
Folder scrutiny week / Coursework progress check		
Assessment week NEA drafts Or <i>Paper 1: Language, the individual and society – CLA multi-modal</i> <i>Paper 2 – Language Diversity and Change: Evaluative essay Change</i>		
<b>Autumn 2</b>	<i>Paper 1- Language, the Individual and the Society</i>	<i>Paper 2 – Language Diversity and Change</i> Language Discourses Paper 2 Q3/Q4
Mock Examination January Both papers?		
<b>Spring 1</b>	<i>Paper 1- Language, the Individual and the Society</i>	<i>Paper 2 – Language Diversity and Change</i> Language Discourses Paper 2 Q3/Q4
Assessment week Paper 2: Language Diversity and Change Q3/4		
<b>Spring 2</b>	<i>Paper 1- Language, the Individual and the Society</i> Revision	<i>Paper 2 – Language Diversity and Change</i> Revision
April Internal mock  Paper 1: Language, the individual and society & 2 hours 30mins		
<b>Summer 1</b>	Feedback and revision	Feedback and revision



## Folder Scrutiny

ALPs 90	
Projected Grade	

Date of monitoring	Notes (organised with dates and titles)	Marked essays	Course handbook (attainment tracker completed to date)	Evidence of wider reading	WWW/EBI

### Organising Notes and Resources

All students **must** purchase an A4 ring-bound folder in which to keep:

1. All lesson notes (with clear dates and titles)
2. Any additional resources given out by your teacher
3. Marked essays
4. Wider reader notes
5. Your copy of the course handbook

At least once a term, your folder will be monitored to ensure that you are managing your resources effectively. The dates for the folder checks are marked on the course outline and on the table below.

It is your responsibility to ensure that your folders are available for checking during these weeks: if you fail to produce your folder, then you will be referred for further monitoring.

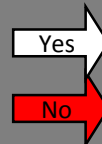


## Knowledge Organisers (KO)

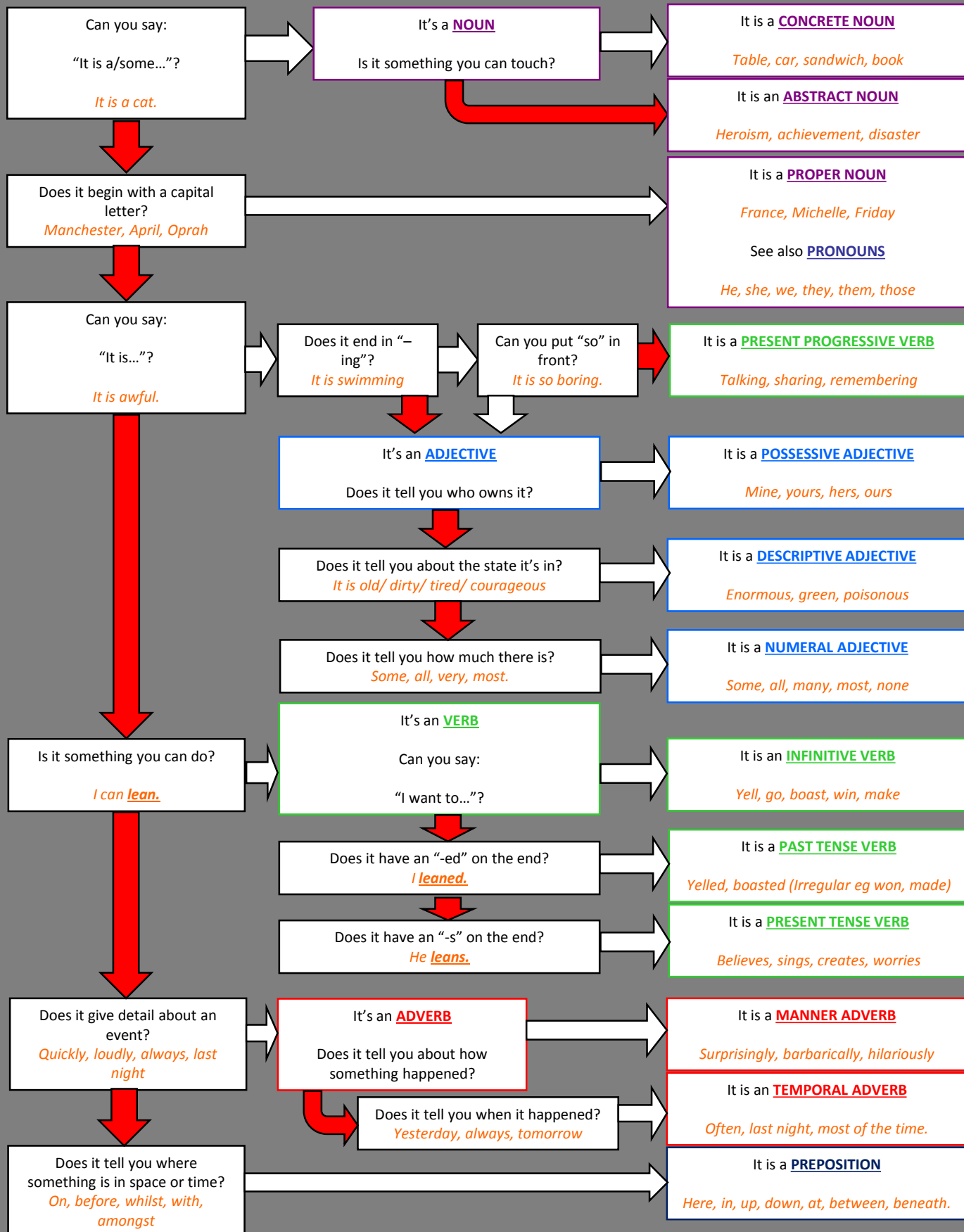
### **Contents:**

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- Page 15- Child Language Acquisition KOs
  - Page 15- CLA Spoken KO
  - Page 17- CLA Reading KO
  - Page 18- CLA Writing KO
- Page 21- Language & Gender KO
- Page 24- Language & Social Groups KO
- Page 27- Language & Region KO
- Page 30- Language & Occupation KO
- Page 33- Language Change KO

# Which word class is it?



## Start here:





# Written Language

Open class words are extremely large in number; about 90% of the words in our vocabulary are open-class. It is possible to coin new words in this class. Open class words include **verbs (v)**, **nouns (n)**, **adjectives (adj)** and **adverbs (adv)**. An example of a newly coined word is as follows: crowd (n) + source (v) = **crowdsource (v)**. Morphemes can be added to words to generate new words: micro- (prefix) + chip (n) = **microchip (n)**.

## Nouns

*There are several different types of noun, as follows:*

### Common noun

A common noun is a noun that refers to people or things in general, e.g. *boy, country, bridge, city, birth, day, happiness*.

### Proper noun

A proper noun is a name that identifies a particular person, place, or thing, e.g. *Steven, Africa, London, Monday*. In written English, proper nouns begin with capital letters.

### Concrete noun

A concrete noun is a noun which refers to people and to things that exist physically and can be seen, touched, smelled, heard, or tasted. Examples include *dog, building, coffee, tree, rain, beach, tune*.

### Abstract noun

An abstract noun is a noun which refers to ideas, qualities, and conditions - things that cannot be seen or touched and things which have no physical reality, e.g. *truth, danger, happiness, time, friendship, humour*.

### Collective nouns

Collective nouns refer to groups of people or things, e.g. *audience, family, government, team, jury*.

A noun may belong to more than one category. For example, *happiness* is both a common noun and an abstract noun, while *Mount Everest* is both a concrete noun and a proper noun.

### Count and mass nouns

Nouns can be either countable or uncountable. **Countable nouns** (or **count nouns**) are those that refer to something that can be counted. **Uncountable nouns** (or **non-count** or **mass nouns**) do not typically refer to things that can be counted and so they do not regularly have a plural form. (See table)

Three questions can help you to identify which class a word belongs to, whether open or closed-class words:

1. What kind of **meaning** does it have? What does it do or express?
2. What is its **function**? What is its role in relation to other words within a phrase, clause or sentence?
3. What is its **form**? What are its morphological structures? (e.g. 'root' and suffix, inflections etc.)

Word	With countable noun?	With uncountable noun?	Examples
few, fewer	✓	X	fewer students; few cars
little, less, least	X	✓	less food; little time
many, several	✓	X	several books; many changes
much	X	✓	much pleasure; much sleep

## Pronouns

Pronouns are related to nouns, as they can "stand in" for any noun: They are closed-class words.

- They refer to people, objects, events, animals etc. just as nouns do.
- They include the "wh-" words; who, what, where, why, when and how.
- **Subjective pronouns:** I, you, he, she, it, we, they.
- **Objective pronouns:** me, you, us, him, her, it, them.
- **Possessive pronouns:** mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs.
- **Reflexive pronouns:** myself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

## Verbs

Verb process	Type	Examples
Material	Describes actions or events	<i>Hit, run, hold, remove, read, push</i>
Relational	Describes states of being or are used to identify	<i>Be, appear, become, seem</i>
Mental	Describes perception thought or speech	<i>Think, speak, believe, love</i>
Dynamic	Process where there is a change in state over time	<i>Paint, remove, eat</i>
Stative	Processes where the situation remains constant	<i>Love, know, believe</i>

### Active & Passive voice:

When the verb is active, the subject of the verb is doing the action (*e.g. France beat Brazil in the final*). When the verb is passive, the subject has the action done to it, rather than doing it (*e.g. Brazil was beaten in the final*).

### Transitive and intransitive verbs:

Transitive verbs require an object. "He carried the bag" requires the object "the bag" or the sentence is incomplete: "He carried."

Intransitive verbs don't take an object: *He ran. They napped. The dog barked.*

The following verbs can be both transitive and intransitive:

- They cheered./ They cheered the band.
- She sang./ She sang a song.
- Shauna tripped./ Shauna tripped Alex.
- We visited./ We visited Aunt Ruth.

## Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs are another type of **closed-class word**. They are verbs which modify other verbs. They can come in two overall categories:

- **Primary auxiliaries:** Primary auxiliaries are verbs which can be used as auxiliaries or stand on their own. They are the conjugated forms of *to be*, *to have* and *to do*.

*He **is** running; I **do** like cake; I **did** go to school yesterday;*

*You **have** bought lovely shoes.*

Modals of possibility	...of obligation/ necessity	... of certainty
could	should	will
might	must	shall
may	<b>↑ Modal auxiliaries:</b> Modal auxiliaries are verbs which can <i>only</i> be used as auxiliary verbs. They fall into their own categories.	
would		

- **Deontic modality:** constructions that express degrees of necessity, permission and obligation (*e.g. You may go when you've finished*)
- **Epistemic modality:** constructions which express degrees of possibility, probability or certainty. (*e.g. It might be true*).

## Adjectives

Adjectives typically denote a quality or property attributed to a noun. They help specify or narrow down what the noun refers to.

- They can be the head of an adjective phrase *e.g. She is **very nice**.*
- Some adjectives are formed by using the present and past participle forms of verbs: *e.g. the running goat, the hatched egg, the harassed teacher.*
- Some adjectives can be gradable, using either inflections or submodifiers (See table below).

Simple	Comparative	Superlative
funny	funnier	funniest
good	better	best
beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful

## Adverbs

Adverbs modify verbs. The table below lists different types of adverbs, with the questions that can be applied to the action or process conveyed by the verb.

Adverb Type	Question	Examples
Manner	How?	Well, badly, cleverly
Place	Where?	Here, there, everywhere
Time	When?	Now, then, soon, tomorrow
Duration	How long?	Briefly, always, sometimes
Frequency	How often?	Weekly, daily, always, frequently
Degree	To what extent?	Rather, quite, much, hardly

Adverbs can occur in different places in a sentence, where other word classes tend to be fixed in their order: e.g. *Suddenly he leapt up; He leapt suddenly up.*

- **Adverbial phrases** are groups of two or more words which modify a verb, e.g. *I parked the car right under the bridge.* A **fronted adverbial** is an adverb which sits at the front of a sentence or clause, e.g. *Before the sun came up, she ate her breakfast.*

## Closed Class Words

Closed class words are relatively finite in number, and can also be referred to as **grammatical** or **function** words. They serve to link open-class words in longer, meaningful structures.

Type of word	Symbol	Example
Determiner	(d)	the, a, this, that, some, any, all.
Pronoun	(pn)	you, me, she, them, some, it, us.
Preposition	(p)	in, of, on, at, to, under, from.
Conjunction	(cj)	and, but, or, if... then, although.
Auxiliary Verb	(aux)	can, will, may, is, has, does, shall.
Enumerator	(e)	one, three, first, ninety-third.
Interjection	(ij)	oh, ah, hey, ugh, oops, blimey, shit.

Pronouns and **auxiliary verbs** have been discussed in the *noun* and *verb* sections respectively, but a definition of each of the others is as follows.

- **Determiners** (d) introduce noun phrases and function as modifiers. They include the articles “a/an”; demonstratives such as “this”, “that”, “those”; submodifiers such as “all”, “some”, “every” and “either”.
- **Prepositions** (p) introduce prepositional phrases, and are followed by a noun phrase (*in, on, to, from, under, with* etc.). They express relations of possession, place, time etc., and therefore function in sentences like adverbs.
- **Conjunctions** (cj) are linking words between phrases and clauses.
  - **Coordinating conjunctions:** *and, but, or, neither, nor...*
  - **Subordinating conjunctions:** a much larger set of words which often introduce a clause within a sentence which is related to the main clause: *because, however, if, so that, as though...*
  - Some conjunctions occur in pairs and link two parts of a sentence: *if... then, although... yet, both... and, either... or, neither... nor.*
- **Enumerators** (e) can include the following: cardinal numbers (*one, two, three etc.*); ordinal numbers (*first, second, third etc.*); general types (*next, last, further, other etc.*).
- **Interjections** (ij) are “primitive” expressions of feeling or attitude. They can include swear words, utterances (*oh!, ugh! Oop! etc*) and greetings/ social lubricants (*no way!, yeah, okay, sure etc.*)

## Key Terms

Key Term	Definition
Euphemism	A mild or indirect term which replaces one considered too harsh, blunt or embarrassing. E.g. <i>Kicked the bucket</i> = dead; <i>downsizing</i> = budget/ staff cuts.
Dysphemism	A derogatory or unpleasant term used instead of a pleasant or neutral one. E.g. <i>pig</i> = policeman, <i>bullshit</i> = lies
Idiom	A group of words established as having a meaning not easy to work out from the words. E.g. <i>over the moon</i> .
Denotation	A strict, “dictionary” definition.
Connotation	An associated symbolic meaning relying on culturally shared conventions.

# Spoken Language

Key Term	Definition
Anaphoric Referencing	Anaphoric reference occurs when a word or phrase refers to something mentioned earlier in the discourse. <i>E.g. Michael went to the bank. <u>He</u> was annoyed because <u>it</u> was closed.</i>
Cataphoric Referencing	Cataphoric reference occurs when a word or phrase refers to something mentioned later in the discourse. <i>E.g. Although I phone <u>her</u> every week, my mother still complains that I don't keep in touch often enough.</i>
Exophoric Referencing	Exophoric reference occurs when a word or phrase refers to something outside the discourse. <i>E.g. They're late again, can you believe it?</i>
Idiolect	An individual's style of speaking, or "linguistic fingerprint". (See also: Sociolect)
IPA	A series of phonemes, represented by the International Phonetic Alphabet (see right).
Mode	The medium of communication, for example speech or writing.
Non-Verbal Behaviour	Eye contact and facial expressions
Paralanguage	Voice quality and other vocal effects (e.g. whispering or laughter)
Phonetics	The study of sounds.
Phonology	Looking at the sound system of a language and comparing it with the <b>phonological system</b> of other languages.
Phonological Repertoires	The range of language forms and styles (including sounds) that regional speakers have access to.
Received Pronunciation	The accent traditionally associated with high social status; " <b>Received</b> " - the idea of social acceptance in official circles.
Sociolect	A defined use of language as a result of membership to a social group. (See also: Idiolect)

p	t	k	f	s	θ	ʃ	tʃ
<u>p</u> en	<u>t</u> alk	<u>c</u> an	<u>f</u> ive	<u>s</u> ix	<u>th</u> anks	<u>sh</u> e	<u>te</u> acher
b	d	g	v	z	ð	ʒ	dʒ
<u>b</u> ed	<u>d</u> oes	<u>g</u> et	<u>v</u> ery	<u>z</u> ero	<u>th</u> is	tele <u>vis</u> ion	<u>j</u> acket
h	l	r	w	m	n	ŋ	j
<u>h</u> at	<u>l</u> eg	<u>r</u> ead	<u>w</u> et	<u>m</u> other	<u>n</u> urse	<u>s</u> ing	<u>y</u> es
ɪ	i:	u:	ʊ	eɪ	ɪə	əʊ	aɪ-pi:-eɪ
<u>h</u> it	<u>bee</u> n	<u>foo</u> d	<u>foo</u> t	<u>pa</u> ge	<u>he</u> re	<u>kn</u> ow	
ə	ɜ:	ɔ:	ɒ	aɪ	eə	aʊ	
<u>a</u> go	<u>fi</u> rst	<u>bo</u> ught	<u>go</u> t	<u>fi</u> ve	<u>the</u> re	<u>hou</u> se	
e	æ	ɑ:	ʌ	ɔɪ	ʊə		
<u>p</u> en	<u>c</u> at	<u>c</u> ar	<u>b</u> ut	<u>vo</u> ice	<u>po</u> or		

## Functions of Speech

Referential	To provide information
Expressive	To express feelings
Transactional	To get something done
Interactional	Social relationships
Phatic Communication	Small talk

Key Features of Spoken Language		Deixis	
1.	<b>Tag questions:</b> extra phrases added on to the end of sentences in order to make a question. Could be a sign of speaker support, uncertainty or a request for clarification. <i>E.g. It was tomorrow, wasn't it? You did really well, didn't you?</i>	A <i>deictic expression</i> (or <i>deixis</i> ) is a word or phrase which points to the time, place or situation in which a speaker is speaking.  There are three main types of deixis:	
2.	<b>Back-channelling:</b> A feature to show the listener is supporting or paying attention to the speaker. <i>E.g. Mmm, yeah, OK</i>		
3.	<b>Fillers:</b> Non-verbal sounds that can act as pauses in speech, either naturally or to give a speaker thinking time. May signal speaker uncertainty. <i>E.g. Er, um</i>		
5.	<b>Skip connectors:</b> These return to a previous topic of conversation and act as a type of discourse marker. <i>E.g. Anyway, coming back to our original discussion</i>	1	<b>Personal:</b> Personal deixis encodes the participants' roles in a speech event and shows itself typically in personal and possessive pronouns. " <i>I, you, he, she, it, we, they</i> ".
6.	<b>Hedging:</b> A strategy used by a speaker to avoid directness or to try to avoid what could be a face-threatening act. <i>E.g. kind of, sort of, maybe, perhaps, possibly, could, might</i>		
7.	<b>Discourse markers:</b> Words that signal a shift in conversation and topic areas. Can also announce a counter-argument. <i>E.g. Ok, right then, so, but</i>		
8.	<b>False starts :</b> These are used when a speaker begins to speak, pauses then starts again. <i>E.g. It began er Arsenal kicked off the second half</i>	2	<b>Spatial:</b> Words describing the speaker in space or in relation to other objects. " <i>here, there, these, those, this, that</i> ".
9.	<b>Non-fluency features:</b> Parts of speech that are not made of actual words. <i>E.g. pauses, hesitations, repetitions that occur in spontaneous speech.</i>		
10.	<b>Ellipsis:</b> Leaving out words in spoken language because they are not needed. <i>E.g. Just seen Jack, Tonight, 8pm</i>		
11.	<b>Adjacency pairs:</b> An adjacency pair is composed of two utterances by two speakers, one after the other. The speaking of the first utterance (the first-pair part, or the first turn) provokes a responding utterance (the second-pair part, or the second turn).	3	<b>Temporal:</b> Temporal deixis is expressed in time adverbials like " <i>now, then, soon, lately, recently, ago, today, tomorrow, yesterday</i> " more complex time adverbials like " <i>last Monday, next year, or this afternoon</i> ", and in verb tenses.
12.	<b>Repairs:</b> These are used when a speaker returns to correct a previously stated phrase or sentence. <i>E.g. He sorry she broke the glass.</i>		
13.	<b>Vague expressions :</b> Similar to hedging, these are deliberately non-committal expressions. <i>E.g. Anything, something, thing, whatsit</i>		

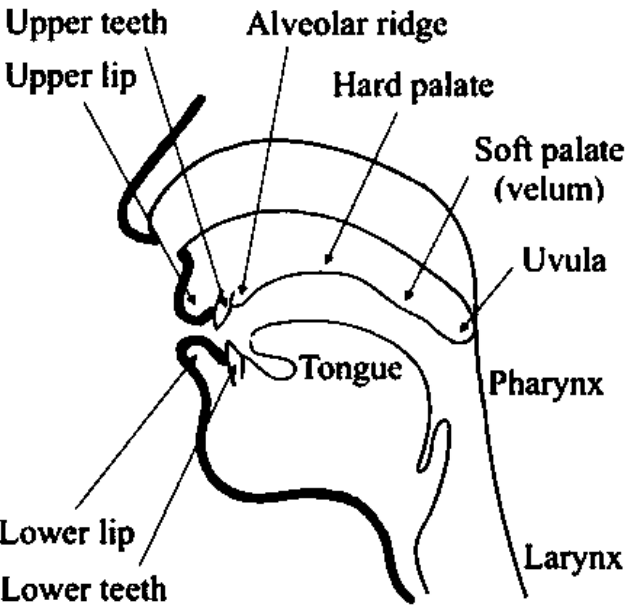
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# AO2 – Key Theories and Concepts

1.	<b>Grice's Maxims</b> Quantity: use an appropriate amount of detail. Quality: speak the truth and do not knowingly mislead. Relevance: keep what is being discussed relevant to the topic. Manner: avoid vagueness and ambiguity.
2.	<b>Giles's Accommodation theory</b> Howard Giles proposed that when speakers seek approval in a social situation they are likely to change their speech so that it is similar to the listener. <b>This is called convergent accommodation.</b>  However, if the speaker wants to disassociate him/herself from the speaker, they may change their speech to show they are different. <b>This is called divergent accommodation.</b>
3.	In any interaction, we present an image of ourselves to others. This is our 'face'. <i>(Goffman 1955)</i>
4.	Brown and Levinson (1987) developed Goffman's ideas of 'face' and speak of face needs being met by positive and negative politeness. When communicating, it is important to have regard for another person's <b>face</b> . Brown and Levinson developed <b>Goffman's</b> ideas of 'face' by referring to <b>positive</b> and <b>negative</b> politeness. <b>Positive politeness</b> is demonstrated when we show people that they are liked and <b>admired</b> , whilst negative politeness is shown when we avoid <b>intruding</b> on others' lives. Politeness can be affected by <b>cultural</b> factors and Britain has been identified as a culture that stresses <b>negative</b> politeness.
5.	<b>Face Threatening Acts</b> - Brown and Levinson argue that, since it is seen of mutual interest to save, maintain, or support each other's face, FTAs are either avoided (if possible) or different strategies are employed to counteract or soften the FTAs.
6.	<i>Brown and Levinson's Superstrategies</i>  <b>1. Bald-on record:</b> FTA performed bald-on-record, in a direct and concise way without redressive action. e.g. imperative form without any redress: <i>'Wash your hands'</i>  <b>2. Positive Politeness:</b> FTA performed with redressive action. Strategies oriented towards positive face of the hearer. e.g. strategies seeking common ground or co-operation, such as in jokes or offers: <i>'Wash your hands, honey'</i>  <b>3. Negative Politeness:</b> FTA performed with redressive action. Strategies oriented towards negative face of the hearer. e.g. indirect formulation: <i>'Would you mind washing your hands?'</i>  <b>4. Off-record:</b> FTA performed off-record. Strategies that might allow the act to have more than one interpretation. e.g. <i>off-record strategies</i> , which consist of all types of hints, metaphors, tautologies, etc. <i>'Gardening makes your hands dirty'</i> , <i>'It's getting cold in here'</i> .  <b>5. Avoidance:</b> FTA not performed.
7.	As Culpeper notes (1994: 165) "positive facework attempts to provide the pill with a sugar coating; negative facework attempts to soften the blow."


# CLA Spoken

Pre-Verbal Stages				Linguistic Stages		
Stage	Features	Approx. Age (Months)	Examples	Stage	Features	Approx. Age (Months)
Vegetative	Sounds of discomfort or reflexive actions.	0-4	Crying, coughing, burping, sucking.	Holophrastic/ One-word	One word utterances	12-18
Cooing	Comfort sounds; vocal play.	4-7	Grunts and sighs become ‘coos’. Laughter starts. Hard consonants and vowels produced. Volume and pitch increased.		Two Word	Two-word combinations
Babbling	Extended sounds, resembling syllable-like sequences; repeated patterns.	6-12	Sounds link to own language. Reduplicated sounds (‘ba-ba’) and non-reduplicated variegated such as ‘agu’.	Telegraphic	Three and more words combined	24-36
Proto-Words	Word-like vocalisations.	9-12		Post-telegraphic	More grammatically complex combinations.	36+
7 Main Articulators						
Pharynx, velum/soft palate, hard palate, alveolar ridge, tongue, teeth, lips.						



Halliday's Taxonomy- Functions of Speech		
Instrumental	Language used to fulfil a need on the speaker's part.	Directly concerned with obtaining food, drink, comfort.
Regulatory	Language used to influence the behaviour of others.	Persuading/ commanding/ requesting.
Interactional	Language used to develop social relationships.	Phatic talk.
Personal	Language used to express preferences and identity.	Likes and dislikes- asserting own identity.
Representational	Language used to exchange information.	Relay or request information.
Heuristic	Language used to learn and explore the environment.	Talk during play- running commentaries.
Imaginative	Language used to explore the imagination.	Storytelling, creating imaginary worlds.

# CLA Spoken

Features of Child- Directed Speech	Early-Words Phonology	Brown's Order of Morpheme Acquisition	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Repetition and/ or repeated sentence frames.</li> <li>• Reduplication ('<i>din-din</i>')</li> <li>• Phonemic deletion and substitution ('<i>ickle</i>')</li> <li>• Addition/ diminutives ('<i>doggie</i>')</li> <li>• Higher pitch and sing-song intonation</li> <li>• The child's name rather than a pronoun.</li> <li>• Fewer verbs/ modifiers.</li> <li>• Expansions (developing the child's utterance into a longer, more meaningful form)</li> <li>• Recasts (commenting on, extending and rephrasing a child's utterance)</li> <li>• Present tense</li> <li>• Yes/ no questioning.</li> <li>• Tag questions.</li> <li>• Exaggerating pauses and questions to give turn taking cues.</li> <li>• Concrete nouns.</li> <li>• Prompts.</li> <li>• One-word utterances.</li> <li>• Mitigated imperatives.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Addition</li> <li>• Deletion</li> <li>• Reduplication</li> <li>• Substitution</li> <li>• Consonant cluster reduction</li> <li>• Deletion of unstressed syllables.</li> <li>• Assimilation.</li> </ul>	Present tense progressive	-ing
	 <p><b>Cruttenden (1973):</b> 3 stages of inflection acquisition.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Inconsistent</li> <li>• Consistent but sometimes misapplied.</li> <li>• Consistent.</li> </ul>	Prepositions	In, on etc
		Plurals	-s
		Possessive	's
		Articles	a, the
		Past-tense regular	-ed
		Third person regular	eg. he runs
		Auxiliaries and 'to be'	eg. am, is, was

## CLA Spoken- AO2 Theories and Concepts

- **Katherine Nelson (1973)**- First words, 4 categories: naming, action/events, describing/modifying things, social words.
- **Rescorlas'** over-extension- categorical, analogical, mis-match.
- **Aitchinson's** meanings (1987) labelling, packaging, network building.
- **Chomsky**- innate/ nativist. The capacity and apparatus of language are present when we are born; believed all children are born with the LAD that controls language development.
- **Skinner**- behaviourist. Believed that language is a behaviour learned through positive and negative reinforcement.
- **Piaget**- cognitive. Believed language acquisition is a part of a child's wider development and comes with understanding of the language being used.
- **Bruner**- interactionist. Believed that interactions between a child and care-giver are essential to language development.
- **Vygotsky**- language and thinking debate; connection between language and thought.

### Studies

- Jean Berko Gleason (1958): *Wugs*.
- Berko and Brown (1960): *Fis Phenomena*.
- Brown, Cazden and Bellugi (1969): *Truth value of children's utterances*.
- Clarke-Stewart (1973): *Children of mothers who talk more have larger vocabularies*.
- Katherine Nelson (1973): *Over-correction in the holographic stage slows down linguistic development*.
- Sinclair and Coulthard (1975): *Initiation, response, feedback (IRF)*.

### Case Studies

- Bard and Sachs (1977): *Jim born to deaf parents*.
- Oxana Molaya (1991): *Ukraine dogs*.
- Genie (1970): *Critical period hypothesis*.



# CLA Reading

## Studies and Theories

- **Jerome Bruner, 1981:** Proposed four interaction phases-
  1. *Gaining attention:* Getting the baby's attention on a picture.
  2. *Query:* Asking the baby what the object in the picture is.
  3. *Label:* Telling the baby what the object in the picture is.
  4. *Feedback:* Responding to the baby's utterance.
- Social interaction lies at the heart of language development:
  - Constructivist approach- learners construct new ideas or concepts founded on existing knowledge.
  - Scaffolding- Support given by caregivers through modelling.
  - Constructivist approach- three modes of representation that connect how we learn and store information in our memory:
    - Action based- learning about motor responses and physical actions (starts between 0 and 12 months)
    - Image based- storing of images in our minds (develops between 1 and 6 years old)
    - Language based- growing understanding of the symbolic and coded nature of words and meanings (develops from 7 years old onwards)
- **Lev Vygotsky, 1896-1934:** Proposed social interaction in 1934, but it became increasingly popular in the 1980s.
  - **ZPD (Zone of Proximal Development)**- area between what a child can already do and what is beyond their reach; the area into which a caregiver might enable the child to progress by offering the necessary support or scaffolding to support learning.
  - **MKO (More Knowledgeable Other)**- participant in an interaction who might offer support to further the child's development or learning.
- **Shirley Brice Heath (1983):** Proposed that literary practices are cultural, and what it means to be literate can vary from one culture to another. Developed a 9 year study of two American working-class communities in North Carolina; Roadville (predominantly white): parents placed bigger emphasis on educational books and supporting reading development; Trackton (predominantly African American): the community had more of a tradition of oral storytelling than the written word- not as directive in their child's development of literacy skills.
- **Marie Clay (1926-2007):** New Zealand. Proposed that from their first encounters with books, children are becoming aware of the conventions of the written word: Print carries a message; books are organised (titles, covers, pages etc.) and have directionality and orientation; printed language consists of letters, words and sentences and uses punctuation; lower and upper case letters have different meanings.
- **Reading cues:** Schools can use a three-cueing system to encourage children to work out words they cannot read straightaway.
  - Meaning: does it make sense within the context? **Semantic cue.**
  - Structure: does it make sense within the sentence? **Syntactic cue.**
  - Visual: does it look right? **Graphophonic cue.**
- **Miscues in reading:** Coined by **Ken Goodman (1965)**- child not reading the text exactly as it appears on the page:
  - Correction
  - Omission
  - Repetition
  - Reversal
  - Substitution
- **Alan Luke and Peter Freebody (1999):** Suggested a concept of literacy which involves four related resources: a) Code-breaking, b) Text participating, c) Text-using, d) Text-analysing.

Jeanne Chall's Reading Stages, 1983

Stage	Description	Age	Key Characteristics
	Pre-reading and pseudo reading	Up to 6	Pretend reading (turning pages and repeating stories previously read to them)
1	Initial reading and decoding	6-7	Reading simple texts containing high frequency lexis. Estimated 600 words understood.
2	Confirmation and fluency	7-8	Reading texts more quickly, accurately and fluently, paying more attention to meanings of words and texts.
3	Reading for learning	9-14	Reading for knowledge and information becomes the motivation.
4	Multiplicity and complexity	14-17	Responding critically to what they read and analysing texts.
5	Construction and reconstruction	18+	Reading selectively and forming opinions about what they have read.

Key Terms

- **Synthetic phonics:** Words are broken up into individual phonemes, helping to connect graphemes to phonemes (*e.g. /k/ /a/ /t/, cat*).
- **Analytic phonics:** learners consider the relationships between individual letters and sounds, (*e.g. discussing how the following words are alike: pat, park, push and pen; leading to the realisation that the initial phoneme /p i g/ is the same as that in /p æ t, p a: k, p u f/ and /p e n/.*)
- **Onset:** The initial consonant.
- **Rime:** Vowel and following consonant.
- **Digraph:** ch, sh, ea- two letters making one sound or phoneme.
- **Split digraph:** A digraph split by a consonant (*e.g. note; /nəʊt/ or lake, /leɪk/*)
- **Vowel digraph:** Two vowels together which make one sound (*e.g. /oa/, /oo/, /ee/, /ai/.*)
- **Consonant digraph:** Two consonants together which make up one sound, eg ch, sh, th.
- **Grapheme-Phoneme Correspondence:** knowing a GPC means being able to match a phoneme to a grapheme and vice versa.
- **Decoding:** When a child sees a letter and can say it out loud.
- **Encoding:** The process of writing down a word (spelling).
- **CVC Words:** Consonant, vowel consonant words (*e.g. cat, map, bat*)

Writing Stages		Spelling Stages			
<b>Learning to write:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Writing has the following <b>five functions</b>; children have to learn the functions of writing as well as the actual process of writing. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Practical:</b> Most of us make lists, jot down reminders, write notes and instructions.</li> <li><b>Job related:</b> Professional and white-collar workers write frequently.</li> <li><b>Stimulating:</b> Writing helps to provoke thoughts and organise them logically and concisely.</li> <li><b>Social:</b> Most of us write thank-you notes/ messages, invitations and communications with friends.</li> <li><b>Therapeutic:</b> It can be helpful to express feelings in writing that cannot be expressed so easily by speaking.</li> </ol> </li> <li>Children need to understand the basic principles of: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The vocabulary system and associated meanings of words and phrases (<b>lexis</b>).</li> <li>Sentences to create meaning (<b>grammar</b>).</li> <li>Graphemes that link to phonemes, and other devices to create prosodic effects (<b>phonology</b>).</li> <li>Social conventions with certain types of texts (<b>pragmatics</b>).</li> <li>Cohesive structures (<b>discourse</b>).</li> <li>The layout of texts, the use of graphemes and images to create meanings (<b>graphology</b>).</li> <li>Variations in language to suit audience, purpose and context (<b>register</b>).</li> </ol> </li> </ul>		<b>Stage</b>	<b>Richard Gentry (1987)</b>	<b>Characteristics &amp; Age</b>	<b>Example (from Gentry's Monster Spelling Test, 1985)</b>
		1	Pre-communicative/ non-alphabetic.	Up to 7yrs. Tends to be scribbles not correlating with alphabet. Some letters emerging; no connection to word.	Random letters.
		2	Semi-phonetic/ partial-alphabetic.	Can range from 4-9 yrs. Symbols become recognizable; tends to be distilled to key consonant sounds.	Mtr.
		3	Phonetic spelling.	Words are increasingly spelled as they sound, with more letters appearing than previously, with vowels emerging.	Mstr.
		4	Transitional	More straightforward patterns, like doubling of consonants, are now understood, and spelling is increasingly accurate.	Monstur.
<b>Barry Kroll (1981)</b> expressed the idea that writing develops more rapidly when children are exposed to a wide range of written language; we would expect to see an acceleration in writing development occurring as a child begins formal education. ↓		5	Conventional or correct.	From 10 onwards, children can usually spell most words accurately with an understanding of unusual patterns.	Monster.

Stage	Characteristics	Example text	Context of text
Separate stage or preparatory stage.  Up to age 6.	Speech and writing very separate; fluency in speech but not evident in writing; technical skills developing.	"To Mum,  I hop yoo have a love day"	Child (5yr, 4mths) wrote this text as a part of a message to their mother. Note also had a picture of mother, hearts and kisses.
Consolidation stage.  Age 7-8.	Oral/ written skills increasingly consolidate (proficiency in both); writing will tend to appear as a child speaks and will be primarily simple sentences. Emerging punctuation.	"one of my presents was a match box friend some shoes for my Bild a Bear also a dress avoday cover it was a moshimonsta one to.  I Love to spend time with my family in the holidays not just enjoy presents"	Text 'Holiday News' written by a child (7yr, 2mths) after Christmas holidays. Text accompanied with images of presents.
Differentiation stage.  Age 9-10.	Can now differentiate between speech and writing and vary tone for each; school exposing to a range of writing styles and understanding the difference between genres.	"At midnight, Indiana could not go to sleep. He wondered, the clock was striking too many times. So he went under the covers. A few hours later he was awoken by the clock still chiming, so he got out of his uncomfortable bed, walked across the room, opened the door and walked to the grandfather clock. When he opened the door, he screamed."	Opening paragraph of a mystery story written by a 9yr old.
Integration stage.  Mid-teens.	Understanding that both speech and writing employ a wide range of forms according to audience, purpose and genre; successful adaptation with personal voice.	"Dear Daily mail readers,  I am certain you are well aware of the outrageous, ridiculous and frankly dangerous fairs and festivals that take place around the world on a regular basis. They are, in my eyes, a target for disaster and chaos: many people share my view."	Introductory paragraph to a newspaper article. Written in school by a 15yr old as an English assessment on persuasive writing.

Key Theories and Concepts- CLA Writing

- **Teaching grammar:** The English National Curriculum for primary school age children emphasises the explicit teaching of grammar as a means to develop literacy, for both analytical reading skills and more sophisticated writing.
- **Frances Christie and Beverly Derewianka (2008)**, Australia: They analysed writing produced by students aged 6-18yrs in English, History and Science lessons between 2004 and 2006, during a large-scale research study. They state that it is more appropriate to consider writing development in the following stages:
  - Early childhood (ages 6-8).
  - Later childhood to adolescence (ages 9-12).
  - Mid-adolescence (ages 13-15).
  - Late adolescence (ages 16-19).
- **Jon Abbott (1999)** uses the metaphor of battery hens or free range chickens to describe different educational approaches (described further below), ultimately suggesting that more independent and creative learners might be the ones who eventually thrive.
  - The creative approach to written language acquisition: The idea that children should be allowed to experiment creatively with language, without strict correction, using trial and error.
  - The rule-based approach: This approach suggests that when a child understands the conventions of writing (rules of spelling, punctuation and grammar), progress will be more rapid, and they will move on quickly to producing understandable, appropriate texts.
- **Debra Myhill (and Jones)**, since 2007: Ongoing research into the way grammar can be contextualised in order to teach it more successfully.
- **Joan Rothery (1980)**, Australian schools; developed categories for evaluating children’s writing:
  - Observation/comment: writer makes an observation and follows with an evaluative comment, or mixes them with observation. “*I saw a cat*”, “*It was black*”; “*I saw a black cat*”.
  - Recount: Usually a chronological sequence of events, e.g. recounting of a school trip.
  - Report: factual and objective description of events or things; tends not to be chronological.
  - Narrative: Story genre, where the scene is set for events to occur, and be resolved at the end.
- **Frances Christie (1980+)** developed a more extensive categorisation of different written genres that children are expected to learn during their school years, in their different subject areas.
  - Narratives; recounts; procedures; reports; explanations; expositions and discussions.
- **Katherine Perera** categorised text further:
  - Chronological- texts that rely on action words (verbs) and on linking ideas using temporal connectives.
  - Non-chronological- texts that rely on logical connections between ideas, rather than a sequence of events. Non-chronological texts often use connectives based on logical or casual relationships, such as ‘therefore’, ‘so’ or ‘because’.

Key Terms- Spelling

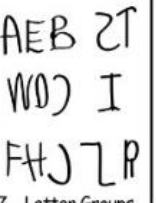
- **Phonetic Spelling:** Words that are spelled as they sound.
- **Undergeneralisation:** Standard rules for particular spelling patterns that are not followed (*e.g. y to ies plurals*)
- **Overgeneralisation:** Regular spelling rules that are applied even when it isn’t accurate to do so (*e.g. donkies instead of donkeys*)
- **Omission:** Letters are missed out of words, particularly where double consonants appear.
- **Insertion:** The addition of extra letters that are not needed for the accurate spelling of the word.
- **Substitution:** Where the right letter is replaced with an alternative (often phonetically plausible) letter (*e.g. fisiks instead of physics*)
- **Transposition:** Where a pair of letters is switched around in a word (*e.g. olny instead of only*).

Jean Piaget, 1936- Cognitive Development

Age (Years)	Stage of Development	Descriptor
0-2	Sensori-motor	Responding to world through senses and movement. Develop understanding of <b>object permanence</b> .
2-7	Pre-operational stage	Language is fundamental as principle in which they represent and communicate with the world around them. Speech and actions instinctive and <b>egocentric</b> .
7-11	Concrete operational	Becoming capable of rational and logical thought and expression through language. Not necessarily abstract thinking present.
11-16	Formal operational	Thinking becoming more abstract and language used in debate around moral and ethical issues.

Britton’s three modes of children’s writing.

Mode	Features
Expressive	The first mode to develop because it resembles speech. Uses the first person perspective and content based on personal preferences.
Poetic	Develops gradually, requiring skills in crafting and shaping language, but is encouraged early on because of its creativity. Phonological features such as rhythm, rhyme and alliteration, as well as descriptive devices such as adjectives and similes, are common.
Transactional	Is the style of academic essays and develops last. It is more impersonal in style and tone. The third person is used to create a detached tone. Formal sentence structures are used.

			
1. Pictures	2. Random Scribbling	3. Scribble Writing (Written in linear fashion to mimic real writing.)	4. Symbols That Represent Letters
			
5. Random Letters (No relationship between sounds of letters and what the child is trying to say.)	6. Letter Strings (Progresses from left to right and top to bottom when the child "reads" his writing.)	7. Letter Groups (The groups have spaces in between to resemble words.)	8. Environmental Print (Child copies print found in the room, often without knowing what the words are.)
			
9. Beginning Sounds (Child begin to write simple sentences using sight words and just the beginning sounds of words.)	10. Early Inventive Spelling (Includes the same elements as the previous level, but with more consistent sounds represented and spaces between words.)	11. Inventive Spelling (Has the same elements as the previous level, but with more sounds per word written, including the vowels. Some conventional spelling patterns may appear.)	12. Transitional Writing (Includes all of the previous elements, plus some real spellings of words with silent letters and other spelling patterns. Punctuation is beginning to appear.)

## Important to consider

Impact on CLA from exposure to books.

- Support spoken language development; establish routines; encourage play activities; labelling objects around them; building understanding of social relationships.
- Features of early reading books.
- Repetition, rhyme and alliteration.
- Animals.
- Interrogatives, adjectives and intensifying adverbs.

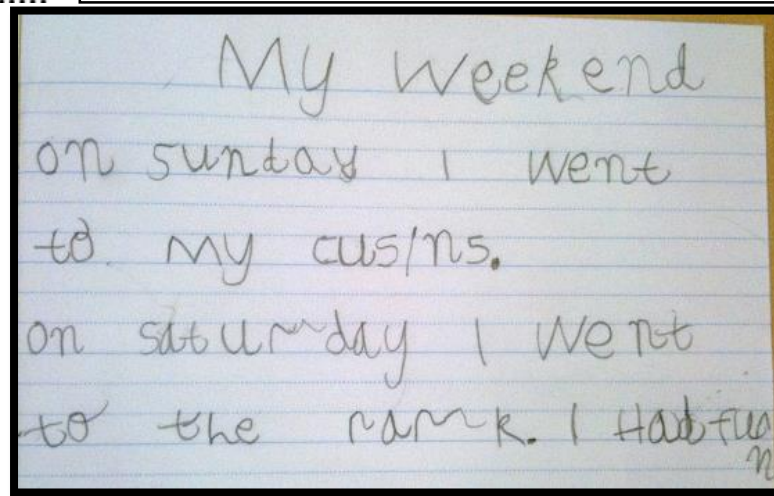
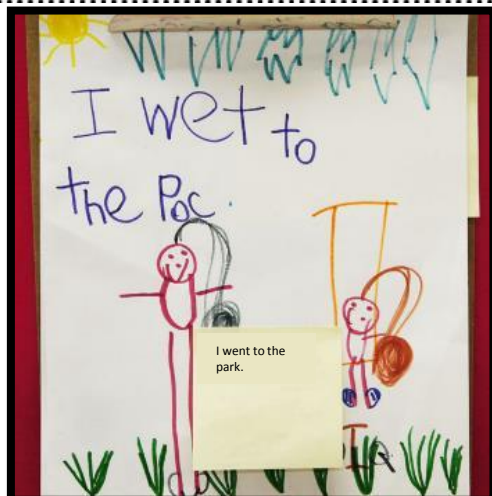
## In The Exam

### What could a question involving Child Language Acquisition look like?

- Paper 1, Section 2.
- "Children prefer to focus on the content of their writing rather than accuracy". Referring to the data sets and to relevant ideas from your study, evaluate this idea of child language acquisition.
- "Children's creative writing is more detailed than factual". Referring to the data sets and to relevant ideas from your study, evaluate this idea of child language acquisition.

### What Assessment Objectives will be required of these questions?

- ☐ AO1: Apply appropriate methods of language analysis, using associated terminology and coherent written expression.
- ☐ AO2: Demonstrate critical understanding of concepts and issues relevant to language use.



# Language & Gender

Key Term	Definition	Key Term	Definition
Covert Prestige	Status and prestige gained from using a non-standard variety of English.	Marked Term	The non-standard form of a term, often shown by an additional suffix (eg. <i>Priest</i> > <i>Priestess</i> )
Gender	Behavioural characteristics brought about by a socialisation process and cultural influences	Material Verb Process	Verbs associated with actions and doing.
Gender Exclusive Language	When the male pronoun is applied to an unspecified individual (eg. <i>"If anyone would like to apply, he may do so inside"</i> )	Mental Verb Process	Verbs associated with thinking and feeling or perception.
Gender Inclusive Language	When both male and female pronouns are used to refer to an unspecified individual. (eg. <i>"If anyone would like to apply, he or she may do so inside"</i> )	Overt Marking	Marking a word through a modifier or affix (eg. <i>Lady doctor, male nurse</i> )
Genderlect	The particular language used by men and women according to their gender	Overt Prestige	Status and prestige gained by speakers using the "standard" or "correct" way of speaking.
Gender-neutral terms	Words or phrases that avoid bias towards a particular gender (eg. <i>One, they and them, xer etc</i> )	Performativity	The ability to use speech and other methods of communication to construct or perform an identity.
Gender paradox	The phenomenon that women use more prestigious standard forms of English than men but that they also lead language change by adopting new forms of everyday English.	Reclamation	The cultural process of removing negative associations with a particular term that has been used by a dominant group against a specific, less powerful social group.
Hegemonic masculinity	Behaviours and language associated with the idealised male group that is seen as having the most power and status in society.	Sex	The biological difference between men and women.
To hold the conversational floor	To speak until the speaker is either finished with what they have to say or are interrupted.	Social Constructivism	When importance is placed on social interaction as constructing identity and people coming together to form a shared construction of the world.
Hypercorrection	The use of higher-status variants in formal styles by lower-status groups in a linguistic community, more frequently than the higher status group.	Unmarked Term	The regular or usual form of the term.
Lexical Asymmetry	A power imbalance between two apparently matched terms (eg. <i>Bachelor vs Spinster; Lord vs Lady</i> )	Uptalk	(Also "High rising terminal") Where declarative statements end in a raising intonation.
Linguistic Determinism	Representations of gender create stereotypes.	Vocal fry	A vocal effect produced by slow vibration of the vocal chords; characterised by a creaking sound and low pitch.
Linguistic Reflectionism	Representations of gender reflect stereotypes.	Valley Girl	The colloquial dialect associated with Californian English, specifically the stereotype of adolescent or younger women who use this.

# Theories, Theorists & Ideas

## The Deficit Approach

- Male speech as standard, and woman's speech as weak as it fails to reach this standard. Otto Jespersen (1922), and Robin Lakoff's 1975 Deficit Theory.
- Both Jespersen and Lakoff can be criticised as "Folklinguistics".
- **Challenge**: DeFransisco (1998)- Women introduce more topics and work harder to maintain conversation; 70% delayed responses and 68% no responses were from men- they controlled the discourse; challenged "folklinguistic" assumption that more talk means dominance.

## The Dominance Approach

- Men dominate women in language, reflective of patriarchal society. Dale Spender (1980), Zimmerman & West (1975), Geoffrey Beattie (1982), Pamela Fishman (1980).
- Spender's *Man Made Language* (1980): Language is male-centric, reflecting male historical dominance over all areas of public and private life.

## The Difference Approach

- Deborah Cameron (1995): Differences between genders due to societal expectations. The way men and women think they should speak is "verbal hygiene"- how language is used to impose order in society.
- Cameron (2008): "the idea that men and women use language in very different ways and for very different reasons is one of the great myths of our time".
- Judith Baxter (2002): Post-Feminist Discourse Analysis- challenges traditional view that women are disempowered in mixed-sex settings; sees it as more complex.
- Rosalind Wiseman, *Queen Bees and Wannabes* (2002): There is hidden aggression in all-female groups- and that women are not all nurturers.
- Brizendine, *The Female Brain* (2006): Women are chatterboxes, speaking on average 20,000 words per day, nearly 3x that of men at 7,000 on average.
- Pennebaker (2007): Study discovered more differences within genders than between them.
- Penelope Eckert (1990): Gender interacts with other aspects of identity- class, ethnicity, age etc.

## The Performance Approach

- Judith Butler, *Gender Trouble* (1990): we are constantly engaged in constructing gender.
- William Little (2012): "gender is something we do or perform, not something we are."

## Other Approaches:

### • **Gender and Communities of Practice (CoP)**

- Lave & Wenger (1991) developed idea.
- Eckert and McConnell-Ginet (1992): CoP used to explore how gender is produced & reproduced within communities (mutual engagement, joint negotiated enterprise and a shared repertoire). We all belong to multiple CoPs, but our gender may inform which groups we are members of.
- Kate Bornstein (1998): Gender is a pyramid of power, with some gendered identities at the top and others at the bottom.

### • **Connell's Models of Masculinities (2005)**

- Hegemonic Masculinity (HM): Behaviours and language associated with the idealised male group that is seen as having the most power and status in society.
- Subordinate Masculinity: Qualities opposing HM and therefore viewed as inferior.
- Complicit Masculinity: Not fitting the qualities of HM, but one which does not challenge these qualities as they admire the physical or social power that comes with HM.
- Marginalised Masculinity: Having masculinity that fits the characteristics of HM, but excluded on the basis of other factors.
- Emphasised Femininity: A complement to HM by accommodating the interests of men through feminine behaviours and attributes, such as physical appearance.

- **Mary Talbot (2010)**: Gender is socially constructed. People admire characteristics which are perceived as "masculine" or "feminine".

**First Wave Feminism**: The movement focused on getting rights for women to vote, have property rights and the right to an education.

**Second Wave Feminism**: The movement focused on women's roles and rights within the workplace, and reproductive, sexuality and family issues.

**Post-Modern Feminism**: The movement that covers different views and beliefs about women's rights, which sees women as individuals as well as part of a group.

# Case Studies

**Robin Lakoff**- Language and Women's Place (1975). **Lakoff** claimed that there were certain features of women's language that gave the impression women are weaker and less certain than men.

**Pamela Fishman**- (1980) Focused on tag questions, listening to 52 hours of pre-recorded conversations between young American couples. She agreed with **Lakoff's** findings that women use tag questions roughly 4x more than men. However, she drew a different conclusion, arguing that questions are used in female language to start conversations and continue dialogue: "Conversational shitwork".

**O'Barr & Atkins**- (1980) Looked at courtroom cases and witnesses' speech. Their findings challenge **Lakoff's** views of women's language. In researching "powerless language", they show that language differences are based on situation-specific authority or power, not on gender.

**Zimmerman & West**- (1975) Santa Barbara Campus of the University of California: They report that in 11 conversations between men and women, men used 46 interruptions whilst women used 2.

**Geoff Beattie**- (1982) Contradicts **Zimmerman & West**, finding that women and men interrupted with more or less equal frequency (men 34.1, women 33.8). Whilst men interrupted more, the margin was so slight so as not to be statistically significant.

## In The Exam

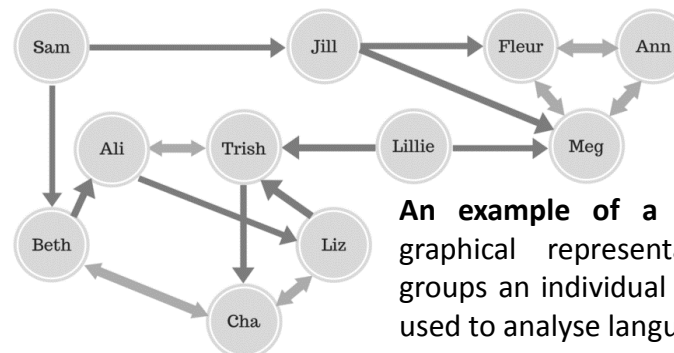
### What could a question involving Language & Gender look like?

- Paper 2, Questions 1/2- Assesses AO1, AO2
  - Evaluate the idea that spoken interactions between men & women are characterised by miscommunication.
  - With detailed reference to your own relevant ideas from language study, evaluate how far gender affects language use.
  - Evaluate the idea that women's language is less powerful than men's.
  - Evaluate the idea that there is a bias against women in the English language.
- Paper 2, Questions 3 and 4- Assesses AO1-AO5
  - You might be required to analyse and compare the way the writers of two texts present ideas about language use within gender (Q3). (*AO1, AO3 and AO4*).
  - You might then have to write an article in which you assess the ideas and issues raised in the texts. You should refer to ideas from language study and argue your own views (Q4) (*AO2, AO5*).

# Language & Social Groups

Key Term	Definition
Accommodation	Adjusting one's speech to match others (Including grammar, vocabulary, accent, delivery).
Community of Practice	A group of people with shared interests and belief systems who are likely to use language in similar ways.
Convergence	Changing one's speech in order to move towards that of another individual ( <i>See also: Divergence</i> )
Deficit Model	A way of describing a form of language as lacking or deficient in some quality. Linguists tend to avoid such judgements.
Discourse Community	A group of people engaged in similar activities who use language in distinct and identifiable ways.
Divergence	Changing one's speech in order to move away from that of another individual ( <i>See also: Convergence</i> )
Familect	A style of language used within a specific family group ( <i>See also: Idiolect; Sociolect</i> )
Field-Specific Lexis	Vocabulary that is only related to a particular field of work or activity.
Idiolect	Variation in language use associated with an individual's personalised "speech style" or "linguistic fingerprint" ( <i>See also: Familect; Sociolect</i> )
Interpersonal Function	Use of language to signal identity ( <i>See also: Transactional Function</i> )
Macro-Level	Operating on a large scale- study of large categories e.g. social class, age or gender.
Micro-Level	Operating on a small scale- studying individuals in small scale interactions.
Pragmatic Rules	The unspoken rules that operate in interactions between people who share a common understanding.
Social Network	A network of relations between people in their membership of different groups.

Key Term	Definition
Social Practices	The ways in which people in groups habitually behave.
Sociolect	The language used by a specific social group. ( <i>See also: Familect; Idiolect</i> )
Transactional Function	Using language to communicate ideas ( <i>See also: Interpersonal function</i> ).



An example of a **sociogram**; this is a graphical representation of the social groups an individual belongs to and can be used to analyse language use.

The Formality Spectrum	
Term	Description
Taboo Language	Swear words, or words generally considered deeply offensive and unacceptable.
Vulgarism	Falls short of taboo, but is still coarse and not used in "polite society".
Slang	Broad term for non-standard English usage.
Non-Standard Dialect	Usually regional variations of non-standard English
Colloquialism	A loose term applied to some types of slang, or to the most informal language accepted as Standard English.
Standard English	Informal, neutral, formal and very formal/ SE is generally accepted as "correct" English, but this can range from casual usage to highly formal use such as legal language.



# Theories, Theorists & Ideas

**Thornborrow (2004)** – “One of the most fundamental ways we have of establishing our identity, and of shaping other people’s views of who we are, is through our use of language”.

**Drew and Heritage (1993)**- ‘Inferential frameworks’. Knowledge built up over time and used in order to understand meanings that are implicit (turn-taking rules or restrictions; allowable contributions; restricted lexis; power asymmetry)

**John Swales (2011)**- Discourse community: the name given to a group of people who use language for shared purposes. “In a discourse community, the communicative needs of the goals tend to predominate in the development and maintenance of its discoursal characteristics”.

**Penelope Eckert (1998)** argues that there are three different ways of defining the concept of ‘age’:

- Chronological age (number of years since birth)
- Biological age (physical maturity)
- Social age (linked to life events such as marriage or having children)
- ‘Age is a person’s place at a given time in relation to the social order: a stage, a condition, a place in history.’

**Penelope Eckert (2003)**- “Slang is used to establish connection to youth culture. To set themselves off from the older generation. To signal coolness, toughness or attitude”.

**Zimmerman (2009)** argues that the following factors are influential on young people:

- The media and the press
- New means of communication
- Music
- Street art and graffiti

**Leslie Milroy (1987)** described the idea of a social network as a ‘web of ties’. The concept focuses on the relationship between individuals and the contact patterns between group members; Strength of ties between people; Nature of the connections within the group density (number of connections) and multiplexity (number of ways two individuals might relate)

**Jenny Cheshire (1987)**: “It is becoming recognised that adult language as well as child language, develops in response to important life events that affect social relations and social attitudes of individuals”.

**Halliday (1978)** ‘stigmatised sub-cultures develop language that helps them to reconstruct reality according to their own values’

**Dent (2016)**: ‘Tribes’ Discusses the identity forming and identity reinforcing role of sociolects and occupational registers. ‘Every sport, every profession, every group united by a single passion draws on a lexicon that is uniquely theirs. These individual languages are the products of a group’s needs, ambitions and personalities. Private languages are a loud marker of who we are or want to be and where we fit (or don’t) in society’

**Bernstein (1971)**

Working class speakers use a **restricted code** of language, which related to the here-and-now, while middle-class speakers use an **elaborated code**, which was much more explicit and independent of context. This contributed to a **deficit model** – an assumption that working class language is deficient. This is a widely contested view.

**Polari**: a secretive language widely used by the British gay community from the 1900s to the 1970s. It was based on slang words deriving from a variety of different sources, including rhyming slang, and backslang (spelling words backwards). In the eighteenth century it was mainly used in pubs around the London dock area. The language was soon picked up by merchant seafarers and brought back on ship. From the 1930s to 1970s the language was mostly used in gay pubs, theatre and on merchant ships.

The language helped gay men talk to each in front of straight people, enabling speakers to feel like part of an exclusive group. Polari was used in crew shows on ship and some straight shipmates picked up the language from these shows. Examples:

- |                                    |                       |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| • bijou: small                     | • nishta: nothing, no |
| • bona: good                       | • ogles: eyes         |
| • carsey: toilet, also spelt khazi | • oglefakes: glasses  |
| • cod: naff, vile                  | • polari: chat, talk  |
| • ecaf: face (backslang)           | • sharp: policeman    |
| • eek: face (shortened from ecaf)  | • vada/varda: see     |
| • fantabulosa: wonderful           |                       |
| • lallies: legs                    |                       |
| • meese: plain, ugly               |                       |

How bona to varda your dolly old eek!  
*How good to see your dear old face!*  
Vada the dolly dish, shame about his bijou lallies.  
*Look at the attractive man, shame about his short legs.*

# Case Studies

**Milroy (1987)** Studied three inner-city working-class communities in Northern Ireland and found that variations in language use could be explained by the residents' social networks. Where people had a high network density score their accents were reinforced and stayed strong. People who were more isolated had less strong accents. For the speakers in these social networks, the strong ties within communities were powerfully associated with their identity, and maintaining strong accent was a way of demonstrating and affirming this sense of themselves. Study showed this was true of women as for men – nothing necessarily gender-based about accent strength.

**Penelope Eckert (2000)** Observational research on American High School students. She identifies two distinct groups: the 'jocks', who actively participated in school life and the 'burnouts' who refused to take part in school life. She found that people tended to speak more like those with whom they shared social practices and values. 'Burnouts' used exaggerated pronunciations associated with urban accents. 'Jocks' spoke in a socially prestigious way – sometimes reflecting their middle-class backgrounds. However, even in the 'burnouts' there were sub-groups. The 'jocks' were critical of the language used by the 'burnouts' and vice versa.

**Jenny Cheshire (1982)** Recorded the speech of groups of teenagers in an adventure playground to look at the effect of peer-group culture. Although many of her findings were connected with gender, she also found the the 'toughest' girls and boys conformed to the group use of non-standard grammatical forms, such as 'ain't'

**Stenstrom (2002)** Mainly focused on London teens. Non-standard grammatical features: Multiple negation; 'ain't'; ellipsis of auxiliary verbs; non-standard pronouns (eg 'theirselves'). Other features identified included: Slang; Word shortenings; Language mixing ; Irregular turn-taking; Overlaps; Teasing and name calling; Verbal dueling; Indistinct articulation.

**Vivian de Klerk (2005)** Young people have the freedom to 'challenge linguistic norms'. They 'seek to establish new identities.' The patterns of speech previously modelled on the speech of adults are 'slowly eroded by the patterns of speech' by their peer group. They need to be seen as 'modern...cool, fashionable (and) up-to-date.' They need to establish themselves as 'different' They need to belong to a group whose 'habits...are different from their parents, other adults and other young people' distinguishing themselves as members of a distinct social group.

**Martinez (2011)** Teenagers use negatives more frequently than adults do. Many occur in orders, suggestions and refusals. Teenagers tend to be more direct when they speak (compared to adults who are more aware face needs/threatening acts and therefore more conscious of using negatives) E.g. *No way, nope, hah, dunno, never*

**Berland (1997)** Use of tags 'innit' 'yeah' 'right': Social class also an important factor: working class teenagers more likely to use 'innit' while 'yeah' more commonly used by middle class speakers.

**Online groups** share language characteristics, such as specific vocabulary related to online gaming. The mode of online communication is important: Voice Over Internet Protocol (VOIP) or chat messages which rely on keyboards and online 'writing'. Chat messaging tends to use short abbreviate messages (GG –good game; AFK – away from keyboard; ROFL – rolling on the floor laughing)

## In The Exam

### What could a question involving Language & Social Groups look like?

- Paper 2, Questions 1/2- Assesses AO1, AO2
  - Evaluate the idea that a person's language use is completely determined by the social groups they belong to.
  - Evaluate the idea that language can affect people's views of social groups.
  - Evaluate the idea that a person's age will determine their language use.
- Paper 2, Questions 3 and 4- Assesses AO1-AO5
  - You might be required to analyse and compare the way the writers of two texts present ideas about language use by a particular social group (Q3). (AO1, AO3 and AO4).
  - You might then have to write an article in which you assess the ideas and issues raised in the texts. You should refer to ideas from language study and argue your own views (Q4) (AO2, AO5).

# Language & Region

Key Term	Definition	Key Term	Definition
Code Switching	The ability of multi-lingual people to switch between different languages.	Monophthong	A single vowel sound, e.g. “ee” in “teeth”, “ea” in “speak”, “u” in “put”. (See <i>diphthong</i> )
Descriptivism	The belief that language usage is correct depending on context. (See <i>prescriptivism</i> )	Paralanguage	Vocal effects such as whispering or laughing, or non-verbal behaviour such as eye-contact or body and facial language.
Digraph	Two letters used together to create a sound, e.g. “th”, “ch”, “ae” (Not to be confused with a <i>diphthong</i> )	Phonological Variable	Two different ways of pronouncing something, whether a vowel, consonant or diphthong etc.
Diphthong	The movement of one vowel sound into another, e.g. “oi” in “coin”, “ao” in “chaos”, “a” in “face”. (See <i>monophthong</i> )	Prescriptivism	The belief that features of language are absolutely right or wrong, regardless of context or actual usage. (See <i>descriptivism</i> )
Elision	The omission of sounds in a word.	Prosodics	The “soundtrack” of words; rhythm, pitch, volume and intonation.
Glottal Stop	The omission of the “t” in the middle of a word, by closing the vocal chords, e.g. button pronounced bʌʔn. The act of using a glottal stop is called “glottaling”.	Received Pronunciation	The prestige accent of the United Kingdom. Often written as “RP”.
Hierarchical Geographical Diffusion	The process by which dialectal features travel down from an urban centre to a smaller town.	Shibboleth	A language item used as a marker for group membership, e.g. a way of speaking that identifies someone as a member or non-member of a group.
Idiomatic Phrases	A phrase that has an accepted and known meaning different from the dictionary definition, e.g. “You’ve hit the nail on the head”, “You need to bite the bullet”.	Social Mobility	A phrase used to describe a person’s move from one social class to another e.g. through career change, marriage or change in financial situation.
IPA	The International Phonetic Alphabet.	Stereotype	The idea that whole groups of people conform to the same limited range of characteristics.
Levelling	The reduction of regionally or socially marked forms.	Style Shifting	The change in style of speaking based on context.
Lexical Variable	Two ways of saying something, whether through accent, lexical choice or grammar.	Th-fronting	The transferral of the “th” sound to “f” or “v”, e.g. “three” as “free” or “brother” as “brover”.
Linguistic Accommodation	When a speaker’s accent and dialect becomes more like the people they are with.		

# Theories, Theorists & Ideas

**Montgomery & Bernstein:** Elaborate & restricted Code.

- Bernstein claimed that middle class people have access to ways of organising their speech which are fundamentally different to the lower classes.
- Restricted code: Working class people could only use their restricted linguistic structures, whereas the middle classes could effectively style shift, alternating between RP and non-standard language features.

**John Honey** (1997)- Standard English (SE) is **superior** to all other dialects, and children should be taught that this is true if they are to succeed in life. **Regional dialects** should be discouraged; most linguists disagree.

**Lesley Milroy** (1980)- *See also Labov, Trudgill*. Researched **social networks**: a group of people who regularly interact with each other. An individual can belong to multiple social groups. Showed that people from different backgrounds often mix together and become friends. This influences language use.

**David Britain** (2005)- Whilst accent has not proven particularly controversial, dialect has been subject to a number of definitions; in the anglo-saxon world, dialect was used to cover any variety of dialects, meaning SE is a dialect.

**John Pitts** (2012)- Noted a shift in young black English speakers, who felt that mainstream society was ignoring and constraining them, They moved towards a resistance identity through language.

**Peter Trudgill:** Standard English.

- Standardised language consists of language which has undergone: Language determination (decisions which have been taken concerning the particular selection of varieties and languages for that society); Codification (a publicly recognised and fixed form- e.g. through dictionaries and grammar books); Stabilisation (the process of a formally diffuse variety takes on a fixed and stable form).

**Panini** (600 BCE): Sentiment echoed later by Edward Sapir- "Everyone knows that language is variable".

**Giles:** Evaluative reactions to accents.

- In 1970, British teenagers judged the aesthetic, communicative and status values of 13 accented speakers, resulting in a prestige continuum.

**Estuary English-** **David Rosewarne** (1984) noted it as a mixture of non-regional and local South-Eastern features. Unlike Cockney, EE is associated with SE usage; described by many as '**mockney**'. Reported in the '90s as taking the place of RP in civil service, local government, media etc. Described by **Hilmarsdottir** (2006) as "transcending previously existing social and linguistic barriers".

**Multicultural London English-** Name given by linguists (**Cheshire, Kerswell, Fox**) to the language they were hearing in London between 2004 and 2010. Occurred particularly in areas in which there were a wide variety of ethnicities and heritages; regarded as a "repertoire of features", rather than a separate variety of English. Selecting features from this "repertoire" can either be conscious or unconscious, influenced by family and friends, music etc. Sometimes known in the mainstream media as **Jafaican**.

**Dent** (2016)- "**Tribes**"- "Every group united by a single passion draws on a lexicon that is uniquely theirs, and theirs for a reason. These individual languages are the product of a group's needs, ambitions and personalities.

**Coleman** (2012) suggests that the meaning of dialect and slang words is less important than their interpersonal function and what language use communicates about identity and belonging.

**Key Terms:**

**Terms for Exploring Dialect and Grammatical Variations:**

- **Unmarked by person-** Subject/verb agreement is not met. *E.g. "Sorry I were late".*
- **Multiple negation-** The use of more than one negative. *E.g. "I didn't do nothing".*
- **Using "them" as a demonstrative-** Saying "them" instead of "those". *E.g. "I like them shoes".*
- **The absence of plural marking-** Missing the "s" from plural forms. *E.g. "There's only two mile to go".*
- **Ellipsis of the definite article-** Missing out "a" or "the". *E.g. "We're going to library".*
- **Pronoun variations-** Us instead of me, youse instead of you, meself/hissself instead of myself/himself. *E.g. "Give us a ring later"; "It's time for youse to head to the station".*
- **Preposition variety-** Saying "while" instead of "until"; ellipsis of "to"; addition of "of". *E.g. "Lunch is twelve while one"; "I'm going Sam's house"; "I got off of the bus".*
- **Adverbial variation-** Missing the "-ly" ending from the end of adverbs. *E.g. "He ran quick".*
- **Ain't-** Using the word "ain't" in place of "to [not] be" and "to [not] have". *E.g. "They ain't there yet"; "I ain't got them"*

# Case Studies

**Labov** (1963): Martha's Vineyard study (variationist sociolinguistics). People in rural areas more likely to use central vowels; central vowels correlated with a more positive attitude. Labov concluded that vowel centralisation was a mechanism speakers from the Vineyard could use to signal their local status, distinguishing them from tourists.

**Labov** (1966): New York City, The Department Case study. Recorded speakers from the lower East Side; 5 phonological variables, including the use or lack of /r/ in card and door. He found that in prestigious department store Saks, customers paid more attention to their diction, pronouncing /r/.

**Trudgill**- Built on Labov's findings in the late '60s. Wanted to know if Labov's findings would also be applicable in the UK by exploring the dialect of Norwich. People of lower socio-economic status were more likely to use non-standard linguistic variants in informal settings; women are more likely to use standard linguistic variations; women are more likely to over emphasise their use of standard linguistic variations than men, whilst men were more likely to over emphasise their use of non-standard variants. This was explored with the use of "-ing", e.g. "shoppin'"/"shopping". This feature was more often use with working class individuals than middle class, and by men rather than women.

**Malcom Petyt** (1985): Bradford Dialect Case Study. Study into the socio-economic variable associated with dropping /h/ (h-dropping), e.g. "hat" became "at". Found that h-dropping was more likely the lower the socio-economic class. He concluded that people with upward social mobility were more likely to alter their accent and dialect to conform more towards RP, leading in some cases to hypercorrection.

**Watt** (2005): Dialect Levelling Case Study, Newcastle. Stated that motivation for linguistic changes came from young speakers who wanted to dispel the "cloth, cap and clogs" image, and sound like "modern northerners". They avoided certain variants or marked features of the Geordie dialect, whilst adopting some features not linked to their dialect. They didn't, however, wish to show disloyalty to their geographical area by showing massive variation; others accommodate towards these new accent forms due to their "social attractiveness".

**Fasold & Wolfram** (1972): African American Vernacular English- Noted Black Vernacular English as a relatively uniform dialect spoken by young working class men. Noted key non-standard features, e.g. "I been known your name" ("I already knew your name"). They noted that the better the socio-economic area, e.g. Black Appalachian communities, the more similar language use was to regional white communities.

**Giles** (1970s): "Matched Guise" technique; tested feelings and perceptions about different accents. Found that RP was most impressive, whilst urban accents were least trusted. Regional accents were found to be most persuasive.

## In The Exam

### What could a question involving Language & Region look like?

- Paper 2, Questions 1/2, Assesses AO1, AO2
  - Evaluate the idea accents and dialects are levelling in the UK.
  - Evaluate the idea that where someone comes from affects the language they use.
  - "The accents and dialects of the young frequently differ from the older generation". Evaluate this idea with reference to specific examples.
- Paper 2, Questions 3 and 4- Assesses AO1-AO5
  - You might be required to analyse and compare the way the writers of two texts present ideas about language use and region (Q3). (AO1, AO3 and AO4).
  - You might then have to write an article in which you assess the ideas and issues raised in the texts. You should refer to ideas from language study and argue your own views (Q4) (AO2, AO5).

# Language & Occupation

Key Term	Definition	Classifying Lexis		
Code Switching	Alternating between two or more languages or varieties of language available to the speaker, depending on context. <i>(Compare with Style Shifting)</i>	1	Jargon	Terminology or lexis used in a certain occupation, or for people who share a common interest.
Constraints	Ways in which powerful participants block or control contributions of less powerful participants, e.g. interruptions	2	Restricted occupational lexis	Specialist jargon/ vocabulary which is only ever used within a specific occupation.
Directives	Can be delivered as imperatives, interrogatives or declaratives. Can be mitigated by <u>politeness forms</u> (e.g. <i>Would you open your books</i> ). Choice of directives may be in response to <u>face</u> wants.	3	Shared occupational lexis	Terms with a particular meaning within a specific occupation, but which have different meanings in general usage.
Discourse Community	Many occupations communicate using predictable structures and discourses based on the specific discourse community.	4	Generalised occupational lexis	Lexis that was once restricted to occupational contexts, which have now become part of our general discourse, losing their restricted meanings.
Formulation	The rewording of another’s contribution by a powerful participant to impose a certain meaning or understanding.			
Ideology	A set of belief systems, attitudes or a world view held by an individual or group.	5	Frequent, “everyday” lexis	Language which is part of everyday discourse, used to a high frequency within a specific occupation (e.g. “progress” within teaching)
Less Powerful Participants	Those with less status in a given context.			
Power Asymmetry	A marked difference in power between two individuals in discourse.	Types of Power: Waring (1999)		
Power Behind Discourse	The focus on the social and ideological reasons behind the enactment of power <i>(See also: Power In Discourse)</i>			
Power In Discourse	The ways in which power is manifested through language use. <i>(See also: Power Behind Discourse)</i>	1	Political Power: Power held by those with the backing of the law.	
Powerful Participant	A speaker with a higher status in a given context.	2	Personal Power: Power held by individuals as a result of their role within an organisation.	
Repertoire	A range of language features available for speakers to choose from.	3	Social group power: Power held as a result of being a member of a dominant social group.	
Style Shifting	The change in style of speaking based on context. <i>(Compare with Code Switching)</i>			
Terms Of Address	Participants may be addressed by professional terms (Dr., Sir, etc.), generic terms (e.g. staff, class, pupils) or the use of pronoun choice (you, we etc.)	4	Instrumental power: Power used to maintain and enforce authority.	
Unequal Encounter	Alternative for asymmetrical; highlighting difference in power between two speakers.	5	Influential Power: Power used to influence and persuade others.	

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# Theories, Theorists & Ideas

- 4 functions of occupational language – requesting, confirming, instructing, communicating information
- **Swales (2011)** Many occupations have predictable discourse structures and patterns. Knowing how to communicate within them makes you part of a discourse community.
- **Drew and Heritage (2003)** Suggest that members of a discourse community share inferential frameworks: knowledge built up over time and used to understand implicit meanings within an organization.
- **David Crystal**: Occupational varieties of language are in temporary use. They are “part of the job” – taken up as we begin work and put down as we end it. There are no class distinctions – every occupational group will have linguistic distinctiveness. However, “the more specialised the occupation, and the more senior and professional the post, the more technical the language is likely to be.”
- **Koester (2004)** highlights the importance of phatic discourse within occupations:
  - “workers need to establish interpersonal relationships and have interactions that are not just about work-related procedures”
  - For Koester, being sociable and engaging in personal chat is an important aspect of effective working as it creates “solidarity” within the workplace.
- **Norman Fairclough (2002)**: ‘Unequal Encounters’ Language choice is created and constrained by asymmetrical situations accepted as ‘normal’ eg manager/worker, doctor/patient, teacher/student
- **Oppressive and Repressive discourse strategies**
  - Oppressive Discourse Strategy – linguistic behaviour that is open in its exercising of power and control.
  - Repressive Discourse Strategy – a more indirect way of exercising power
- **Martin Joos (1962) Levels of formality**
  - **Frozen level**: ritual or very conventional situations.
  - **Formal level**: normally used by a speaker addressing an audience.
  - **Consultative level**: people who are not family, friends or acquaintances but where interaction is the norm.
  - **Casual level**: This is used between people who know each other reasonably well in informal settings.
  - **Intimate level**: private communication such as between family members and close friends
- **Code-switching**: The practice of alternating between two or more languages or varieties of language.
- **Zentella (1985)**. ‘Code-switching performs several functions’
  - First, people may use code-switching to hide fluency or memory problems in the second language
  - Second, code-switching is used to mark switching from informal situations (using native languages) to formal situations (using second language).
  - Third, code-switching is used to exert control, especially between parents and children.
  - Fourth, code-switching is used to align speakers with others in specific situations (e.g., defining oneself as a member of an ethnic group).
- **Johnson (2000)** Code-switching also ‘functions to announce specific identities, create certain meanings, and facilitate particular interpersonal relationships’
- **Irving Goffman (1955)** developed **face theory**: we present a particular image or **face** to other people, depending on the context and to whom we’re speaking. Generally, we try to accept the face we’re being offered as a part of the politeness principle. Not to do so can result in the other person being hurt or offended or embarrassed. Maintaining face is all about maintaining status.
- **Brown and Levinson: Face Theory**
  - **Face** = a person’s self-esteem or emotional needs.
  - **Positive face** = the need to feel wanted, liked and appreciated.
  - **Negative face** = the need to have freedom of thought and action and not feel imposed on.
- Face Threatening Acts (FTAs) Acts like *promises, apologies, expressing thanks*, even non-verbal acts such as *stumbling, falling down*, are considered to threaten primarily the speaker’s face, whereas *warnings, criticisms, orders, requests*, etc. are viewed to threaten primarily the hearer’s face.
- Culpeper (1994) “positive facework attempts to provide the pill with a sugar coating; negative facework attempts to soften the blow.”
- **Deborah Tannen (1999)** refers to the power/solidarity paradox. This states that every utterance is potentially ambiguous as to whether it is establishing power or solidarity because the symbols (or language) that display power (differing status) and solidarity (equal status) are often the same. Therefore, whether or not an utterance is supposed to demonstrate power can only be decided in terms of context and pragmatics.
- **Brazil (working in the 1970s and 1980s)** investigated rising tones and falling tones in speech. He refers to the *dominant* speaker to indicate the person who has the greater freedom in making linguistic choices. He states that rising tones are more available to the dominant speaker or someone who wants to use them to claim dominance.

# Case Studies

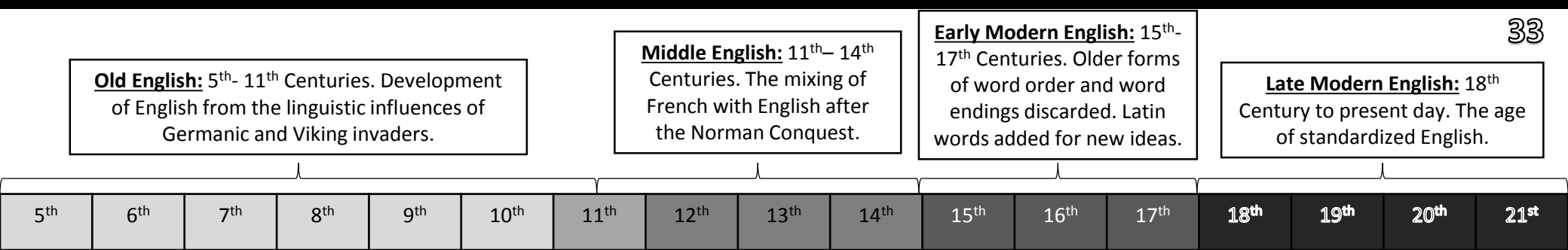
Teacher Talk: Sinclair and Coulthard	The Language of Medicine: Stockwell/Oakley (2007)
<p><u>3 main functions of teacher talk.</u></p>	<p><b>Example 1: Extract is taken from operation notes (after surgery on the spine)</b></p>
<p>Informative – The seat of government in Holland is The Hague.</p>	<p><i>PR Exploration OF L. Spine. – Operative procedure.</i></p>
<p>Directive – I want you to mark on your maps the capital of Holland.</p>	<p><i>Patient prone on Toronto frame.</i></p>
<p>Elicitation – What’s the capital of Holland?</p>	<p><i>Previous incision used and extended.</i></p>
<p><u>Directives can often be syntactically disguised within sentence moods:</u></p>	<p><i>L3 to S1Vertebrae exposed. L3 laminectomy performed.</i></p>
<p>As a declarative – I’d like you to find page 46 in your books.</p>	<p><i>Normal Dura was identified at that level and traced Caudally, by careful dissection, all the scar tissue was dissected off. The Dura was exposed fully at all the levels from L3 to S1.</i></p>
<p>As an interrogative – Can you find page 46 in your books?</p>	<p><i>Laminectomy widened to effect better decompression.</i></p>
<p>As an imperative – Turn to page 46, please.</p>	<p><i>At the end of the procedure, standard closure in layers with Vicryl. Continuous Prolene to skin.</i></p>
<p>Modal verbs are a significant feature of teacher talk because they are formal and make utterances less blunt.</p>	<p><b>Example 2: Consultant, senior nurse and junior doctor discuss a patient away from the patient:</b></p>
<p>Elicitation exchanges follow a three part pattern. Sinclair and Coulthard call this pattern Initiation – Response – Follow-up (IRF):</p>	<p>C: we’ll stop Mrs P’s A[drug’s pharmaceutical name] - it’s done bugger all to help her. Just made her more vulnerable to infection</p>
<p>Teacher elicits by asking a question – the initiation</p>	<p>C (addressing patient directly): well it is TB – as long as you take the tablets to fight the infection there will be no problem – we are going to stop your breathing tablets as it’s just not helping</p>
<p>Pupil answers – the response</p>	<p>C (addressing junior doctor): it should show up on microexamination. We need to inform the PHD – forms are in the office.</p>
<p>Teacher gives feedback – the follow-up</p>	<p><b>Example 3: Nurses notes on a patient:</b></p>
<p>Teachers also ask known answer questions – questions to which they already know the answer – in order to test pupils’ knowledge.</p>	<p><i>R.Leg no movement. N.B.M from midnight. S/B Mr G.</i></p>
<p>Opening and closing framing moves provide exchange boundaries before the next 3 part exchange begins.</p>	<p><i>For IV. Dexamethasone. T.=37.4C. IVI.in progress.</i></p>
<p>2 part exchanges (adjacency pairs) are also common:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- question / answer</li> <li>- inform / acknowledge</li> <li>- introduction / greeting</li> <li>- complain / excuse</li> </ul>	<p><i>Unable to PU.catherterised. 10mls. H2O in balloon.</i></p>
<p>Adjacency pairs are sometimes separated by an intervening utterance called an insertion sequence.</p>	<p><i>CBD. Good volumes. Vital signs normal. PA’s intact.</i></p> <p><i>Apyrexial. Feeling really fed up.</i></p> <p><i>Ensure TEDs are in situ.</i></p>
	<p><b>In The Exam</b></p> <p><u>What could a question involving Language &amp; Occupation look like?</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Paper 2, Questions 1/2- Assesses AO1, AO2 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Evaluate the idea that a person’s language use is influenced by their occupation.</li> <li>• Evaluate the idea that occupational language needs to be in plain English.</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Paper 2, Questions 3 and 4- Assesses AO1-AO5 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• You might be required to analyse and compare the way the writers of two texts present ideas about language use by a particular occupation (Q3). (AO1, AO3 and AO4).</li> <li>• You might then have to write an article in which you assess the ideas and issues raised in the texts. You should refer to ideas from language study and argue your own views (Q4) (AO2, AO5).</li> </ul> </li> </ul>



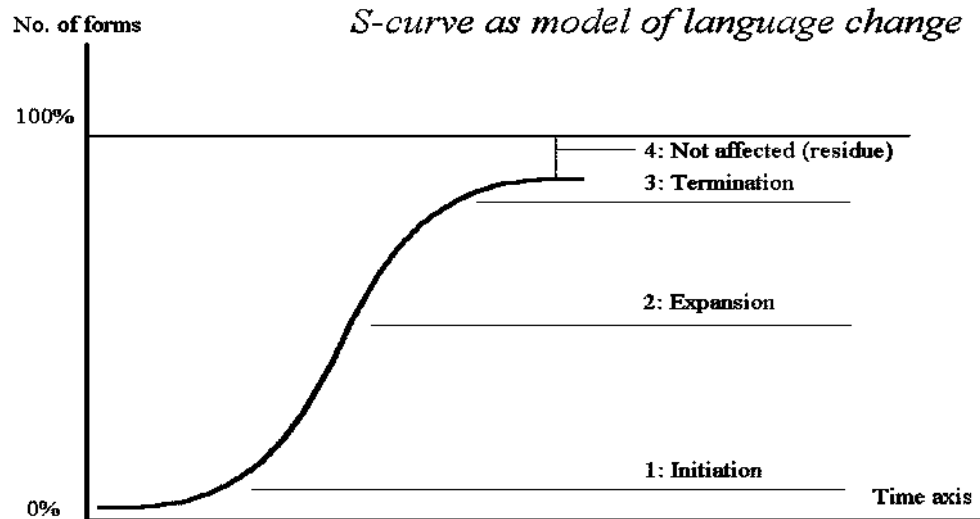
Language Change

Key Term	Definition	Key Term	Definition
Acronym	A word made up from the initial letters of a phrase (sounded as a word) <i>e.g. RADAR, LASER, WAG</i>	Loan Words (a.k.a Borrowing (n))	The introduction of a word from one language to another- either anglicised or similar to original spelling and pronunciation <i>e.g. beef from French bœuf, pajamas from Hindi.</i>
Amelioration	When a word develops a more positive meaning over time <i>e.g. nice used to mean foolish</i> (See also: Pejoration)		
Blend	Two words fusing to make a new one <i>e.g. smoke &amp; fog= smog.</i>	Neologism (a.k.a Coinage)	The creation of a new word or expression.
Clipping	A new word produced by shortening an existing one. <i>E.g. “edit” from editor.</i>	Neosemy	Words begin to be used in different ways and acquire new meanings <i>e.g. text (noun) can also now be used as a verb.</i>
Compound	Combining two words to create a phrase with a new meaning <i>e.g. carbon footprint</i>	Pejoration	When a word develops a more negative meaning over time <i>e.g. Hussy used to mean housewife.</i> (See also: Amelioration)
Conversion	When a word changes its word class <i>e.g. text can be a noun or a verb.</i>	Prefixes	An element placed at the front of a word to adjust its meaning <i>e.g. non-, ex-, mega-</i>
Descriptivism	The belief that language usage is correct depending on context. (See also: Prescriptivism)	Prescriptivism	The belief that features of language are absolutely right or wrong, regardless of context or actual usage. (See also: Descriptivism)
Eponym	The name of a person after whom something is named <i>e.g. Sandwich, Macintosh, Braille</i>	Proprietary Names	The name given to a product which becomes the commonly used name for the item itself <i>e.g. Hoover, Walkman, Tampax</i>
Etymology	The study of the history of words	Sticklerism	An intrusive concern with correcting others’ language.
Initialism	A word made prom the initial letters, each being pronounced <i>e.g. CD, DVD</i>	Suffixes	A morpheme added at the end of a word to form a derivative <i>e.g. -fy, -ing, -ation, -itis</i>
Language Standardization	The process by which conventional forms of language are established and maintained.		

The Development of the English Language



# AO2- Attitudes to language change/ Theories on how it spreads



The above shows the S-Curve theory of the rate of adoption for new words into language.

- The **Random Fluctuation Theory** states that language change is not exactly logical- eg “*That noob got pwned on CoD*”- owned became pwned due to an accidental slip, which grew in online popularity and then spread into spoken language.
  - Innovation:** the creation of a new word/ phrase/ meaning/ way of saying something, sometimes initially perceived as a mistake.
  - Diffusion:** the spread of a feature from the original user to a wider population.
- The **Wave Model** theorises that the new form of language starts at a centre and its use gradually spreads like ripples on a pond to users further away. The ripples may be weaker further from the centre, which may be reflected in fewer people using this feature. Age, ethnicity, social class and gender may also be factors. **CMC** means changes can spread instantly across huge distances.
- Change from above/ conscious change:** Change that is usually initiated by those in a dominant social position or in a position of power and authority. Usually linked to prestige forms of language.
- Change from below/ unconscious change:** Usually driven by the users of a language, developing or adapting language to their own social need. This often appears in vernacular forms introduced by any social class.
- External factors:** Cultural changes, technological innovation or changing social class.

- Internal factors:** Aspects of the language itself can contribute to change. E.g. a computer virus may be linked to an actual virus; “progress” as literal or metaphorical (personal growth).
- Change in pronunciation can follow the **principle of least effort**, including vowel reduction, cluster reduction, lenition, and elision. E.g. going to [ˈɡoʊ.ɪŋ.tʊ] → gonna [ˈɡɒnə] or [ˈɡʌnə]
- Loan words occur due to **language contact**; when speakers of two or more languages interact. This is evident in French and Germanic words influencing English through historical invasions, and words from Hindi and Urdu etc due to language contact during the British Empire.
- Estuary English** is a term coined by David Rosewarne in the 1980s: It mixes “ordinary” London and South Eastern accents with RP. Estuary English is an example of accents spreading through adjoining counties.

## Orthographical Change

18 <sup>th</sup> Century	The long s ( ſ ) was left over from Old English and continued in use into Late Modern English. It was used at the beginning and in the middle of words (initially and medially) but the short s (s) was always used at the end.  Spelling forms became more regular, although often still idiosyncratic. Dictionaries are introduced.	The long s ( ſ ) was used until 1800 when it was replaced by the short s. The phoneme didn’t need a different grapheme, so it was deemed unnecessary.
19 <sup>th</sup> Century	More consistent and standardised spelling evolving.	Increasing standardisation due to the availability of dictionaries and schooling being offered to all children.
20 <sup>th</sup> & 21 <sup>st</sup> Centuries	Standardised spelling rules.  More recently, non-standard forms more extensively used.	Educational practices and government interventions. Development of ICT/ mobile technology.

# Theorists & Theories

- **Norman Fairclough**- Conversationalisation: Speech drives changes in the written mode through rising prestige and status.
- **Jean Aitchison**- (1997) 3 metaphors to describe prescriptivist views of language change which encapsulate people's anxieties about what they perceive to be language 'decay' and 'erosion': Damp spoon syndrome; crumbling castle; infectious disease.
- **Lesley Milroy**- (1989) Milroy put forward the idea of complaint tradition; a tradition of complaining about the state of language.
- **Robert Greene**- (2012) Greene coined the phrase "**declinism**", which is the idea that language is in constant decline.
- The idea of **functional theory** expresses the idea that language changes to suit the needs of its users. E.g. LPs became cassettes, which became CDs and then MP3s, then digital downloads and streaming. Therefore, language changes because society does.
- The idea of **linguistic reflectionism** expresses the idea that language reflects the society that produces it- e.g. the idea that racist terms exist because society is inherently racist.
- **Linguistic determinism** is essentially the **Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis** (1929), which expresses the idea that language controls our perceptions of reality, influencing us to think in certain ways. In order to change attitudes, we need to change language.
- **Linguistic relativity** is a weaker version of the above, which claims that language exerts a powerful influence over how we think and behave.
- **Semantic reclamation or reappropriation** is the act of taking language that has had negative connotations and trying to overturn the term by using language in new ways, e.g. the LGBT community's reclamation of the word "queer"; once a pejorative term, it is now a term to describe sexual and gender minorities who are not heterosexual or cisgender.

## Other key figures

- Dr Samuel Johnson's Dictionary (1755)
- Robert Lowth- "A Short Introduction to English Grammar" (1762)
- Noah Webster- "The American Spelling Book" (1783)

## In The Exam

### What could a question involving Language Change look like?

- **Paper 2 Questions 1&2**
- Question example 1: Evaluate the idea that language is decaying.
- Question example 2: Evaluate the idea that the English language is in a state of decline.
- **Paper 2 Question 3&4**
- Question 3: Analyse how language is used in Text A and Text B to present views about the nature of language change.
- Question 4: Write a feature article about language change in which you address the issues raised in Text A and Text B and argue your own ideas.