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OCR A LEVEL ENGLISH LANGUAGE

A STUDENT'S GUIDE

(COMPLETE **Year 12** AND **Year 13**)

This booklet contains an overview of all the content that you need to know for the examined units of the OCR A Level English Language course.

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Year 2 (Year 13) also includes a non-examined assessment (coursework) which is worth 20% of the A Level course with 40 marks available.

OCR A LEVEL ENGLISH LANGUAGE

APPROACHING THE EXAM

SECTION A

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OVERVIEW OF A LEVEL ENGLISH LANGUAGE- WRITTEN ASSESSMENT

P1: Exploring language (80 marks) 2 hours 30 minutes	P2: Dimensions of linguistic variation (80 marks) 2 hours 30 minutes
SA: Language under the microscope (20 marks)	SA: Child language acquisition (20 marks)
SB: Topical language issue (24 marks)	SB: Language in the media (24 marks)
SC: Comparing and contrasting texts (36 marks)	SC: Language change (36 marks)

Assessment Objectives	
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.
AO3	Analyse and evaluate how contextual factors and language features are associated with the construction of meaning.
AO4	Explore connections across texts, informed by linguistic concepts and methods.
AO5	Demonstrate expertise and creativity in the use of English to communicate in different ways. Note: This assessment objective must be targeted with at least one of AO2, AO3 or AO4, either in the same task or in two or more linked tasks.

Component	AO distribution (% of A Level)				
	AO1	AO2	AO3	AO4	AO5
P1	11%	6%	11%	6%	6%
P2	11%	11%	12%	6%	0%

LANGUAGE LEVELS- BASIC TERMINOLOGY

GRAMPS - Genre, register, representation, audience, mode, purpose, subject matter and style
Register- mode, manner/tenor, field

Lexis

- High/ low frequency lexis
- Polysyllabic, disyllabic, monosyllabic
- Jargon, technical vocabulary, taboo
- Under-specificity, over-specificity
- Hyperbole, oxymoron

Semantics

- Connotation, denotation
- Hyponymy, hypernym, hyponym
- Synonym, antonym, metonym, semantic field
- Dysphemism, euphemism, pun
- Figurative language, metaphor, conceptual metaphor, personification, simile

Grammar

- Adverbial phrases, noun phrases, prepositional phrase, verb phrase
- Adverb, adjective, modifiers
- Pronoun, proper noun, common noun, concrete noun, abstract noun
- Main clause, subordinate clause, syntax
- Dynamic verbs, stative verbs, imperative verbs, modal verbs, main verb, auxiliary verb
- Simple, compound, complex, minor sentence
- Cohesion, conjunction
- Determiner, preposition
- Declarative, imperative, exclamatory, interrogative

Pragmatics

- Implied meaning
- Grice's maxims
- Pragmatic rules
- Implication of context, social practices

Discourse

- Features of written mode and conventions
- Lists, narrative, analysis
- Sections, bullet points, sub-headings
- Discourse markers

KEY THEORISTS- A BREAKDOWN

Language and Gender

Pamela Fishman (dom.)	Dubois and Crouch (def.)	Mills and Stanley
Zimmerman and West (dom.)	Deborah Tannen (diff.)	Janet Hyde
Geoffrey Beattie (dom.)	Ann Weatherall (diff.)	Sapir and Whorf
Dale Spender (dom.)	Christine Howe (diff.)	Michael Halliday
Otto Jespersen (def.)	Konrad Kuiper (diff.)	Peter Trudgill
Janet Holmes (def.)	Jennifer Coates (diff.)	Edina Eisikovits
Robin Lakoff (def.)	Jane Pilkington (diff.)	Jenny Cheshire
Jennifer Coates (def.)	Deborah Cameron (diff.)	Esther Greif
Janet Holmes (def.)	Norman Fairclough	John Gray
O'Barr and Atkins (def.)	Penelope Eckert	Judith Butler

Language and Power

Shan Wareing	Brown and Yule	Christopher Booker
Norman Fairclough	Erving Goffman	Stuart Hall
Howard Giles	Brown and Levinson	Michel Foucault
Paul Grice	John Austin	Antonio Gramsci
Sinclair and Coulthard	Vladimir Propp	Jacques Derrida

Language and Technology

Elizabeth Eisenstein	Carrington	Christopher Werry
Susan Herring	Tim Shortis	John Sinclair
Hamilton and Barton	Norman Fairclough	David Crystal

Language in the Media

Norman Fairclough	Shan Wareing	Elizabeth Eisenstein
Michael Halliday	Stuart Hall	

Child Language Acquisition

Jean Berko-Gleason	Leslie Rescorla	Lee Vygotsky
Katherine Nelson	Jean Aitchson	Ursula Bellugi
John Dore	B.F. Skinner	Catherine Garvey
Michael Halliday	Noam Chomsky	Eve Clark
Pamela Grunwell	Eric Lenneberg	Roger Brown
Lawrence Schriberg	Jean Piaget	
Michael Tomasello	Jerome Bruner	

Language Change

Dr Samuel Johnson	Peter Trudgill	Anne Fabricius
Ferdinand de Saussure	Cheshire and Milroy	Cameron
Jean Aitchson	Tagliamonte et al.	David Rosewarne
Milroy and Milroy	Noah Webster	Coupland
Einar Haugen	Herring	Dennis Freeborn
William Shakespeare	Thomas Sheridan	Anne Fisher
David Crystal	Alexander Ellis	John Ash
Harris	Giles and Powesland	John Humphrys

PAPER 1, SECTION A: LANGUAGE UNDER THE MICROSCOPE

Marks available: 20 marks
Suggested time: 40 minutes (ExT: 50 minutes)
Summary: A focus on the effects of lexical choices and grammatical features in a short written text.

AO1 (10 marks)	AO3 (10 marks)
Candidates clearly identify patterns of language use in precise relation to the linguistic level specified in the task and can closely analyse incisively chosen evidence, with the application of appropriate terminology; the writing is in a secure academic register.	With a precise hold on the language feature specified in the task, candidates perceptively evaluate the possible effect of contextual factors on the way language is produced in this text and is received and understood by its audience.

Timings
10 minutes (ExT: 10 min)- Annotating
15 minutes (ExT: 20 min)- Lexis (writing)
15 minutes (ExT: 20 min)- Grammar (writing)

General advice
- Different colours for lexis and grammar (reduces planning time).
- Do not use any additional planning time.
- GRAMPS it. Find the links.
- Find patterns.

Approaching analysis
1) Identify what each part of the question asks you to focus on, lexis for part (a) and grammar for part (b)
2) Identify genre, register, representation, audience (x2), purpose (x2), subject matter and style- consider the context of production and reception.
3) Consider the relationship between the text producer and readership.
   How might the genre and purpose of the text influence the features that establish and reinforce this relationship?
   What is the connection between the text producer, the subject matter, and the reader?
   Consider the reader's pragmatic knowledge.
4) How does the writer's lexical choices impact the ideologies and attitudes presented?
   How is the register manipulated and controlled?
   Is there a distinct division between the content and the readership?
5) How do the grammatical features/structures of the text reflect the text producer's attitude towards the subject matter?
   How does it impact pragmatics in the audience's reception of the text?
   How do sentence types link to the purpose?
   How does the variation in syntax manipulate the ways in which the subject matter is presented?

In the exam
- Separate the response to part (a) and part (b)
- Spend an equal amount of time on each section
- Use precise evidence and quotations from the text to support and develop points
- Identify patterns that are significant in the text drawing together linguistic features
- Closely discuss patterns in the data with depth and detail
- Explore a wide range of features

- Make sure that the use of terminology is accurate (tends to particularly be inaccuracy when discussing sentence types)
- Focus on the question and avoid responding more generally to the text
- Remain objective in your response- do not incorporate personal opinion on the matter.

Structuring a response

Prioritise the most perceptive points by addressing them in the initial paragraph.

1) Topical sentence, linking to a specific feature- potentially mention dynamic with GAP
2) Provide evidence, highlighting its presence as a consistent pattern in the text.
3) Discuss the primary impact of this. Link to context- influence on patterns.
4) Any potential extension of pattern through other features (AO1)?
5) Then, overall, what does this achieve? COP/R and GAP links.

REPEAT.

Analytical framework

Lexis	Grammar
Lexical choice ● Jargon ● Dialect ● Colloquialisms ● Taboo ● Euphemism/ dysphemism **Formality (/education indicators?)** ● High/low frequency lexis ● Register **Figurative language** ● Metaphor (conceptual?) ● Simile ● Pun ● Hyperbole ● Oxymoron **Semantic/ lexical field** **Contrasts in meaning** ● Synonym ● Antonym ● Hypernym ● Hyponym ● Polysemy	**Word classes** ● Nouns ● Verbs ● Adjectives (gradable, comparative, superlative) ● Adverbs ● Pronoun (1st, 2nd or 3rd p. address) ● Conjunctions ● Prepositions ● Determiners - (Attributive/predicative modification) **Verb features** ● Main/auxiliary ● Tense ● Modal auxiliaries ● Active voice ● Passive voice **Sentence structure** ● Simple ● Compound ● Complex ● Compound-complex - (Elliptical construction?) **Sentence type** ● Declarative ● Interrogative ● Exclamatory ● Imperative ● Syntax ● Standard or non-standard? ● Subject/object

PAPER 1, SECTION B: TOPICAL LANGUAGE ISSUE

Marks available: 24 marks
Suggested time: 45 minutes (ExT: 56 minutes)
Summary: Engaging with an issue or concept related to language in use.

AO2 (12 marks)	AO5 (12 marks)
In their piece of writing, candidates show an assured knowledge and understanding of the specified concept and issue and its relevance to language use. Candidates engage critically with the specified concept and issue.	An expertly-constructed text showing, perhaps surprising, originality in making the piece appropriate to the form specified in the task. The use of appropriately chosen linguistic features shows flair and the writing precisely suits the audience defined in the task.

Timings
5-10 minutes (ExT: 10 mins)- Planning
35-40 minutes (ExT: 46 mins)- Writing

General advice
- Be original.
- Engage suitably with your audience- adjust your register.
- Embed concepts and theories.

Approaching the exam question
1. Read the question carefully highlighting the **form** and **audience** specified, identify the genre, audience and purpose clearly
2. Consider what **stance** you are going to take accurately recognising what **issue** is presented by the statement and choosing a **focus** within it
3. Spend 5-10 minutes **planning** your response carefully considering how your points will develop from one to the next and from beginning to end
4. Write your response aiming for **quality** rather than quantity sticking to the **500 word** guidelines
5. Spend 5 minutes checking over your writing ensuring that it communicate **clearly** and **coherently** as well as expressing your views with **flair**

In the exam
- Accurately identify the issue presented in the statement and ensure your response is relevant
- Show thoughtful engagement with linguists and theorists giving depth and detail to your discussions, avoid superficial discussion
- Consider the issues with maturity and sensitivity
- Use rhetoric flair and panache!
- Ensure the form and register is consistently appropriate for the audience stated
- Remember there are equal marks for AO2 & AO5 by balancing good writing with intellectual engagement
- Avoid your writing just become a rant about recent issues or debates in the news/politics

Example statements
‘Language divides youth and age.’
‘There is no right or wrong language.’
‘Language is powerful. It forces us to think and act in different ways.’
‘Teenagers are ruining the English language.’

‘In our society, it is important that we have a standard form of spoken language.’
‘Gender stereotypes are created and fixed at a young age.’
‘Women use the English language differently from men because society is sexist.’
‘Technology is spoiling the English language.’
‘The internet is responsible for the deterioration of the English language.’
‘The era of prescriptivism is in decline.’

Wider reading resources

Reading widely and frequently is central to our ability to write and adapt to the stylistics of many different texts. We can learn from our own experience as readers what makes effective communication in a text by drawing upon what we have successfully received from it, and how this has been achieved. These are some sources to start off your wider reading and research beyond the curriculum:

Podcasts:

Why it's time to stop worrying about the decline of the English language- David Shariatmadari
https://podcasts.google.com/?feed=aHR0cHM6Ly93d3cudGhlZ3VhcmRpYW4uY29tL25ld3Mvc2VyaWVzL3RoZS1hdWRpby1sb25nLXJlYWQvcG9kY2FzdC54bWw&episode=NWQ3NjA0NmY4ZjA4MjUxNDg3OWYwODZh&hl=en-GB&ved=2ahUKEwjR0_Cy89HnAhUHQUEAHZ-CDZ8QjrkEegQIBxAE&ep=6

Behemoth, bully, thief: how the English language is taking over the planet
https://podcasts.google.com/?feed=aHR0cHM6Ly93d3cudGhlZ3VhcmRpYW4uY29tL25ld3Mvc2VyaWVzL3RoZS1hdWRpby1sb25nLXJlYWQvcG9kY2FzdC54bWw&episode=aHR0cHM6Ly9hdWRpby5ndWltLmNvLnVrLzIwMTgvMDgvMDgtMzk4MTktZ2RuLmxyLjE4MDgwOC5zYi5ob3ctZW5nbGlzaC1sYW5ndWFnZS10YWtpbmctb3Zlci1wbGFuZXQubXAz&hl=en-GB&ved=2ahUKEwjR0_Cy89HnAhUHQUEAHZ-CDZ8QjrkEegQIBxAG&ep=6

Inside the OED: can the world's biggest dictionary survive the internet?
https://podcasts.google.com/?feed=aHR0cHM6Ly93d3cudGhlZ3VhcmRpYW4uY29tL25ld3Mvc2VyaWVzL3RoZS1hdWRpby1sb25nLXJlYWQvcG9kY2FzdC54bWw&episode=aHR0cHM6Ly9hdWRpby5ndWltLmNvLnVrLzIwMTgvMDMvMTUtNjE2ODQtZ2RuLmxyLjE4MDMxNS5zYi5pbnNpZGUtdGhlLW9lZC1kaWN0aW9uYXJ5LXN1cnZpdmUtaW50ZXJuZXQubXAz&hl=en-GB&ved=2ahUKEwjR0_Cy89HnAhUHQUEAHZ-CDZ8QjrkEegQIBxAK&ep=6

The Battle for English- BBC Radio 4
https://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/m000gkv4

Word of Mouth, by Michael Rosen- BBC Radio 4
https://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/b006qtnz/topics/English_language

The History of English Podcast, by Kevi Stroud (Spotify)

Lingthusiasm- A podcast that's enthusiastic about linguistics, by Gretchen McCulloch and Lauren Gawne (Spotify)

Lexicon Valley, by John McWhorter (Spotify)

Podcasts by the Faculty of English Literature and Language at the University of Oxford
https://podcasts.ox.ac.uk/keywords/language

TED-Ed Lessons
https://ed.ted.com/lessons?student_level=3+4&category=linguistics

Books and essays:

- *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*, by David Crystal
    - (See all of Crystal’s shorter works too!)

- *Mother Tongue*, by Bill Bryson
- *Politics and the English Language*, by George Orwell
- *How Language Began: The Story of Humanity's Greatest Invention*, by Daniel Everett
- *Don't Believe A Word: The Surprising Truth About Language*, by David Shariatmadari
- *Language Handbook (2nd Edition)- Key Thinkers on Key Topics*, by EMC

See the 'language' section in the LRC for a wide range of resources.

Articles:

- Mind Your Language article- The Guardian https://www.theguardian.com/media/mind-your-language
- Language (society and science)- The Guardian https://www.theguardian.com/science/language
- EMC articles (ask teacher for access)
- (Blog) Language: A Feminist Guide- Deborah Cameron https://debuk.wordpress.com/

Some Twitter feeds to follow:

- David Crystal
- Debbie Cameron
- AllThingsLinguistic
- Language Log
- Language Today
- Bgzimmer
- Language Debates

Genre conventions

Genres are "different ways of (inter)acting discoursally" -*Norman Fairclough*

Blog

- A series of entries which conform to a journal or diary like structure and are related by subject matter or topics in the post. Sometimes organised by date.
- Short in length; structured through short paragraphs → fast moving
- Thematically linked posts, or independent in subject matter and style
- Include visuals and media- potential to influence language choice
- Informal register and spoken language features- dependent on context. Blogs linked to newspaper article/ websites likely to adopt mixed register (varying levels of formality)
- Direct address to audience (synthetic personalisation)
- Self-referential nature ('In my last blog') and use of personal pronouns (first person)
- Spoken language features:
    - Change in tone and register through colloquial language
        - Abbreviations
        - Acronyms
        - Emoticons

Podcast

- Spoken language features typical of spontaneous speech
- Informal register; variation in tone and intonation, possible interruptions
- Framing devices: introductory exchange that may be summarised or referred to in the concluding section. All resultant of edited nature.
- Rhetorical devices: humour, argument or debate, description appealing to senses, varying speeds in delivery to indicate excitement. Used to engage and sustain listener's attention.
- Dialogue (exchanges between participants)
- Transactional language use
- Question types (interrogative, rhetorical, tag), adjacency pairing and use of questions to dominate or control discussion
- Elliptical phrasing ("a word or phrase implied by context is omitted from a sentence, usually because it is a repetition of a preceding word or phrase")
- Subject-specific semantic fields

Tabloid article

- Use of sensationalism to engage readership and preference for 'diversions' (eg. sport, scandals and popular entertainment) that attract public interest.
- Tone is highly personalised to the text producer; reporters are opinionated
- Absence of objectivity and analytical reasoning
- Juxtaposition of reality and fantasy to arouse interest in readers (and potentially mislead them too)
- Use of headlines, headings and subheadings- typically dramatised by lexical choices to give a sensationalistic angle.
    - Exclamatory; puns; alliteration; assonance; cliche; euphemism; expletives; metaphor; rhyming; slang
    - Interlinks closely with visual, graphological features
- Active voice frequently used

Broadsheet editorial

- Primary devotion to economics, politics and society (timely news angle); informative purpose
- Professional manner of addressing topic manifests formal register
- Use of headlines, headings and subheadings
- Majority of readership likely to be well educated and of greater social authority
- Use of passive voice to maintain academic register
- Less biased; refrain from using persuasion/ manipulating a reader's view in an extreme, sensationalistic manner.
- Cohesive; concise summary offering editor's opinion
- A sense of audience
- Use of rhetorical devices to inform, potentially prompting further thought from reader (agreement/ disagreement)
- Use of quotations; subtle mixing of fact and opinion

ADDITIONAL NOTES (What is the difference between an editorial, column and an article?)		
Editorial: An expression of position of the newspaper's editors or editorial board or publisher on an issue. Generally written by the editor or member of the editorial board. Tradition to frame editorial using first person plural, *we*.	**Column:** Written by a columnist, editor or other select individual on a topic of their choosing. Expression of one person's opinion or view and commonly written in first/ third person singular.	**Article:** Non-fiction writing in a publication, reporting on an event person or topic. Attempts to be less biased to broaden readership.

Radio script (Radio 4 style)

- Writing in a conversational style, avoiding long complex sentences- comprehensible for listeners
- Some colloquialisms to converge to audience's typical discourse
- Phonetic spelling to ensure that presenter can easily read words that are difficult to pronounce
- Expanding acronyms and explaining meaning
- Use of cardinal numerals to ease fluency of presenter's speech
- Potential for jargon of each specific subject matter
- Presenter controls questioning
- Awareness and potential direct addressal of audience

TV documentary

- Focus on actuality, often in a certain social context, not only serves the purpose of informing, but puts the audience in a position to form an opinion on subject matter.
- Factual; authenticity promoted and secured by the reliability of proper nouns used (place names, name of producers (and their job titles)).
- Use of narrative form
- Informative purpose makes the topic accessible and asks the audience to draw parallels between characters, settings and situations.
- Inter-relationship between images shown and the discourse of the narrator, making the voiceover more objective and honest.
- Potential for more specialist jargon

PAPER 1, SECTION C: COMPARING AND CONTRASTING TEXTS

Marks available: 36 marks
Suggested time: 1 hour 5 minutes (ExT: 1 hour 22 minutes)
Summary: Exploring linguistic connections and comparisons between different modes of communication.

AO1 (out of 12)	AO3 (out of 12)	AO4 (out of 12)
Apply a range of linguistic methods in an assured and systematic way, using appropriate terminology and writing in a secure academic register. Deftly establish and explore patterns of language use and closely analyse incisively chosen evidence.	Make discerning points about the possible effect of contextual factors on particular features of language, both in terms of production and reception. Perceptively evaluate their points, suggesting alternatives for how context might account for variations in language use.	Selectively and methodically apply confident knowledge of appropriate linguistic concepts across both texts. Compare particular linguistic features in the two texts, making illuminating connections between them which clearly establish some of the varied ways language is used.

Timings
5 minutes- Annotate T1
5 minutes- Annotate T2
5 minutes - Plan response
(ExT Overall 19 mins- Planning)
50 minutes (ExT 1 hr 3 mins)- Writing

General advice
- Explore primary and secondary text producers and receivers.
- Mode as a continuum.
- Comparative and integrated response.

Approaching the exam question
1. Read the two texts and identify the **GAP** and **register,** drawing comparisons between the two.
2. **Annotate** both texts in detail for the linguistic methods and language levels connection identification to comments on context.
3. **Plan** comparative points covering **a range** of language levels and linguistic methods.
4. **Write** a concise analytical response which is driven by comparisons and integrates the discussion of specific linguistic features and context (do not give a lengthy introduction or conclusion).
5. **Check** the response for clarity of communication.

In the exam
- Avoid irrelevant and lengthy introductions and conclusions, get straight to the point!
- Do not become too preoccupied by the historical context of the information within the two texts
- Avoid general comments about the differences between spoken and written texts
- Address the language choices made by the text producers and their effects upon receivers
- Demonstrate a thorough knowledge and understanding of the language levels
- Any application of theory and concepts should be explored in relation to specific examples from the data and the context
- Show understanding of a range of linguistic methods in application to specific examples

Approaching analysis

Below are some questions to support comparative analysis between spoken and written texts. These should be considered in relation to the specific contexts of texts. Contexts and their role in construction of meaning should be closely explored- data led analysis.

- Do the texts converge in their subject matter and lexical fields? If so, how do they then vary in exploring these fields through their register, lexical frequencies etc.?
- Spoken texts in the exam are often texts that are published. Explore the distinction between primary and secondary audiences in purposes in informing the linguistic techniques used to construct meaning.
    - What is the relationship between the primary interlocutor and immediate, implied audience, and the secondary narrator and audience? Tenor.
- How are the texts made accessible and engaging? For example, emphatic stress and intensifiers (potentially accompanying paralinguistics) in spoken mode, and visual semiotics accompanying written text, or social media icons assuming further engagement.
- How is cooperative communication maintained in both texts? Hypophora in written texts can mimic the dyadic nature of spoken discourse. Pseudo-interactivity and pronoun usage.

PAPER 2, SECTION A: CHILD LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Marks available: 20 marks
Suggested time: 40 minutes (ExT: 50 minutes)
Summary: A focus on children's acquisition of spoken language, between the ages of 0 to 7 years.

AO1 (10 marks)	AO2 (10 marks)
Assured reference to a wide range of language features, with appropriate and well-selected examples which support a focussed analysis. The response will be enhanced by consistently accurate use of a wide range of appropriate terminology; writing is in a secure academic register.	The response will make assured reference to stages of development explained and explored effectively, with well-selected examples. The response will make discerning/perceptive links to theory or concepts in a way that suggests assured understanding of the relationship between theory and practice.

Timings
10 minutes (ExT: 10 min)- Annotating
30 minutes (ExT: 40 min)- Writing

General advice
- Comment equally on phonology and grammar.
- Use different colours for each to make planning quicker and easier.
- Critically explore theory.

Approaching the exam question
1. **Read** through the transcript with consideration of the **age** of the key child interlocutor, and the overarching **contexts** (e.g. imaginative play).
2. **Annotate** the text in detail for grammatical and phonological features- used either securely, insecurely or entirely omitted (e.g. auxiliary verbs)- linking these to potential developmental stages.
3. **Annotate** the text for theories and concepts in relation to linguistic features previously identified. Aim to make critical and perceptive links that may either support or refute theoretical views.
4. Briefly **plan** points covering both language levels.
5. **Write** a concise analytical response which is driven by assured reference to stages of development through well-selected examples, and integrates theory in a critical manner.
6. **Check** for clarity of communication.

In the exam
- Remember that phonological features of the text are not indicative of a particular grammatical stage (e.g. post-telegraphic)- try not to generalise patterns.
- Ensure to comment in depth on both phonological and grammatical features
- Refrain from commenting extensively on the role of the more knowledgeable other (i.e. parent or older sibling)- focus on the speech of the child.
- Incorporate theoretical views throughout your response, supported by evidence from the text. These views can be explored critically- both supported and refuted by the data.
- Avoid any extensive comments on context as AO3 is not assessed in this question.
- Consider the child's positioning within the development stage. Are they securely in this stage, or is there evidence to suggest that this child has only recently progressed to this stage? Would this be expected for the age of the child?

Structuring the response

Introduction

- Explain what stage the child is at taking into the age of the child and evidence in the data.
- Identify the interlocutors involved in the transcript; explain the relationship between them and how this affects the interaction.
- Consider the function of the interaction between the interlocutors.

Paragraph structure

- **P**oint - Begin with a point phrased as a topic sentence – refer to a relevant linguistic point about what is shown about the child's language development in the transcript from phonology, grammar or meaning. (You might draw upon your knowledge and points made in the introduction but these should be built upon throughout your analysis.)
- **E**vidence – Support your point with a carefully chosen example(s) from the data.
- **T**echnique – Use linguistic terminology to explain what the example from the data shows.
- **A**nalyse – Explore your linguistic point and what the example from the data shows, develop your discussion further by bringing in further evidence and examples from the data. Explore connections with relevant child language acquisition theories. Bring in a SECOND quotation/example from the data to explore further.
- **L**ink – Link back to the point of your paragraph and ideas discussed in your introduction, lead onto your next point.

Conclusion

- Overall, explain what we learn from the transcript about where the child is in their language development journey and the role that caregivers play in this.
- Reiterate some of the key features that demonstrate this (whilst avoiding being too repetitive of previous points).

PAPER 2, SECTION B: LANGUAGE IN THE MEDIA

Marks available: 24 marks
Suggested time: 45 minutes (ExT: 56 minutes)
Summary: A focus on discourse in multi-modal media texts.

AO2 (12 marks)	AO3 (12 marks)
Candidates show an assured knowledge and understanding of relevant concepts and issues. Candidates engage critically with the ways concepts and issues inform their analysis of the text's patterns of language use.	Candidates offer a discerning exploration of a range of contextual factors and language features, and how they are associated with the construction of meaning. Candidates evaluate in perceptive detail how contextual features inherent in the text are associated with the construction of meaning.

Timings
5-10 minutes (ExT: 10 mins)- Annotating
35-40 minutes (ExT: 46 mins)- Writing

General advice
Use GRAMPS framework
(Genre, register, representation, audience (x2), mode, purpose (x2), subject matter, style)

Approaching the exam question

1. Read the text and identify the **GAP** and **register.**
2. Make a note where necessary differentiating between implied/actual producer and implied/actual receiver.
3. **Annotate** the text in detail for the linguistic methods and language levels.
4. **Annotate** the text for how context of production leads to use of these methods.
5. **Annotate** the text for how context of reception leads to use of these methods.
6. **Plan** points covering **a range** of language levels and linguistic methods
7. **Write** a concise analytical response which focused on the construction of meaning and integrates the discussion of specific linguistic features and context (do not give a lengthy introduction or conclusion)
8. **Check** the response for clarity of communication

In the exam

- Explore patterns of language use in relation to contexts and concepts.
- Integrate analysis of language patterns with a wide range of concepts.
- Discuss the ways the text builds on members' resources and shared cultural knowledge.
- Allow data to lead the analysis rather than make data fit to theories.
- Consider the whole text rather than focusing on one aspect.
- Consider how context of production may influence language choices / representation.
- Consider structure and tone alongside lexical and grammatical features.
- Ensure that multi-modality and its impact is taken into account.

Approaching analysis

Below are some exemplar, overarching linguistic points often found in media texts. However, when analysing the specific texts, the particular contexts of reception and production are central to the key function of such features. Contexts and their role in construction of meaning should be closely explored- data-led analysis.

- Multimodal text- links between visual orthographics and subject matter

    - Implicitly supporting ideology (opportunity to link to semantic/lexical field)
    - Supports or juxtaposes?
    - Introducing subject before even mentioned
    - Supporting visual evidence of subject matter- implicitly manipulating ideology
- General graphological features- characteristic of genre
    - Social media icons- invite to continue discussion
    - Hyperlinks (often used in conjunction with imperatives)
        - Underlined to suggest hyperlink
        - Deictic lexeme 'here' implicitly inclusive
            - Encourages to find out more; writer appeals to diverse audience by acknowledging that some
            - may wish to inform themselves further
            - (SUPPORTS) Elizabeth Eisenstein (1979)- personal and social change are afforded possibilities by technology, since the text producer and text receiver have the opportunity to share this article if they wish to continue addressing the discourse topic of [...]
- Register- potentially mixed, some informal elements, some formal/academic
    - Elision (e.g. they're), fronted conjunctions (INFORMAL)
- Textual and temporal cohesion
    - Aspect and adverbs of time
- Pronoun usage
    - Mainly vocative voice? Second person pronoun 'you'.
- Lexical fields- reflecting subject matter
- Jargon- relating to specialist subject matter
    - Assumption/illusion of shared knowledge
    - Definition supplied- audience not necessarily expert (would be unnecessary if so)
- Technology related neologisms
    - Permitted by publication n technology section of the newspaper
- Noun phrases- modification
    - Adding information by apposition- typical convention of modern journalism
    - Shifting usage throughout- humourous connotations and entertainment, contrasting with the factual and objective
    - References to other organisations- 'manifest intertextuality' (Fairclough)
        - Empowering device as its exophoric reference to another institution goes beyond the text itself
        - Implies shared cultural context between author and audience, which may make readers more likely to accept the text producer's ideology as its presented with an assumed common ground
- Metaphor- often linking to semantic fields
    - Positioning of subject matter in relation to writer and audience; representation
    - Associated qualities, defined by the audience, are transfered to subject matter.
    - Links to any non-figurative (literal) language to demonstrate factual, objective evidence (dual representation)
    - Conceptual metaphor (a metaphor in which one idea or conceptual domain is understood in terms of another)
- Compounding including use of prefixes
- Collocations (linguistic relativism?)
- Pragmatics and representation of subject matter

- Transactional or interactional text?
- Where is the emphasis placed?
    - E.g. ‘Emphasis placed on programs rather than the people who created them; the systems/functions are foregrounded and personified.’
- Authorship as a joint endeavour- collective pronoun ‘we’
    - Emphasis on collective approach may connote power/expertise (this authorship is presumably a familiar feature for regular readers)
    - Tenor- distance between writer and audience
    - By excluding implied readership, the writer reminds the audience that he/she is part of a larger organisation (in this the [...] newspaper.)
    - Unified authority on behalf of the newspaper persuades the audience to accept views about [...]
        - Heightened by names of several writers under headline- furthers notion that values of text are part of wider ideology of independent newspaper
- Reliability of source
    - Implicit references to influential power (Wareing/Fairclough)
    - Representation of text producer
- Assumption of shared values- link to synthetic personalisation (Fairclough)
- Repetition of modal auxiliary ‘can’
    - Reflect purpose of advising reader of possible courses of action available to them

PAPER 2, SECTION C: LANGUAGE CHANGE

Marks available: 36 marks
Suggested time: 1 hour 5 minutes (ExT: 1 hour, 22 minutes)
Summary: An analysis of the historical varieties of English.

AO1 (out of 12)	AO3 (out of 12)	AO4 (out of 12)
Apply a range of linguistic methods in an assured and systematic way, using appropriate terminology and writing in a secure academic register. Deftly establish and explore patterns of language use and closely analyse incisively chosen evidence.	Make discerning points about the possible effect of contextual factors on particular features of language, both in terms of production and reception. Perceptively evaluate their points, suggesting alternatives for how context might account for variations in language use.	Selectively and methodically apply confident knowledge of appropriate linguistic concepts across both texts. Compare particular linguistic features in the two texts, making illuminating connections between them which clearly establish some of the ways that language has varied over time.

Timings
15 minutes (ExT: 19 mins)- Planning
50 minutes (ExT: 1 hr 3mins)- Writing

General advice
- Balance linguistic and historical contexts.
- Response driven by how the texts demonstrate language change.

Approaching the exam question
1. Read the two texts and identify the **GAP** and **register,** drawing comparisons between the two
2. **Annotate** both texts in detail for the linguistic methods and language levels connection to identified comments on linguistic and historical contexts.
3. **Plan** comparative points covering **a range** of language levels and linguistic methods.
4. **Write** a concise analytical response which is driven by how the texts demonstrate language change, and integrates the comparative discussion of specific linguistic features and context (do not give a lengthy introduction or conclusion).
5. **Check** the response for clarity of communication.

In the exam
- Avoid irrelevant and lengthy introductions and conclusions- get straight to the point!
- Ensure that the response is driven by how the texts demonstrate language change over time.
- Address the language choices made by the text producers and their effects upon receivers, with consideration of how this has changed between the time of text production.
- Demonstrate a thorough knowledge and understanding of the language levels.
- Any application of theory and concepts should be explored in relation to specific examples from the data and the context.
- Show understanding of a range of linguistic methods in application to specific examples.

Approaching analysis

Below are some key questions and exemplar points to guide your analysis on how the texts demonstrate change over time. These should be considered closely in relation to the specific contexts of the texts. Contexts and their construction of meaning should be closely explored- data-led analysis.

- Do the texts converge in their common exploration of subject matter, but differ in their authorial tone?
    - Could this be attributed to the difference in typified conventions of the genre in each time period?
- How does the tenor change between the texts?
    - There may be a shift from impersonal to personal connection between the audience, the text, and the text producer between the 18th and 20th century as literature becomes more popular and accessible to the educated mass culture.
- To what degree is complex, polysyllabic latinate lexis used with consideration of its accessibility for the implied audience? Is it used selectively, or merely part of the vernacular?
    - Consider the prominence of education within society at the time.
    - It is possible that the more contemporary text has a broader implied readership as it is available for self-selecting audiences.
- Complex sentences in older texts often add to the natural inaccessibility of the text to the general public of the time (who are likely to have minimal education), whilst also being a typical feature of Late Modern English- particularly by means of displaying one's learning.
- The academic nature of texts is often supported by their stylistic opacity, achieved through features such as frequent multi-clausal sentences.
    - The formal nature of a society dependent on social structure contributes to such authorial style.
- How has a shift in social attitudes caused a difference in lexical choice and the semantic fields used?
    - Has the notion of political correctness influenced this?
- During the period of Late Modern English, fewer people read for pleasure, so usually, the need to actively engage the reader through dramatised, premodified descriptions was lesser- this varies between genres and COP/R, however.
- Archaic orthography, pejoration and amelioration demonstrate a shift in the audience's conception of vocabulary, its semantics and notation.

OCR A LEVEL ENGLISH LANGUAGE

YEAR 1 (Year 12)

SECTION B

CONTENTS:

WRITTEN LANGUAGE- TERMINOLOGY

SPOKEN LANGUAGE- TERMINOLOGY AND THEORIES

RHETORIC- TERMINOLOGY

LANGUAGE AND POWER- TERMINOLOGY AND THEORIES

LANGUAGE AND GENDER- TERMINOLOGY AND THEORIES

WRITTEN LANGUAGE- TERMINOLOGY

N.B. Hurford's *Grammar: A Student's Guide* is a really useful resource to help you understand some complex grammatical terms. It also includes short activities to test your understanding. Inexpensive second-hand copies can be purchased on Amazon: https://www.amazon.co.uk/Grammar-Students-James-R-Hurford/dp/0521456274

PREPOSITIONS AND CONJUNCTIONS	
Preposition	A word which shows how elements in a sentence/clause relate to each other in time or space. - E.g. 'In', 'or', 'under', 'by', 'with', 'from', 'over', 'through', 'behind', 'to'
Prepositional phrases	Consists of: - Preposition - Noun phrase (w. head noun) - Any number of.. Determiners Modifiers Qualifiers e.g. 'The pretty cottage BY THE SEA' 'the' = determiner 'pretty' = modifier 'cottage' = head noun 'by the sea' = prepositional phrase 'by' = preposition 'the' = determiner 'sea' = noun 'the sea' = noun phrase
Coordinating conjunction	Joins main clauses. - E.g. 'and', 'or', 'but'
Subordinating conjunction	Used at the start of subordinate clause - E.g. 'because'
NOUNS AND PRONOUNS	
Abstract nouns	Intangible nouns such as ideas, qualities or conditions. - E.g. sadness, intelligence, optimism
Concrete nouns	These refer to people or things that exist physically and that at least one of the senses can detect. You can touch, smell, see, or hear them. - E.g. cat, desk, baby, bike
Non-count nouns	Non-segmental material dealt with as an invisible mass. - Examples: hatred, moss, weather, intertextuality

Count nouns	Refers to individual objects in a countable collection. - E.g. mountain, month, orange, towns, girls
Uninflected plural	Singular and plural forms are identical.
Proper noun	A noun identifying a particular person, place, idea, event or thing. - E.g. Joanne, Mars, Hamlet, Friday
Common nouns	Nouns referring to members of classes of people or things in general. - E.g. country, girls, weather, phenomenon
Compound	A word formed from two other words. - E.g. 'dustbin'
Apposition	A relationship between two or more words or phrases in which the two units are grammatically parallel and have the same referent. E.g. ‘my friend Sue ; the first US president, George Washington’
Relative Pronouns	Directly follow the nouns which they describe. - E.g. that, which, who, whom, whose 'The car WHICH hit me was yellow'
Interrogative pronoun	Pronoun introducing a question. - E.g. who, what, whom, which, whose
Demonstrative pronouns	Point to the relationship between the speaker and a person or thing.
Reflexive pronoun	‘-self’ or ‘-selves’ pronouns that reflect back to a word used previously in the sentence. 1st person singular: myself 1st personal plural: ourselves 2nd person singular: yourself 2nd person plural: yourselves 3rd person singular: himself / herself / itself 3rd person plural: themselves
Possessive pronoun	Indicates ownership. 1st person singular: mine 1st personal plural: ours 2nd person singular: yours 2nd person plural: yours 3rd person singular: his / hers / its 3rd person plural: theirs

Personal pronouns (object)	1st person singular: me 1st personal plural: us 2nd person singular: you 2nd person plural: you 3rd person singular: him / her / it 3rd person plural: them
Personal pronouns (subject)	1st person singular: I 1st personal plural: we 2nd person singular: you 2nd person plural: you 3rd person singular: he/ she / it 3rd person plural: they
Who vs. Whom	Who - subject Whom- object
MODIFIERS AND VERBS	
Adjective positioning	Attributive: before noun, after article - E.g. The FERAL student Predicative: following verb as complement (detached from noun/pronoun) - E.g. Students are ANGELS
Gradable adjectives	Base form - e.g. 'green' Comparative - e.g. 'greener' Superlative - e.g. 'greenest' Can be graded upwards with suffixes '-er' and '-est'. (Or 'more' / 'most')
Adjectives	Often found between determiner and noun. Modify meaning in noun phrase.
Copular verbs	Verb used to join an adjective or noun complement to a subject. 'Our bees ARE important'
Catenatives	CATENATIVE + 'TO' (INFINITIVE) E.g. 'appear', 'seem', 'get' 'She appeared to run away' No use of primary verbs.

Semi-auxiliaries	PRIMARY AUXILIARY + ANOTHER VERB + 'TO' (INFINITIVE) Semi-auxiliaries combine verbs to form a verb phrase chain. 'You were supposed to' = semi-auxiliary 'be' ('were') = primary auxiliary 'supposed' = verb 'to' = beginning of infinitive
Auxiliary verbs	Primary verbs: 'be', 'have', 'do' Modal verbs: only used with main verbs. 'can' & 'could' 'will' & 'would' 'shall' & 'should' 'may' & 'must' & 'might'
Dummy auxiliary	The verb 'do' which is used to form questions and negatives or to add emphasis in a statement.
Main and auxiliary verbs	Main verb: single verb that expresses main meaning. Auxiliary verbs: placed in front of main verbs. 'I must have been driving too fast.' 'must have been' = auxiliary verbs 'driving' = main verb
Non-finite verbs	Exist in 3 forms: - Infinitive (e.g. 'to walk', 'to dance', 'to love') - Present participle (e.g. 'walking', 'dancing', 'loving') - Past participle (e.g. 'walked', 'danced', 'loved') DOES NOT inflect.
Finite verbs	Has a subject so can be the main verb. Inflects to show person, number or tense. Person- I walk, she walks Number- he walks, they walk Tense- you walk, you walked
Transitive verbs	A transitive verb is one which takes a (direct or indirect) object. A transitive verb is typically followed by a noun phrase. - E.g. Beethoven was judged best composer of the era.

	These contrast with copular verbs, as although these verbs may have a noun phrase after them, these are not held to be the direct objects, but rather the complements of these verbs.
Intransitive verbs	An intransitive verb is one which takes only a subject, and no (direct or indirect) object. - E.g. The sun has not yet risen.
Dynamic verbs	Refer to physical actions. - E.g. run, jump, laugh, take
Stative verbs	Refers to mental actions or states. - E.g. think, seem, anticipate
Passive voice	Clause construction where the subject is not the actor (they have had or are having something done to them).
Active voice	Clause construction where the subject is also the actor (they are doing or have done something to somebody/something).
Aspect	Reflects the way in which the action of a verb is viewed with respect to time. Progressive aspect- Action described by verbs is continuous or ongoing. Uses the suffix '-ing' on the end of a main verb to make a present participle. Present progressive: a dog is barking Past progressive: a dog was barking Future progressive: I will be going Perfect aspect- Used to show an action that started in the past and has been completed. Past perfect- (a.k.a pluperfect) describes something which happened before something else- a sequence of events. HAD + PAST PARTICIPLE Present perfect- implies a connection between a past event and the present, often referring to an action in the past which has an effect now. HAVE/HAS + PAST PARTICIPLE Future perfect- describe an action that will have been completed at some point in the future. Often used with a time expression which identifies that point in the future. WILL HAVE + PAST PARTICIPLE

SENTENCE ELEMENTS	
Basic sentence elements	1) Subject 2) Verb 3) Object 4) Complement 5) Adverbial Simple sentence = one clause
Clauses and simple sentences	SUBJECT + VERB (/verb phrase) (+OBJECT) Subject: Single word / short phrase e.g. 'Bees' or 'Britain's bees' OR More substantial phrase: e.g. 'Our much-treasured honey bees, so much part of our countryside'
Direct and indirect object	Direct object: thing acted upon by subject Indirect object: receives action 'Frog gave toad the fly' 'toad' = indirect object 'fly' = direct object
Adverbials	Used to identify where, when or how action happens. Don't necessarily contain adverbs. Can be formed from preposition + determiner + noun. - E.g. 'on the pond'
Complements	Gives more information about the subject or object. Usually requires the verb 'to be'. 'Frog was clever' 'clever' = complement
Sentence structures	Simple = one clause Compound sentence = two (or more) clauses w. coordinating conjunction Complex = two (or more) clauses (one subordinate) w. subordinating conjunction

	Compound-complex = at least one subordinate clause + coordinating clauses
Coordinate clause	Clause beginning with a coordinating conjunction.
Subordinate clause	Cannot stand alone as a complete sentence. Can remove conjunction and use non-finite verbs. e.g. 'DIGGING IN THE GARDEN, Charlie unearthed treasure' (sub. clause w. non-finite verb) Left-branching = fronted subordinate clause - a.k.a 'periodic sentence' (saves main clause until end)
Minor sentence	Phrase / subordinate clause to form 'grammatically complete' sentence - E.g. 'What a waste of time!'
Sentence types	Imperative: gives a command or request. - Begins w. verb, leaving out subject Declarative: a typical sentence that declares facts or opinions. - Usually, subject before verb Exclamatory: an excited statement. (not grammatically defined as a mood) Interrogative: asks a question. - Usually, subject after verb
DETERMINERS	
Determiners	Positioned in front of nouns to add detail or clarity about number/status. - E.g. 'a', 'the', 'some', 'most', 'any', 'all', 'my' Possessive determiners: my, your, his, her Indefinite articles: for unspecified object ('a' or 'an') Definite article: for specified object that speaker and listener know ('the')
OTHER	
Collocation	Two or more words that we habitually place together, creating a distinct meaning. - E.g. 'over the top'
High-frequency lexis	Words that appear often in everyday speech.
Low-frequency lexis	Not commonly used in everyday language, can be technical/specialist.

Hypernyms	Categories (e.g. pets, vehicles and sweets) are all hypernyms.
Hyponyms	Examples within categories (e.g. pony, truck and sherbet lemons) are all hyponyms.
Lexical field	A group of words with associated meanings and uses.
Lexis	Words and their origins.
Lexicon	The vocabulary of a language.
Nonce formation	'Nonsense' word created for special occasions.
Polysemic	Describes a word with more than one meaning (e.g. 'set' can refer to 'a set of cutlery', 'a tennis set', what happens to jelly and so on)
Polysemy	The coexistence of many possible meanings for a word or phrase.
Semantics	Meanings of words, both on their own and in relation to other words in the text.
Vernacular writing	Informal, non-standard writing.

SPOKEN LANGUAGE- TERMINOLOGY AND THEORIES

TERMINOLOGY	
Register	A variety of a language/level of usage, determined formality, vocab choice, pronunciation, and syntax, according to the communicative purpose, social context, and standing of the user.
Mode	Spoken/ written/ mixed
Idiolect	An individually distinctive style of speaking, which includes aspects of dialect and accent.
Dialect	A regional variety of a language distinguished by vocabulary, spelling, and pronunciation.
Sociolect	The variety of language that is typically used by the members of a particular social group
Isogloss	Divisions that linguists draw between regions according to different dialects.
Discourse	Study of spoken language
Paralinguistic features	Body language aiding communication - shrugging, facial expressions
Prosodic features	The stress, rhythm, and intonation along with tempo, loudness and voice quality of speech.
Turn-taking	In a conversation, nonverbal regulators indicate who talks when and to whom.
Adjacency pairs	Parallel expressions used across the boundaries of individual speaking turns. They are usually ritualistic and formulaic socially. For example 'How are you?'/ 'Fine thanks'
Back-channelling	Giving feedback through encouraging noises and positive comments.
Running repair	Process of socially organising a conversation if two people find that they have been talking simultaneously.
Interrupted construction	The breakdown of an utterance where half way through the speaker will completely change tact, focus or even topic and move onto something else, sometimes abandoning the original utterance mid word.
False starts	Speaker realises the beginning of an utterance isn't working and so effectively re-starts by rephrasing.
Hesitation indicators	Moments in discourse that indicate that the speaker is in some way playing for time.

	Stuttering and in fillers such as um, err and ahh .
Latched speech	Takes turn immediately after preceding speaker.
Overlapped speech	One speaker speaks over another.
Glottal stops	Plosive sound made by stopping and releasing the breath stream at the level of the glottis. i.e. omission of dental sounds in words such as 'butter'.
Non-fluency features	Anything which hinders the 'flow' of speech, for e.g. fillers and false starts.
Tag question	Strings of words normally added to a declarative sentence to turn the statement into a question. E.g. "It's a bit expensive round here, isn't it?"
Vocative	A direct reference to another speaker in discourse, e.g. "Bob, can you..."
Elision	Omission of unstressed vowels or syllables.
Code switching	Changing from one mode of speech to another as the situation demands, whether from one language to another or from one dialect of a language to another. Alter register.
Received Pronunciation	The dialect of English associated with the social elite.
Accent	Manner of pronunciation particular to certain geographical regions.
Pragmatics	Ways in which social conventions and implied meanings are encoded in spoken and written language.
Pragmatic failure	Where the meaning that is implied is not the meaning that is understood by the listener.
Discourse markers	Words, polywords, fixed & semi-fixed phrases which act as 'signals' to show the direction and organisation of discourse.
Repair	Self-correction mid utterance.
Filler	Sounds or words spoken to fill gaps in utterance.
False start	Speaker begins an utterance, then stops and either repeats or reformulates it.
Phatic language	Language whose purpose is to smooth the conduct of social relations. Interpersonal function.
Vague language	Words without precise meaning.
Deixis	The way language "points to" spatial, temporal, and personal features of

	the context. e.g.: YOU have been HERE for three weeks NOW.
Ellipsis	Omission of a word or phrase which is grammatically necessary but can be deduced from the context.
Hedge	Words and phrases which soften or weaken the force with which something is said e.g. 'perhaps', 'maybe', 'sort of', 'possibly', 'I think'
Idiom	A form of common non-literal expression.
Valediction	Expression of farewell.
Vernacular	Everyday regional language spoken by people.
Intrusion and interlinking	Two vowel sounds meet ==> insert extra sound which resembles: /a/ /j/ /w/ /or/ /r/
Schwa	Mid-central vowel in an unaccented or unstressed syllable. Sound of 'uh'. e.g. diff(e)rent, int(e)rest, sim(i)lar, t(o)night
THEORIES AND CONCEPTS	
Levinson Less than __% of speech is overlapped.	5%
Observer's Paradox	Labov Aware of observation so change linguistic behaviour.
Speech Act Theory	Austin & Searle Branch of pragmatics that suggests that when people communicate, they do not just say things, they also do things with their words.
Grice's Maxims	1) Manner- avoid being obscure/ambiguous + be orderly 2) Relevance- relevant to last speaker's turn 3) Quantity- informative as is needed and no more 4) Quality- do not say what you believe to be false/ lack inadequate evidence
Interactional and transactional language	Brown and Yule Interactional language: primary purpose of communicating to maintain social relations. Transactional language: aim of getting something done.

Labov's narrative categories	Typical discourse structure of a spoken story. **Abstract**: indication that narrative is about to start. **Orientation**: who, what, when, where, how. **Complicating action**: main body providing range of narrative detail. **Resolution**: final events; giving narrative closure **Evaluation**: additions to basic story to highlight attitudes or command reader's interest. (Can occur throughout) **Coda**: a sign that the narrative is complete. Might include returning to the initial frame before the narrative.
Accommodation theory	Giles **Convergence**: (upward/downward) speaker moves towards another speaker's accent, dialect or sociolect. **Divergence**: speaker actively distances self from another speaker by accentuating their own accent or dialect.
Face-threatening act	Behaviour by another that is perceived as attacking an individual's presenting image, or face.
Prescriptivism	The attitude or belief that one variety of a language is superior to others and should be promoted as such.
Descriptivism	A linguistic approach which focuses on language as it is, rather than how it should be.

RHETORIC- TERMINOLOGY

TERMINOLOGY	
Alliteration	Repetition of initial consonant sounds.
Allusion	Short reference to a familiar person, place, thing or event.
Amplification	Repeats a word or expression while adding more detail to it, in order to emphasise something.
Anadiplosis	Repeats one or several words that end one clause and begin another.
Analogy	Extended metaphor or long simile in which a comparison is made between two things in order to develop a line of reasoning. Analogy tends to be long and explains a thought process.
Anaphora	Repeats the same word or words at the beginning of successive phrases, or sentences, often alongside CLIMAX and PARALLELISM and using a TRICOLON.
Anastrophe	Department from normal word order for the sake of emphasis.
Antistrophe (aka Epistrophe)	Repeats the same word or phrase at the end of successive clauses.
Antithesis	Figure of balance in which two contrasting ideas are intentionally juxtaposed, usually through parallel structure; a contrasting of opposing ideas in adjacent phrases, clauses, or sentences.
Assonance	Repetition of a vowel sound within two or more words in close proximity.
Asyndeton	Omission of conjunctions between coordinate phrases, clauses, or words.
Chiasmus	A statement consisting of two parallel parts in which the second part is structurally reversed.
Climax	Arrangement of words or phrases in order of increasing importance or emphasis.
Diacope	Repeats a word or phrase after an intervening word or phrase.
Distinctio	An elaboration on a particular meaning of a word in order to prevent any misunderstanding or ambiguity.
Eponym	Substitutes for a particular attribute the name of a famous person recognised for that attribute.
Expletive	A word or short phrase that interrupts normal speech in order to lend emphasis to the words immediately next to it.

Hyperbole	Deliberate exaggeration for emphasis or effect.
Hypophora	Raising a question and then immediately providing an answer to that question.
Litotes	Particular form of understatement, generated by denying the opposite or contrary of the word which otherwise would be used.
Meiosis	A deliberate understatement (opposite of HYPERBOLE).
Metabasis	A brief statement of what has been said and what will follow.
Metanoia	Qualifies a statement by recalling it (or part of it) and expressing it in a better, milder, or stronger way. A negative is often used to do the recalling.
Metaphor	A figure of speech in which a word or phrase is applied to an object or action to which it is not literally applicable.
Parallelism	Figure of balance identified by a similarity in the syntactical structure of a set of words in successive phrases, clauses, sentences; successive words, phrases, clauses with the same or very similar grammatical structure.
Polysyndeton	The use, for rhetorical effect, of more conjunctions than is necessary or natural.
Praeteritio (paraleipsis)	Claiming to not mention or pass over something that one plans to say. The pretence of omitting something in order to emphasize it.
Scesis Onomaton	Emphasises an idea by expressing it in a string of generally synonymous phrases or statements.
Sententia	A figure of argument in which a wise, witty or well-known saying is used to sum up the preceding material.
Simile	A comparison between two different things that have something in common.
Symploce	Repeats the first and last word or words in one phrase or sentence in one or more successive ones, thereby combining ANAPHORA and EPISTROPHE.
Tricolon	Use of words, phrases, examples, or the beginnings or endings of phrases or sentences in threes.

LANGUAGE AND GENDER- TERMINOLOGY AND THEORIES

KEY:
M. = Men
W. = Women
F. = Females
Q = Questions
M-s = mixed-sex
S-s = same-sex

DOMINANCE APPROACH	In m-s convo. ⇒ M. dominant discourse M. interrupt and speak more due to cultural construction of gender in society. Lang choices reinforce male dominance if don't challenge and adopt gender neutral form
Pamela Fishman	1977- DOMINANCE Conversations between sexes often fail due to male response (/fail to respond). Women ⇒ more Q form; in studies, W. responsible for small-talk. Qs ⇒ conversational labour for social role.
Zimmerman and West	1975- DOMINANCE 96% interruptions in m-s convo. ⇒ MEN Highlights restricted ling. freedom of W. Sim. patterns in parents and children
Geoffrey Beattie	1982 Questioned Zimmerman and West's theory that men's interruptions = dominance. He said that it could be to show support and understanding, interest and involvement.
Dale Spender	1980- DOMINANCE Lang. embodies structures sustaining patriarchy and power. In research ⇒ women measured against men In folk linguistics ⇒ women measured against silence (M. pref. state for

	W.)
DEFICIT APPROACH	M. lang. seen as the norm. W's lang. = deficient
Otto Jespersen	1922- DEFICIT W. ⇒ - Talk a lot - Smaller vocab (words used are the 'indispensable small change of a language') - Novels written by W. easier to read + use fewer words - Know smaller vocab so well that more fluent and less hesitant in speaking than men (who search for precise words in vocab) - Fail to finish sentence as haven't thought through what to say - Link sentences w. 'and' as W. are more emotional than 'grammatical' - Use weak + empty adj. - Use adverbs too much and hyperbole - By virtue of their sex, 'shrink from coarse and gross expressions' - 'Preference for veiled and indirect expressions' (not as effective as M.) - M. responsible for bringing new words into lang. - Damaging effect on lang.
Janet Holmes	1992- DEFICIT Tag Qs maintain discussion/politeness (& = multi-functional) - FACILITATIVE / +ve politeness s. - SOFTENERS ⇒ support - COERCIVE device ⇒ security and forcefulness 1994- New Zealand W. ⇒ more compliments Mutual support (M ⇒ competitive (DIFFERENCE))
Robin Lakoff	1975- DEFICIT Women's discourse: - Tag Q => uncertainty

	- Hedges / fillers - Empty adj. ('divine') - Intensifiers - Precise colour terms - Standard grammar - More polite forms (euphemism) - Avoiding taboo lexis (weaker expletives) - Rising intonation on declaratives - Emphatic stress on certain words Social conditioning responsible for more deferential lang. use.
Jennifer Coates	1989- DEFICIT W. ⇒ epistemic modality to avoid FTAs w. other W. FEMALE COOPERATION
Holmes	DEFICIT More compliments ⇒ more politeness and solidarity than men.
William O'Barr and Bowman Atkins	1980- DEFICIT (lang. of courtroom) Lakoff's features did occur in W.'s speech BUT also in M. w. lower-class backgrounds Features due to power relations? Social status key variable in establishing dominance
Betty Dubois and Isobel Crouch	1975- DEFICIT M. ⇒ more tag Q than women Not suggested that less confident. (Consider function of tag Q)
DIFFERENCE APPROACH	M. and W. use lang. diff. due to diff. subcultures. Focuses on ling. achievements of W. Avoids blaming dominance of M.
Deborah Tannen	1992- DIFFERENCE M. use lang. to build status

	W. use lang. to build social connections Childhood ⇒ Parents use: - feeling words w. girls - verbs w. boys (Conditioned to belong to diff. sub.c.)
Tannen ⇒ 6 main DIFFERENCES	----M vs. W.---- Status vs. Support Advice vs. Understanding Information vs. Feeling Orders vs. Proposal Conflict vs. Compromise Independence vs. Intimacy
Ann Weatherall	2005- DIFFERENCE W. use more tag Q + hedging to support other speakers
Christine Howe	2013- DIFFERENCE M. had ling. strat. for gaining power. M. more likely to respond than provide back-channelling like W.
Konrad Kuiper	1991- DIFFERENCE Rugby team. All male convo ⇒ - pay less attention to need to save face - insults express solidarity DIFFERENCE in COOPERATION
Jennifer Coates	1998- DIFFERENCE All female talk is COOPERATIVE. - negotiate discussions support other's rights as speakers As pattern not in m-s discourse ⇒ Evidence of socio-cultural expectations + diff. in sub.c
Jane Pilkington	1992- DIFFERENCE W. s-s talk = MORE collaborative than M. s-s talk W ⇒ more politeness strat. M ⇒ less complementary and supportive

Deborah Cameron	DIFFERENCE Diff. approach ⇒ differential power not diff. lang use W. ⇒ compliments ⇒ raise social status and popularity
DIVERSITY APPROACH	Presents gender as just one aspect of identity amongst many, and reminds us that there can be as many differences between two women as between a man and a woman. Any differences are insignificant. - Exaggerated in the media - Those in positions of power talk more than those without power (Based on Deborah Cameron's *The Myth of Mars and Venus*)
OTHER THEORIES AND CONCEPTS	
Fairclough (addressing gender bias)	Changing language is not enough, we must also change society. Cameron agrees, calling non-sexist language a 'cosmetic change' which fails to reduce women's oppression alone.
Fairclough (sociolinguistics)	1989 Must consider how lang fits in with M. and F. social context, in particular, sociocultural power difference. Macro Factors.
Penelope Eckert	Need to look past gender as a reason for our language variation and use of standard and non standard forms and accept other factors such as class, the topic being talked about and who they are talking to.
Mills and Stanley	1977 (Stanley) 220 promiscuous terms for W 20 for M
Deborah Cameron (sexism)	'In the mouths of sexists, language can always be sexist'
Deborah Cameron (fears)	Belief that W. talk more than M. stems from fear that stereotypical differences between sexes are disappearing Ling. diff. not bio. but due to social conditioning.
Janet Hyde	Women speak 0.11% more than men. Social & cultural contexts underpin extent and style of discourse.
Folklinguistics	Attitudes and assumptions about language that have no real evidence to support them.
Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis	Linguistic relativism:

	- Diff. cultures interpret world diff. ⇒ lang. shows this - Word relativity ⇒ no natural way to label world (own perception) - Perception = relative + varies between cultures LANG ⇐ PERCEPTION Linguistic determinism: - Lang. affects how we think - Difficult to think outside of framework lang. creates for thoughts - Lang shapes society's perception LANG ⇒ PERCEPTION
Michael Halliday	Ideational metafunction (Systemic Functional Grammar) For analysing representation in texts. WHO? (ppts) (nouns and pronouns) WHAT? (processes, actions, states) WHEN, WHERE, HOW? (circumstances) (adverbs and prepositions)
Peter Trudgill	1974 M. in Norwich ==> more non-s form than W. despite social class. 'ing' ==> 'in' M. said used non-s even when didn't W. said used s. when actually used non-s CONCLUSION: Men deliberately adopt non-s for covert prestige
Gender in fiction	Actor: individual/entity responsible for action of verb process Affected: Person/entity affected by material action process. Verb processes- Material: actions/processes Mental: perception/ thoughts/ speech Relational: states of being
Edina Eisikovits	1998 (Teen talk, Sydney) Interconnection of age, gender and social class (macro factors) 2 groups; working class; aged 14-16 Younger of both sexes ⇒ non-s widely Older F. ⇒ less non-s

	Prestige of conformity Older M. ⇒ more non-s Covert prestige of rebellion
Jenny Cheshire	1982 (Supports Trudgill) Teen talk, Reading M. ⇒ - more non-s forms - explained by social network Denser network, lang. CONVERGES towards VERNACULAR ⇒ linguistic + social solidarity.
Esther Greif	1980 Both parents interrupt daughters more than sons. Father's interrupt more than daughters.
John Gray	Author of 'Men are from Mars, Women are from Venus' (1992) Argues M. & W. differ fundamentally in values, attitudes, thoughts, preferences & behaviours
Judith Butler	The Gender 'Performativity' Theory - Language is used to project an identity rather than reinforce gender stereotypes
TERMINOLOGY	
Marked term	Words ascribed less prestige than standard/unmarked form.
Overt marking	Marking that takes place through affixation or modification.
Covert marking	Marking understood because of social norms e.g. antonyms young and old 'young' = marked 'old' = unmarked
Semantic derogation	Sense of negative meaning / connotation that some lexical items have attached to them.
Semantic deterioration	Process by which negative connotations become attached to lexical items.

Overt prestige	Positive value assigned to language forms based on the value of the form in larger society. Dialect used by culturally powerful groups.
Covert prestige	High social status through use of non-standard forms
Standard English	Social dialect; academic and work success; middle/upper class users.

OCR A LEVEL ENGLISH LANGUAGE

YEAR 2 (Year 13)

SECTION C

CONTENTS:

LANGUAGE AND TECHNOLOGY- TERMINOLOGIES AND THEORIES

LANGUAGE IN THE MEDIA- TERMINOLOGY AND THEORIES

LANGUAGE CHANGE- TERMINOLOGY AND THEORIES

CHILD LANGUAGE ACQUISITION- TERMINOLOGY AND THEORIES

LANGUAGE AND TECHNOLOGY- TERMINOLOGIES AND THEORIES

Electronically mediated communication (EMC)	All forms of communication using digital devices. Synchronous communication: at the same time e.g. A face-to-face conversation Asynchronous communication: delay between utterance and response. e.g. Responses posted on a forum, which may occur months or even years after the original post
Plasticity	Opposite of fixity; screen text is not permanent but subject to alteration, remodelling or combination.
Initialism	An abbreviation consisting of initial letter pronounced separately. E.g. C.D
Acronym	Made up of the first letter of more than one word, where letters are pronounced as a word.
Abbreviations	Shortened versions of words or phrases.
Contractions	The shortening of words or phrases by blending two or more together, often involving an apostrophe. E.g. wasn't
Phonetic spellings	Words spelled the way they sound.
Homophonic representation	Single letters and numbers represent sounds of words. E.g. M8
Variant spelling	Deliberate non-standard spelling for effect.
Taboo language	Language perceived as unacceptable in polite discourse.
Affordances	Linguistic and behavioural choices provided by technology. E.g. answer a text message whenever you like
Constraints	Things that technology does not allow. E.g. facial expression (...However, technology is always changing and improving)
Elizabeth Eisenstein	Personal and social change are afforded possibilities by technology.
Susan Herring	'Greater persistence of digital English over speech heightens users awareness of the language they use and this may encourage language play'
Hamilton and Barton	Refer to blogs and other forms of everyday writing as "vernacular

	literacy practices". Their informal register facilitates the mimicking of colloquial language.
Carrington	Linguistic compression in SMS. People tend to use vowel deletion, phonetic spelling, initialism and letter and number homophones in SMS.
Tim Shortis	Notes that text messaging is often explicitly related to face-to-face conversation, commenting on past interactions or anticipating future ones. He develops this with the idea that while fast, the interaction is "not in real time", which leaves time for participants "to construct a considered response" between "communication turns".
Norman Fairclough	Computers imitate human interaction (for example, 'are you sure?'). He also highlights that computers allow you to 'take turns', mimicking human interaction (for example, using a drop down menu for your turn).
Christopher Werry	In internet chat people use more letters than necessary to imitate speech or semantic nuance (for example "nooooooo"). He also suggests that text and email are like talk as people take turns and it's informal.
John Sinclair	Compressed English when communicating using technology, particularly text and internet communication. Sinclair relates this communication to being similar to the way that small ads are written.
David Crystal	Found that communications through various forms of technology often use minor or elliptical sentences (for example radio commentary).
Technology and language change	<u>Word structure and formation</u> Loans; shifts; composites; shortenings; blends Word origin can reveal significant underlying power in culture. - Language of technology reflects influence of USA (where most tech originates) - Blur between traditional and loan words and semantic widening - Technology leading to cultural imperialism that privileges English over other languages?
	<u>Linguistic recycling</u> - Common for metaphorical images and idiomatic expression to fuel language of technology - ‘Reboot’ only entirely new word created by technology - Creating new connotations e.g. ‘mouse’
	<u>How new words come into the language</u>

	Implementation; diffusion; codification
Representations and technology	<u>Marketing/commercialism vs. functional role</u> - English preferred language in global market - Informalisation: second-person pronouns, 'public colloquial' - Distortion in presentation of technology; communication shaped to sell - Advermation: tension between neutral and descriptive and dramatic persuasive (use of evaluative verbs, comparative/superlative forms, metaphorical language) - Anthropomorphism of technology
	<u>Google, Microsoft, iPod</u> Traditional distinction between generic terms, hyponym categories and product names replaced by competing discourses
Technology and identity	<u>Psycholinguistic approaches</u> - Virtual identities/ audiences - Traditional constraints of time, space and boundaries challenges/ overcome
	<u>Digital records</u> Privacy: data reserves created with limited access

	Sociolinguistic approaches
	User representation and underlying ideologies
	- Technophiles, stereotypes and amelioration?
	Covert prestige and subcultures
	- Taboo breaking
	- oppositional
	- Sub-cultural value
	- Elaborate overstatement (ROTFLOL)
	- Creation of specialist vocabulary for social purpose; relexicalise words and over-lexicalisation
	  - Patterns of humour
	  - Metaphor
	  - Insider reference
	Jargon and exclusion
	- Jargon acting as shibboleth; showing membership of a group
	- Categorise exclusive language e.g. hacker slang

Canonical sequence (for telephone calls)	Schegloff (1986) **Summons/answer** Opening channel of communication ↓ **Identification (and/or recognition)** Which may be necessary for non-face-to-face communication ↓

	A greeting sequence Initiating shared space ↓ **Phatic/ 'how are you' sequences** Strengthening shared space
Telephones	<u>History</u> 1890-1930 Candlestick Late 1980s Caller ID Early 2000s Flip phones 2007- Apple releases first iPhone
Blogs	<u>History</u> 1994: first blog by Justin Hall ('Links.net.'- a personal homepage) 1997: term 'weblog' coined by Jorn Burger 2002: First blog search engine ('Technorati') 2003: TypePad (hosts blogs for BBC) and WordPress created <u>Types of blogs</u> Personal: writer's experience and daily life Business: commerce (products and services) Affiliate: reviewing products and making tutorials Niche: very particular subject matter

Text messaging	<u>History</u>
	SMS (short message service)- 81% of mobile phone subscribers
	- Hillebrand and Ghillebaert (1984)
	- 160 characters
	- Updates and alerts
	  - Natural disasters
	  - Finance tracking
	  - Booking
	  - Updates
	  - Communicating with friends
	First text message: "Merry Christmas" (Neil Papworth). As phones did not have keyboards, typed on computer first.
	Multitap ⇒ T9 (Text on 9 keys) in 1990s (Kushler)
	1997: Nokia produces phone with keyboard
	
	<u>Language</u>
	NON-STANDARD FORMS
	- Phonetic spelling e.g. 'ur'
	- Homophones e.g. 'u'
	- Replacing words with numbers e.g. '2'
	- Use of both numbers and letters e.g. 'gr8'
	- Symbols '@'
	SOCIOLECT

	- Youth sociolect IDIOLECT - Abbreviation/ specific text language GRAMMAR - Ellipsis e.g. 'Hope you're OK' - Contractions e.g. 'don't' - Informal register - Personal pronouns - Shorter, simple sentences - Declarative for information; imperative for issue; interrogative for quick response; exclamatory overused and intense emotion (replacing prosodic?) PRAGMATICS - Sarcasm e.g. 'brilliant' - Full stops indicative of anger - Multiple question marks to indicate confusion/ frustration e.g. 'No it isn't???' PARALINGUISTICS - Emoticons PROSODIC FEATURES - Capital letters e.g. GO AWAY (shouting) - Punctuation e.g. lots of exclamation marks (!!!!!) to suggest a rise in tone/ intonation. GILES' ACCOMMODATION THEORY - Divergence - convergence BROWN AND LEVINSON'S POLITENESS THEORY - 'Would you mind' and 'is it okay' instead of imperatives (hedging)
Email	<u>History</u> 1965: 1st email at MIT 1988: 1st email program released 1994: First case of business-related spam mail 1998: 4 trillion emails, 107 billion letters 2002: 8 billion emails sent each day 2004: 'lol' added to OED 2007: Gmail available for public usage - Structural elements of 'to' and 'from' resemble traditional letter - Usage in line of communication gradually eliminated
Instagram	<u>History</u> Created by Kevin Systrm and Mike Krieger; owned by Facebook; launched in 2010. - Originally single photo - Portmanteau of 'instant', 'camera' and 'telegram' - 2019: 1 billion users

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Record message to convert to written discourse
More frequent use of emojis
Asterisk used for correction

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<tr><td>Online news</td><td>
<u>History</u>
1690s: Print newspapers
1970s: Teletext (A news and information service in the form of text and graphics, transmitted using the spare capacity of existing television channels to televisions with appropriate receivers.)
1997: BBC news online launched
Microfiche, now online archives.
2007: 20% of adults use the internet to access news
2007: Apple release iPhone
2012: 47% read news online
2013: 55% read news online
Why a surge in online consumption?

Proliferation of smartphones and tablets
High-speed internet access
Apple-led app revolution

72% of 25-34 year-olds likely to read news online
<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">General conventions of sub-genres</th></tr>
<tr><td>Tabloid article</td><td>Broadsheet editorial</td></tr>
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Use of sensationalism to engage readership and preference for ‘diversions’ (eg. sport, scandals and popular entertainment) that attract public interest.
Tone is highly personalised to the text producer; reporters are opinionated
Absence of objectivity and analytical reasoning
Juxtaposition of reality and fantasy to arouse interest in readers (and potentially mislead them too)
Use of headlines, headings and subheadings- typically dramatised by lexical choices to give a sensationalist angle.

Exclamatory; puns; alliteration; assonance; cliche; euphemism;

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Primary devotion to economics, politics and society (timely news angle); informative purpose
Professional manner of addressing topic manifests formal register
Use of headlines, headings and subheadings
Majority of readership likely to be well educated and of greater social authority
Use of passive voice to maintain academic register
Less biased; refrain from using persuasion/

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<td>expletives; metaphor; rhyming; slang
● Interlinks closely with visual, graphological features
● Active voice frequently used</td>
<td>manipulating a reader's view in an extreme, sensationalistic manner.
● Cohesive; concise summary offering editor's opinion
● A sense of audience
● Use of rhetorical devices to inform, potentially prompting further thought from reader (agreement/ disagreement)
● Use of quotations; subtle mixing of fact and opinion</td>
</tr>
</table>

Effect on communication:
● Unidirectional communication medium (?)
● Extent of interaction
● Immediacy of communication
● Reception of news on social media platforms
● Opportunity for niche audiences
● Accessing readership in competitive industry

Research:
- Role of internet in spreading misinformation
- Social media as a platform for news
- Ideologies, bias and variation between platforms

CONCEPTUAL METAPHOR
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<td>Snapchat</td>
<td>April 2011: Reggie Brown ⇒ 'ephemeral' messaging social media platform
2013: Snapkidz
2014: Videos can be sent
2015: 1 free replay
2019: 190 million users

Fragmented (mimics nature of spoken discourse)</td>
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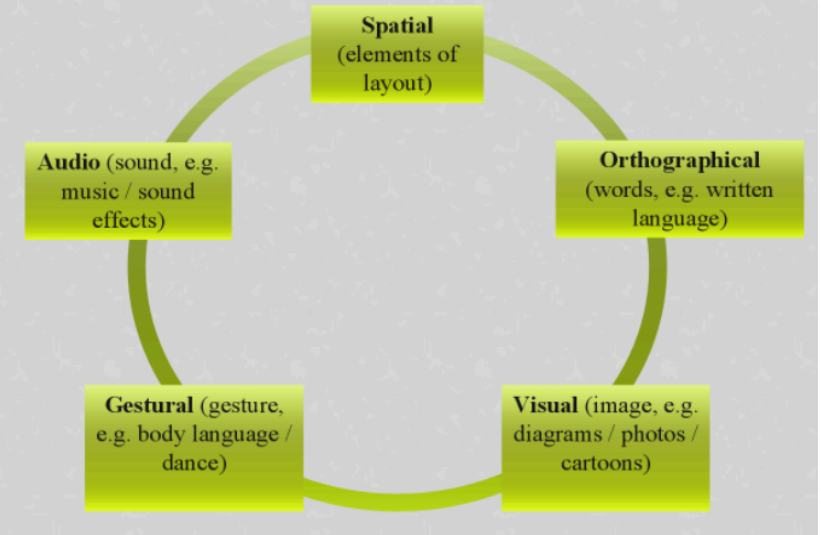
LANGUAGE IN THE MEDIA- TERMINOLOGIES AND THEORIES

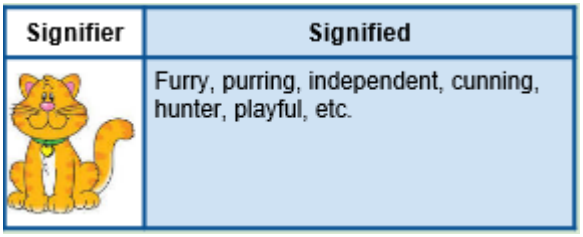
Semiotic systems	 Non-verbal features (or signs) creating meaning (semiotics) - Complementing, contradicting or questioning (relationship between systems)
Synthetic personalisation	Norman Fairclough Imagined reader (identity created) = implicitly persuasive - Often has particular values/ attitudes Imposing ideology as an assumption is made that the viewpoint is shared, yet context of reception may not match context of production. Illusion of relationship disguises non-existent relationships. - Pseudo-interactivity creates artificial conversational tone Fairclough claims that all text carry social and cultural values - Choice of products mentioned conveys values Ideal reader: readership the writer writes for (Fairclough)
Stages of synthetic personalisation	1) Building relationship (personal pronouns, cultural references, informal lexis) 2) Manipulating member's resources (the reader's cultural and cognitive understanding of the world; cultural references) 3) Building consumer (into ideal receiver of ideological message)
Ideational metafunction	Michael Halliday For analysing representation in texts. WHO? (ppts) (nouns and pronouns)

	WHAT? (processes, actions, states) - Material (actions) - Mental (perception and speech) - Relational (identification- 'being' or 'having') - Behavioural - Verbal - Existential WHEN, WHERE, HOW? (circumstances) (adverbs and prepositions)
Power types	Wareing Instrumental power or influential power - Consider influential power in media texts and manipulating the reader's ideologies (linking to Hall's reception theory)
Metaphor (theory)	Fairclough Sees use of metaphor as being attached to ideologies
Reception theory (Encoding and decoding)	Stuart Hall (1981) Media texts encoded with values and messages by text producers. Received in different ways. Dominant/ preferred reading: Agree with the ideology Negotiated reading: Neither agree nor disagree Oppositional reading: Don't agree with message Text producer promotes dominant ideology, encoding views with the intention of the audience interpreting (decoding) as preferred/intended reading. (Consider representations of power in language and how different audiences read the same representation)
Elizabeth Eisenstein (1979)	Personal and social change are afforded possibilities by technology. - E.g. The text producer and text receiver have the opportunity to share this article if they wish to continue addressing the discourse topic
Manifest intertextuality	Fairclough

	Refers to explicitly demarcated references and has the function of manifesting others' ideas in discourse.
Graphology	Study of written or printed symbols and of writing systems
Bias	Prejudice in favour of or against an idea, person or group, expressed through language, images etc. Obvious or implicit. Can arise from what is omitted or what is stated/shown. - Credibility of source?
Representation	Language used to present impression of ourselves, or of an event, company or institution to the wider world. - Media not as a reflection but as a construction - Subjective - Relationship between reader, writer and topic Analyse almost as a continuum. Different representations in the text. Overall positive or negative? (Consider bias)
Infographic	A graphical format which can also be animated to display information (e.g. in mini blogs)
Facticity	Ways in which the media represents people/ events truthfully. The quality of being fact.
Assemblage	Overall effect of signs
Anchorage	Media use another piece of media to reduce polysemy of accompanying text. - E.g. captions with pictures
Tenor of discourse	Linguistic ways in which the writer shows their position in relation to the reader.
Affordance	Linguistic and behavioural choices provided by technology (Consider constraints too.)
Represented participants	Representational metafunction. - How visual communicate messages RPs = people that the image represents
Exophoric references	(Linguistic pragmatics) Reference to something extralinguistic, i.e. not in the same text - Can be deictic

LANGUAGE CHANGE- TERMINOLOGY AND THEORIES

Dictionary of the English language (1755)	Dr Samuel Johnson Milestone in lexicography ● Offered 40,000 words ● STANDARDISATION- rise of traditional grammar in 18th c. ● Prestige from incorporation of Latin rules ● Used English writers from 1570-1666 as evidence for definitions ● Subjective approach, stemming from rejection of French in the later period - Spoken language of 18th c. 'ordinary' people judged as inferior by standards (class attitudes)
Standardisation	Making all varieties of language conform to the standard language.
Mixed-mode	Features of printed text combined with features expected in conversation.
Diachronic change	Study of historical language occuring over a span of time
Synchronic change	Study of language at a theoretical point in time without the historical context.

Semiotics and signs	Ferdinand de Saussure
	
	Language is 'arbitrary'.
	
	● Semiotic approach; saw language as a structured series of signs with meanings
	  ● Signifier: sign
	  ● Signified : meanings and mental associations drawn from the sign
	Example:
	Signifier 'cat' is made up from three verbal signifiers /c/, /a/, /t/.
	
	
	All words have signifiers/ connotations. These can change over time (e.g. wicked).

	Indexical sign: signifier often has causal or associative relationship with the signified. - E.g. man and woman sign for toilets.

	Iconic sign: signifier resembles the signified. - E.g. Nelson's column itself is an iconic representation of the famous navy commander.
	Paradigmatic relationship: the way different words or language items can be chosen to play a particular part in a language structure
	Syntagmatic relationship: the way different words or language elements can be combined to make language structures
FACTORS DRIVING LANGUAGE CHANGE	
Migration, travel, the British Empire and globalisation	People moving to different parts of the world and take their language and culture with them. ● Introduced language (English in the case of British Empire) can be become dominant in colonised countries- especially language of power and government ● India still use language as language of administration Lexical borrowing accommodates new foods and cultural experiences ● 'Curry' and 'tea' (anglicised words) Globalisation: ● Latter part of 20th century (easier to travel abroad) ● Further developed into world language- impact of technology and American English ● E.g. Marks and Spencers synonymous with ideas about Englishness
Wars and Invasions	Norman conquest (brought Latin) ● Invading Germanic tribes over 1000 years ago ● Strong impact on grammatical, phonological and lexical development ● English has larger number of synonyms due to invasions ● E.g. 'ask' from Old English, and 'question' from French influences post-1066 Language of warfare today: ● 'Collateral damage', 'surgical strike'
Science and technology	18th and 19th centuries ● Neologisms needed ● Latin and Greek- academic prestige- e.g. 'biology', 'chloroform', 'centigrade' Recycle words and use words of a higher status- such as Latin and Greek for medical inventions. (Bovine Spongiform Encephalopathy)

Trade, working practices and new inventions	Occupations and technological developments have changed English ● Neologisms required ● E.g 'Dishwasher'; 'internet' (international network)

Social, ideological and cultural changes	Changes in attitudes ⇒ language alterations
	
	● Older texts ⇒ different views about certain groups
	● Lexis changes to accommodate changing views about acceptability of some language use
	  ● Less disrcimination against certain groups
	  ● **Political correctness**

Media	More colloquial and speech-like register has evolved. 'BBC English'- now more regional dialogue accepted and present. New lexis introduced via media to describe contemporary society to persuade us of a certain view. ● Acronym WAG ● Popular press use hyperbole and abbreviation to create journalistic style Modern media is highly interactive. ● Choice of channels ● Blogs- individuals can report on events and opinions from where they live ● Social networking facilitates personal communication between strangers
Jean Aitchson	**Damp-spoon syndrome:** Language changes because people are lazy. This view presupposes that one type of language is inferior to another.
	Crumbling castle view: Language is like a beautiful castle that must be preserved. However, language has never been at a pinnacle and a rigid system is not always better than a changing one.
	Infectious disease assumption: Bad language is caught like a disease from those around us and we should fight it, but people pick up language because they want to, perhaps in order to fit in with certain social groups. (Link to covert prestige).
Prescriptivism	Values purity of language, assuming higher value for one form of language than another.

Descriptivism	Believes change is necessary and inevitable; attempts to describe variation and explain factors accounting for differences.
STANDARDISATION	
Milroy and Milroy (1999)	Suggest the process of standardisation is 'an idea in the mind rather than reality'. Many linguists suggest there is an ideology (public perception) that believes in need for unchanging, protected language that provides a benchmark against which all other language forms can be measured/valued. (Linguists don't believe this ideology.) Change is driven by ideological and practical needs (i.e. susceptible to change under social conditions).
Why is language standardised?	- Printing allowed convention of spelling and grammar to evolve - Desire to stabilise, fix and codify- grammar books - Political and social reasons - Technological advances- codify and create rules - Attitudes and values (i.e. prescriptivism)
Who is responsible?	- Teaching and educational standards, decided by government - Media and politics concerned with literacy standards - Notion of fixing language to rules of past
Einar Haugen	<u>Model of the process of standardisation</u> **Selection**: a variety of language to be selected ↓ **Codification**: dictionaries and grammar refer to uniform lexical and grammatical features which informs a standard language ↓ **Elaboration**: the standard is applied to a range of functions which allow it to be used more widely ↓ **Implementation**: the standard is imposed and variations of the standard are removed or ascribed low prestige
Elaboration (Haugen's model)	- Users of the standard language may need to create and extend new lexical and grammatical constructions to suit different, emerging contexts - Renaissance (15th to 17th c.): some English authors favoured an increase in the lexicon of English to replace Latin- previously considered the language of literature. - English adopted as the literary language - Prestigious badge of national identity - Expansion of polysemy to ensure that English could provide sufficient words to describe every idea.

	- 1500-1700 estimated that 30,000 new words or neologisms added

Emerging standardisation	- Gradual over centuries, enabled by print technology
	- Establishing particular dialect (SE) for printed text
	  - Assisted by lang change in Early Modern English and Renaissance (mid 14th c. to 17th c.- inspired by classical age)
	- 18th c. - start of Late Modern English
	  - No double negatives
	  - Not ending with preposition

Key texts	1755: Dr Johnson, *A dictionary of the English Language* 1762: Robert Lowth, *A Short Introduction to English Grammar* 1794: Lindley Murray, *English Grammar* 1884: First 'fasicle' of the *OED* 1926: Henry W. Fowler, *Modern English Usage*
19th century standardisation	- Mass education forced 'ideal' standards in written English - Focus on standardising written English - Distance between spoken and written - Constant conflict between desire for stability and purity, and the reality of the present world.
Obsolete	No longer in use.
Archaic	Dated usage.
Shakespeare	- Turned nouns into verbs - Imposed language change - Changed verbs into adjectives - Hyphenated compounds - Added prefixes and suffixes to effect semantic shifted E.g. prefix 'un' transformed new meaning to verb 'friended' (King Lear describes his daughter, Cordelia). Technology has afforded a parallel elaboration ('unfriended' on social media).
LEXICAL CHANGE	
Creating new words	- Borrowings - Adapting existing words (using morphology) - Create completely new words (neologisms, coinage)
Factors	- Invasions of Anglo-Saxons and Vikings from 5th c. onwards brought from Germany and Scandinavia - Norman invasion (1066) brought French - Mixed w. Latin words from religious sources and educated

	readers
Borrowing/ loan word	Introduction of a new word from one language to another; can be Anglicised or remain similar to original spelling and punctuation. - E.g. Anglicised: chocolate (from French, 'chocolat')
Eponym	Name of person after whom something is named. - E.g. Sandwich, Braille
Proprietary names	Name given to product by one organisation becomes the commonly used name for the same product. - E.g. Tampax, Hoover
Acronym	A lexicalised word made up from the initial letters of a phrase (sounded as a word) - E.g. RADAR, NATO
Initialism	A word made from initial letters, each being pronounced. - E.g. CD, CCTV
Clipping	A new word produced by shortening an existing one. - E.g. 'Edit' from 'editor'
David Crystal	Popularity of abbreviating words linked to our liking for 'linguistic economy'.
Morphological derviation	Process of creating a new word out of an existing one (see terms below).
Affixation	Addition of bound morpheme to existing words. - E.g. 'debugging'
Prefixes	Addition of bound morpheme to beginning of root word. - E.g. 'mega'
Suffixes	Addition of bound morpheme to the end of a root word. - E.g. 'radical(ising)'
Conversion	A word changes its word class without adding suffix. - E.g. 'trolls', 'text'
Compound	Combining two seperate words to create a new word. - E.g. 'log on'
Backformation	Removal of an affix from an existing word. - E.g. 'Editor' becomes 'edit'
Blend	To words fusing together to make one. - E.g. 'Oxbridge'
GRAMMATICAL CHANGE	

18th c.	Formal style with complex sentences, multiple subordination and embedded clauses. <u>Influences:</u> Standardisation Hierarchical and formal society with emphasis on conventions and rules Writing valued as separate from speech
19th c.	Grammatical formality still evident, although sentences less complex than in the 18th century. <u>Influences:</u> Continuing standardisation Changes in class attitudes Beginnings of universal education Dialectal voices represented in literature (for example, Dickens)
20th/21st c.	Simpler syntax and coordination, including minor and simple sentences, more popular in media / advertising. Non-standard spelling and punctuation used in text / email form. <u>Influences:</u> Worldwide and American English Technology Social levelling and equality Oral language / forms affecting writing styles Growing informality Growth of entertainment and leisure industries
Examples- Key features	- **Negation**: constructing a negative in the 18th century is unlike the modern use of **dummy auxiliary** verb 'do'. Examples here are 'no very uncommon occurrence', 'I know not', 'for windows we have none', 'Italians seem to me to have no feeling of cold'. - **Syntax**: in this text the syntax differs from modern usage, for example with 'certain it is' the complement comes before the main subject and verb and in 'continues still' the adverb comes after the verb. - **Pronouns**: Piozzi's choice of 'one a little' employs a pronoun that we now view as archaic and representing a Received Pronunciation (RP)-type accent. - **Prepositions**: choices seem odd, such as 'at London' instead of 'in London'. - **Contractions**: lack of contractions throughout the text seems

<table>
<tr><td></td><td>noteworthy for example ‘while I am starving’ would be more likely to be presented today using a contraction. This could connote a more formal style or a change in practice in later Modern English to adopt more conversational tones in writing.

Examples from Austen:<table><tr><td>He told me in our journey… / She was small of our age</td><td>Prepositions</td></tr><tr><td>She say you to the day? / She doubted not...</td><td>Auxiliary verbs</td></tr><tr><td>It is nothing of a part... / To be taken into the account...</td><td>Articles</td></tr><tr><td>Fanny shrunk back / and much was ate...</td><td>Irregular verbs</td></tr><tr><td>I am so glad we are got acquainted. / So you are come at last!</td><td>Tense usage</td></tr><tr><td>The properest manner... / The richest of the two...</td><td>Comparative / superlative</td></tr><tr><td>Will not it be a good plan? / It would quite shock you … would it not?</td><td>Contracted forms</td></tr><tr><td>I stood for a moment, felling dreadfully / It is really very well for a novel.</td><td>Adverbs</td></tr></table></td></tr>
<tr><td>Punctuation</td><td>- Enhances the complexity of text for modern audience
- Majority of sentences compound or complex
- Multi-clause sentences with colons and semicolons joining runs of connected sentences.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Literary texts of 18th, 19th and 20th c.</td><td>- Sentences longer, with embedded clauses and phrases, but these have become simpler
- Using more subordinate clauses, influenced by Latin, became a fashionable way to make discourse more elaborate and display one’s learning.
- Style continued into late Modern English, but perhaps has been reversed now with many writers adopting a simpler style.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Modern day speech practices and the boundaries between modes</td><td>- Adverbs are being replaced by adjectives - for example, ‘you’ve done great!’
- Prepositions - bored of / down to / talk with
- Irregular verbs are still altering - for example, ‘I’ve wrote it down for you.’
- Pronouns - ‘whom’ is disappearing as the object pronoun, being replaced by ‘who’.</td></tr>
</table>

Nominalisation	Use of verb, adjective or adverb as head of noun phrase. Two types found in English: - **Derivational suffix**- used to create nouns. E.g. the verb 'concentrate' becomes a noun using the suffix '-ation' - **Zero derivation**- some verbs and adjectives can be used without derivational suffix.
Active voice	Creates a more subjective register. - Facilitates bias and description rather than analysis of the scientific concept.
Passive voice	Adoption of passive voice rather than active voice in presenting written scientific enquiry. - Distinct change from the 17th to 21st century. Passive voice can be used to create a more objective register: - Agent can be absent - Bias and emotion not always evident
Devon English and present tense	Use of third person '-s' on all forms. - 'I eats', 'You eats' etc.
Harris (1993)	Irregular verb system underwent change since the Old English period. - 18th c. simplified further in both literary and vernacular English - Recently: reversal of regularization of verbs took place in Standard English, not in non-Standard English - S.E. currently uses more irregular verbs than many dialects.
Trudgill (2002)	Language change influenced by low status dialects. - E.g. simplification of irregular verbs and their influence on Standard English. - In some areas, the past participle of the verb 'to do' is used in place of the past tense in spoken English: 'I done that'. - Possible that this might emerge as a standard form in the future if the majority of users adopt this form.
Labov (1994)	Language changes in two distinct ways. - Recognises the change that originates unconsciously from low social groups. - Also identifies the role of conscious change imposed by socially powerful groups.

Cheshire and Milroy (1993)	Non-standard forms of English were not codified or standardised into a norm, they underwent different processes of language change that resulted in more regular forms. - E.g. negative form 'weren't' is regularized for all subjects in the Outer Banks area of North Carolina, USA.
Tagliamonte et al.	Changing use of 'must'. 'Must' as term of obligation declining, while other meanings such as drawing conclusions used frequently. Obligation: "you must clean your room" Conclusions: "you must be exhausted" Early as 15th c. role of 'must' challenged by 'have to', currently replaced by 'got to'.
General additional changes	- Subjunctive- mood of verb implying uncertainty regarding action. - 'Whom' declining in usage
CODIFICATION	
Noah Webster	"Language is the expression of ideas; and if the people of one country cannot preserve an identity of ideas, they cannot retain an identity of language"
Dr Samuel Johnson	"Tongues like governments have a natural tendency to degenerate: we have long preserved our constitution, let us make some struggles for our language"
SEMANTIC CHANGE	
Semantic drift	A process of linguistic change over a period of time.
Amelioration	A word takes on a different, more positive, meaning than it had previously, thereby gaining status. - 'Pretty' from sly to attractive
Pejoration	Word takes on a different, more negative, meaning than it had previously, so losing status. - 'Idiot' from private citizen to someone being stupid
Weakening	Word loses its original meaning. - 'Soon' from immediately to in a short while
Narrowing (specialisation)	A word becomes more specific in its meaning. - 'Meat' from any food to flesh of animal
Broadening (generalisation)	Word keeps its original meaning but acquires others.

<table>
<tr><td></td><td>- ‘Place’ from broad street to an area</td></tr>
<tr><td>Semantic shift</td><td>Occurs when words expand, contract, and then settle for new meaning very different to original.
- Political correctness- redress linguistic bias</td></tr>
<tr><td>Archaism</td><td>Old word or phrase no longer in general spoken or written use.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">IMPLEMENTATION OF STANDARD ENGLISH (HAUGEN)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Implementation
(Final stage in creation of standard)</td><td>IMPLEMENTATION
- Language used in a range of written texts, particularly educational media and government
- Creates elite status from Standard English

15th c.: Caxton’s printing press
- Powerful influence in spread of south-east dialect
1526: Tyndale’s Bible
- Most influential in embedding specific words and phrases
1611: King James Bible
- Implementation of words and phrases still used today
- Crystal (2010)- 257 commonly used from KJV, but used in multitude of different, often non-religious, contexts.
18th c.: Rise in newspapers
- Print implementing standard form</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">ORTHOGRAPHICAL, SPELLING AND PUNCTUATION CHANGE</td></tr>
<tr><td>Orthography</td><td>The study of the use of letters and the rules of spelling in language.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Key orthographical change</td><td>Caxton’s printing press had major influence- technology afforded codification of spelling. Modern technology has also meant that spelling constantly changes.

<table>
<tr><td>Century</td><td>Practices</td><td>Influences</td></tr>
<tr><td>18th</td><td>Long ‘s’ used initially and medially, but short ‘s’ used at end- pattern left from OE.
Spelling becomes regular, though often still idiosyncratic.</td><td>Long ‘s’ used until 1800, replaced by short ‘s’. As didn’t have phonological function, phoneme didn’t need a different grapheme.
Printing practices had to be individually set.
Dictionaries.</td></tr>
<tr><td>19th</td><td>Consistent, standardised spelling evolving.</td><td>Increasing standardisation.
Availability of dictionaries and drive for more literate society- schooling offered</td></tr>
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<tr><td></td><td></td><td>to all children.</td></tr>
<tr><td>20th/ 21st</td><td>Standardised spelling rules. Non-standard have become more extensively used.</td><td>Educational practices and government interventions. Emergence and development of information and computer technology- texts and instant messaging.</td></tr>
</table>
</td></tr>
<tr><td>Phonological reasons for orthographical change</td><td>Written word needed to accomodate sounds of English and words from other languages.

- Modern silent ‘-e’ evolved from old inflectional endings where sounds pronounced to show word’s function.
- Middle English- terminal ‘-e’ key feature often at end of words where now omitted (e.g. ‘roote’, ‘soote’)
  - Linked to Middle English pronunciation? Died out in Early Modern as no longer sounded.
- Other sounds became silent despite written: ‘b’ in ‘mb’ clusters and ‘l’ in ‘lk’ clusters.
- Noah Webster, American Dictionary of the English Language (1828)- didn’t consider differences in American and English pronunciation. Dictionary attempted to define American linguistic and nationalist identity, but spellings purely visual, not mirroring speech differences.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Technological reasons for orthographical change</td><td>Late Modern English- technological advances driven graphological opportunities.

Now choose non-standard forms depending on medium (e.g. messaging) , audience (e.g. friends) and function (interactional).
- Advertising: non-standard send message about product
  - E.g. ‘Beanz Meanz Heinz’, ‘finger lickin’ good’
- 15th c.: Caxton printing press facilitated mass printing- standardisation
- Early Modern English (1440-1700)- printing
  - Uniformity not initially important
  - Wanted to fit neatly on line so began to drop letters such as terminal ‘-e’
  - Added letters as paid by number of letters</td></tr>
<tr><td>Changing punctuation</td><td>Grammatical and rhetorical function: separates clauses, and gives weight to points we wish to make.
- Caxton use the period (.), colon (.), oblique stroke (/) (called the virgule, now known as slash). Oblique stroke replaced by comma in 16th c.</td></tr>
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<tr><td>Punctuation symbol</td><td>18th and 19th c. texts</td></tr>
<tr><td>Comma, colon, semicolon</td><td>Used liberally to link extended clauses. Fullstops used in place in contemporary writing.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Apostrophe</td><td>Shows possession and contraction. Omission of vowel signified by apostrophe: ‘work’d’.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Speech marks</td><td>Denote speech. Digital texts in 21st c. often use speech without speech marks.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Contraction</td><td>Proclitic contractions (e.g ‘tis’ and ‘twas’ gradually changed to enclitic contractions by end of 18th c.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Ampersand (&)</td><td>Extensive use of 18th and 19th c.; seen as too informal in 20th c. Increased usage through medium of written texts- informal register.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Capitalisation</td><td>Late Modern English- capital letters standardised. 18th and 19th c. text capitals applied on any noun felt important.</td></tr>
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</td></tr>
<tr><td>Discrete</td><td>Separate, distinct, apart or detached from others.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Discreet</td><td>Being unobtrusive or respectful of privacy or a delicate matter.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Changing capitalisation</td><td>Late Modern English- began to follow rules we use today as 18th c. grammarians felt system needed.

Early Modern English- capital letters used, as now, at beginning of every sentence and proper name. Also used rhetorically for personified and abstract nouns.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Herring (2007)</td><td>Users shape digital media according to factors they can both afford and constrain.
- Can manipulate mobile phone technology to send text messages, but constrained by small screen and potential cost of texts.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">CHANGES IN SPOKEN LANGUAGE</td></tr>
<tr><td>Thomas Sheridan
(Actor and educator)</td><td>1762: wrote ‘A Course of Lectures of Elocution’
- Argues that pronunciation of the court is of higher value than the pronunciation used in other accents.
- Views on elite London accent were very popular, triggering the</td></tr>
</table>

	publication of large number of elocution books
Peter Trudgill (1983)	Defines Standard English as the 'dialect of education'. - 19th c. witnessed emergences of prescribed 'educated accent'.
Reasons for phonological change	Jean Aitchson Change as a natural tendency occuring in all languages. Reasons: - Ease of articulation - 'Mobile' instead of 'mobile phone' - Social prestige and changes in society
Informalisation	The way in which language is becoming increasingly formal in all areas of society.
Received pronunciation	Alexander Ellis (1869) Define RP as 'a standard of pronunciation which should be acknowledged and followed throughout countries where English is spoken'.
Giles and Powesland (1975)	Perception of different accents.
Anne Fabricius (2002)	Changing structure of RP in former public school students. Glottal stops no longer pejorative. - Most marked from London students; London as source of linguistic innovation and change.
Peter Trudgill (2002)	Continuation of discrimination towards less socially prestigous accents- reflects class divisions.
Cameron (2000)	Employers and examiners commented on 'poor communication skills' of people 'because they used non-standard grammar' or had 'broad accents'.
Estuary English	David Rosewarne coined 'Estuary English' during 1980s. - Mix of 'ordinary' London and southern-easten accents with RP. - Conforms to SE grammatically and lexically, but has distinct phonology - Used by speakers from all regions Key features: - Glottal stops (foo'ball, Ga'wick) - 'L' vocalisation, where 'w' sound replaces 'I'
Dialectal levelling	Common non-standard features from different dialects converge with the effect of an overall reduction in the variation or diversity of features in one or more dialects.

Coupland (1988)	Identifies the following features that have moved into common use as a result of this process: - Multiple negation - 'Never as a negative in the past tense - 'Them' as a demonstrative determiner - Plurals not signified - Use of 'good' as an adverb in addition to its use as an adjective, 'the boy did good' - Omission of preposition - Modification of reflexive pronoun
Conversationalisation	'Shifting boundaries between written and spoken discourse practices, and a rising prestige and status for spoken language'. ● Many linguists see this informalisation and personalisation of language in today's language use and credit spoken language with driving changes in the written mode.

Dennis Freeborn	- **Incorrectness view**: all accents are incorrect compared to Standard English and the accent of RP.
	  - Freeborn refutes this, citing evidence that accent's popularity originates in fashion and convention
	  - RP became standard because of the social prestige, rather than being more correct than correct than any other variety
	
	- **Ugliness view:** some accents don't sound 'nice'.
	  - Seems to be linked to stereotypes and negative social connotations, especially as ghd least-liked accents seem to be found in poorer, urban areas.
	
	- **Impreciseness view:** Some accents are described as 'lazy' and 'sloppy', such as Estuary English, where sounds are omitted or changed.
	  - Freeborn offers the glottal stop as an argument that some sound changes are logical and governed by linguistic views.

Eye dialect	Dialectal representations of speech have developed in prose throughout Late Modern English.
David Crystal (On the future of the English Language)	In the future, people will adopt bidialectalism and will switch between two dialects of English: - Regional dialect - International variety used to communicate with English speakers across the world.

LANGUAGE DEBATES	
Historical opinions on language change	<u>14th c.:</u> Worried English was changing because of the French influence (brought over as the language of the ruling classes when the Normans invaded in 1066), fearing that English would disappear as a distinctive language. <u>16th c.: Early Modern English</u> Some upset that writers and scholars borrowed words from Latin, Greek and other European languages to name inventions and ideas. - Others saw this as a criticism of English vocabulary, calling the new words 'inkhorn' terms (presumably because they were associated with scholars). <u>18th c.:Age of prescriptivism</u> Many writers proposed that an Academy of English be set up to establish the rules of English usage, although this never happened. - Main fears: speed of change; lack of official control over change; writers' disregard for grammar and spelling. <u>20th/21st c.: Greater informalisation</u> - Fewer distinctions made between spoken and written mode. - Non-standard forms of English (such as dialects or text language) are valued. - Debates centred on society's attitudes towards language used about specific groups -- notion of politically correct English. - Other altered attitudes are to the use of taboo language: contrast television programmes of the 1950s with the language allowed on television now. - 20th c. marked the popularity of the descriptivist attitude to language change among linguists. - Other influential members of society (the government and the media) often offer prescriptivist ones.
Ann Fisher	Book title uses pre-modifier 'bad'- immediately sets the tone- prescriptive standpoint. - Emphasises that it is a guide to speaking and writing 'properly' and 'correctly', both adverbs describing the appropriate manner of communication with 'properly' repeated to describe the right stresses ('accent') to be placed on spoken words. - To modern readers, phrasing seems odd- aspects of style, grammar and lexis have changed since 1780 ('connect words aright'), but 'right' links with the adjective 'true' applied to spelling and the notion of correct language that runs through the opening of her textbook.

John Ash	Reveals 18th c. gender and class attitudes to language study. - Both 'Ladies' and 'young Gentlemen designed merely for trade' are singled out as benefiting from this book about practical English. - Pragmatic assumption is the value placed on 'the learned languages' (Latin and Greek) for higher-class men. - Phrase 'intimate acquaintance' makes the learning of English sound highly personal and easier to acquire for the types of people studying this than 'a smattering' of Latin. Not explicitly prescriptive view, but it is suggested in the nouns ('properties', 'beauties').
David Crystal	Defensive of grammar study, using negative words ('unpopular' and 'uncertain', 'old-style grammar') to describe people's attitudes to studying it, suggesting that for many English seems to have lost its 'value'. - Post-prescriptive view- people's fear and dislike of grammar ('dread', 'disaster') may be rooted in their educational experiences of being taught it. - This formal teaching was exactly what the 18th and 19th centuries wanted to achieve in order to 'prescribe' the teaching of 'proper' grammar. 19th c. school practices. Crystal discusses people's enjoyment of words and word-games and uses adverbs ('socially', 'educationally') that could be compared with some of the benefits that Fisher and Ash saw. Arguably, Crystal does not take a descriptive attitude himself here but talks about other people's responses to grammar. - By acknowledging their feelings rather than imposing his solution seems to be a descriptivist stance.
Tridialectalism	*Rediscover Grammar*, by David Crystal Tridialectal future for us, an extension of bidialectism, where people use their national standard and a regional dialect. Three dialects in various situations: - Regional dialect- at home - Standard English- for work, pleasure and travel around Britain - World Standard English- travelling around world
Changing attitudes and contexts	- Political correctness

	- Different formality levels- changed relationship with audience - Technological development have polarised views over past 10 years, reviving prescriptivist and descriptivist debates.
John Humphrys	*'I h8 txt msgs: How text messaging is wrecking our language'* Daily Mail (September 2007) - Views about text-speak, and his disappointment with the OED for taking hyphens out of words because they think people don't have time to use them.

CHILD LANGUAGE ACQUISITION- TERMINOLOGIES AND THEORIES

PHONOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT- TERMINOLOGY	
Phonetics	The study of the sounds of speech.
Phonology	The study of patterns and systems of sounds in a particular language.
Phoneme	Smallest unit of sound. - E.g. Bat has three phonemes; b-a-t
Syllable	A single unit of speech or subdivision of a word. - Usual construction: consonant(s) + vowel + consonant(s)
Monosyllabic	Consisting of one syllable.
Polysyllabic	Consisting of more than one syllable.
Prosodic features	Non-verbal aspects of speech such as tone, intonation and stress.
Onomatopoeia	When the sound of the word echoes its meanings.
Alliteration	When two or more words begin with the same sound.
Assonance	When the vowel sounds in the middle of two or more words are similar.
Dissonance	When the vowel sounds clash with one another, producing a discordant effect.
Addition	Adding an extra syllable. - E.g. ‘Dog’ becomes ‘doggie’
Deletion	Final consonants may be dropped. - E.g. ‘t’ sound in ‘hat’ and ‘cat’ **Consonant clusters** may be reduced. - E.g. ‘Snake’ becomes ‘nake’
Omission	Feature of deletion- unstressed syllables are often deleted. - E.g. ‘Banana’ becomes ‘nana’
Assimilation	A sound that occurs elsewhere in the word is borrowed. - E.g. ‘Gog’ for ‘dog’
Substitution	Exchanging harder sounds with easier ones. - E.g. ‘Th’ in ‘that’ or ‘there’ becomes ‘d’, ‘n’ or ‘f’
Reduplication	Repetition of a sound/syllable. - E.g. ‘Choo-choo’
De-voicing	Process of taking the voice out of /b/ to produce /p/. Babies prefer de-voicing at the end of words. - E.g. ‘Pig’ becomes ‘pik’

Voicing	Occurs at the beginning of words and the baby is more likely to voice an unvoiced consonant. - E.g. 'Pig' becomes 'bik'
Stops (degree of stricture)	Complete closure at some point in the vocal tract. Air pressure builds up behind the closure and is then released explosively. - E.g. Plosives 'b', 't' and 'p'
Fricatives (degree of stricture)	Close approximation between two organs so that the movement of air between them causes audible friction. - E.g 'f', 'z' and 's'
Approximates (degree of stricture)	(Vowel-like) Open approximation- same articulation as vowels, but classified with consonants on functional grounds. - E.g. 'r' and 'y'
Stages of development	<u>Vegetative (0-4 months)</u> Sounds of discomfort or reflexive actions. E.g. coughing, burping, crying, sucking - Birth cry (undifferentiated) and vocal communication through crying (differentiated) <u>Cooing (4-7 months)</u> Comfort sounds and vocal play using open-mouthed vowel sounds. E.g. grunts and sighs become vowel-like 'coos', laughter starts, hard consonants and vowels produced, pitch (squeals and growls) and loudness (yells) practised. - Vocalising pleasure and displeasure - Self-initiated vocal play - Vocally expresses eagerness - Produces single syllables <u>Babbling (6-12 months)</u> Repeated patterns of consonant and vowel sounds. Sounds linking to own language, reduplicated sounds ('ba-ba') and non-duplicated sounds (variegated) such as 'agu'. - Double syllables (VCV); puts lips together; nasal tone is heard - Use of m, n, t, d, b, p, y in babbling multiple syllables - Babbles tunefully- singing tones, shows pitch and inflection change - Inflected vocal play- intonations patterns heard - Imitates intonation and speech sounds in his/ her own repertoire <u>Proto-words (9-12 months)</u> Word-like vocalisations, not matching actual words but used

	consistently for the same meaning. E.g. using ‘mmm’ to mean ‘give me that’ with accompanying gestures such as pointing, supporting the verbal messages. - Vocalises during play - Vocalises to mirror - Jabbers loudly- wide variety of sounds and intonations - Most sounds (consonant and vowels) in vocal play- beginning phonetic drift - May acquire first true word
GRAMMATICAL DEVELOPMENT- TERMINOLOGY	
Free morpheme	Base words that can stand alone. - E.g. ‘tolerable’
Bound morpheme	A morpheme that can appear only as part of a larger expression. - E.g. ‘in-’ in ‘<u>in</u>tolerable’
Proto-word	An invented word that has a consistent meaning.
Holophrase	A single word that expresses a whole idea or utterance.
Content word	Also called a lexical word, a type of word that has an independent ‘dictionary’ meaning. Likely to be learnt first.
Function word	A word whose role is largely or wholly to express a grammatical relationship. This might include prepositions and determiners.
Productive vocabulary	The words a person is able to use either in speech or writing.
Receptive vocabulary	The words a person recognises/ understands and is likely to be larger than their productive vocabulary.
Overextension	Widening the meaning of a word so that it extends to apply not just to the actual object but also the other objects with similar properties or functions.
Stages of development	<u>One-word/holophrastic (12-18 months)</u> One word utterances. - 50% of all utterances are nouns - Mean length of responses is one or two words <u>Two-word (18-24 months)</u> Two words combined to create simple syntactical structures. - Follows directions using one or two spatial concepts- in/on - Negation used in the form “no” (no bed) - Possessive emerging (Daddy car) - Refers to self with pronoun and name (me Tommy) - 33% of utterances are nouns

	- Combines two words into phrase (approximately 2 years) in noun + verb or noun + adjective format - Mean length of response is 1.8 words <u>Telegraphic (24-36 months)</u> Three or more words joined in increasingly complex and accurate orders. **24-30 months:** - Articles appear in sentences - Present progressive "ing" on verbal - Regular plural forms emerging (cat-cats) - Uses in/one correctly - Irregular past tense emerging - Uses come contractions in memorised form (don't, can't, it's, that's) - Appropriate use of at least two pronouns - Asks basic basic questions (Daddy gone?) - Understands concept of first and second person pronouns (I, you) - 25% utterances are nouns, 25% verbs - Mean length of response 3.1 words **30-36 months** - Auxiliary "is/am + ing" (girl is running) - Regular past tense verbs appearing (walk/walked) - Uses "s" for possession (Daddy's car) - Uses pronouns- I, me, you, mine (he, she and it emerging) - Negative "not" emerging - Uses contracted form "is" (he's running) - Adverbs of location emerging (here, there) - Begins to use do, can and will (emerging future tense) - Uses Imperatives (commands: go get it, don't) - Understands "est" adjective marker - Comprehends third person pronouns - 20% nouns, 25% verbs; average response length 3.4 words - Infinitive complement emerging (I want to play) <u>Post-telegraphic (36+ months)</u> Increasing awareness of the grammatical rules and irregularities. - Beginning to use "is" at beginning of questions - Third person singular present tense(s) emerging (he runs) - Contracted forms of modals (won't can't) - Irregular plural forms emerging (child/ children) - Uses "are" with plural pronouns (boys are running) - Uses "and" as conjunction - Regular plural forms are consistent

	- Uses is, are, am in sentence
CONCEPTS AND THEORIES OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION	
Nature or innateness theories	Humans are born equipped with the ability to acquire language. - Chomsky and Piaget
Nurture or input theories	Humans acquire language through experience. - Skinner and Bruner
Jean Berko-Gleason	<u>'Fis'/'Fish' theory</u> We might be able to understand more words audibly than we are actually able to produce. This is known as a 'conceptual understanding'. 1958: Discovered that children were able to provide plural of 'wug', the name of an imaginary creature, even though they had never heard the word before.
Katherine Nelson (1973)	Identified four categories of children's first words: - Naming (e.g. Jasper, Mummy) - Actions/events (e.g. Jump, cuddle) - Describing/modifying things (e.g. Nice, hot) - Personal/social words (e.g. No, please) 60% of first words are nouns. Verbs second. Modifiers third.
John Dore	<u>Functions of language</u> **Labelling**: Naming or identifying a person, object or experience **Repeating**: Echoing something spoken by an adult speaker. **Answering**: Giving direct response to an utterance from another speaker. **Requesting action**: Demanding food, drink, toys, assistance etc. **Calling**: Attracting attention by shouting. **Greeting**: Giving sign of welcome or recognition. **Protesting**: Objecting to requests. **Practising**: Using and repeating language when no adult is present.
Michael Halliday	<u>Functions of language</u> **Instrumental**: Language used to fill the speaker's need. **Regulatory**: Used to influence the behaviour of others.

<table>
<tr><td></td><td>Interactional: Used to develop social relationships and ease interaction.

Personal: Used to express personal preferences and the speaker’s identity.

Informative: Used to communicate information.

Heuristic: Used to learn and explore the environment.

Imaginative: Used to explore the imagination.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Pamela Grunwell</td><td><u>Phonological sequence</u>

<table><tr><td>Age</td><td>Phonemes</td></tr><tr><td>24 months</td><td>Mainly plosives and nasals: p, b, m, d, w, t, n</td></tr><tr><td>30 months</td><td>Mainly plosives: k, g, h, ŋ</td></tr><tr><td>36 months</td><td>Mainly fricatives and laterals: f, s, j, l</td></tr><tr><td>42 months</td><td>Mainly affricates and fricatives: ʧ, ʤ, v, z, r, ʃ</td></tr><tr><td>48+ months</td><td>Fricatives: ʒ, ð, θ</td></tr></table></td></tr>
<tr><td>Lawrence Schriberg</td><td><u>Phonetic acquisition</u>
Schriberg's 3 orders of speech sound acquisition:

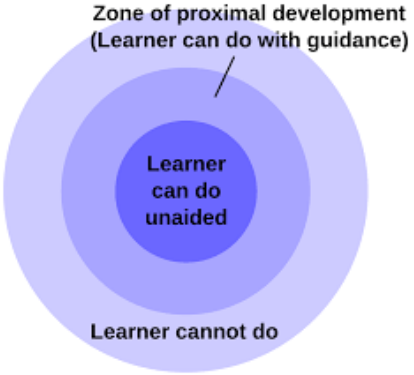
- Early 8: M B J N W D P H
- Middle 8: T NG K G F V TCH DG
- Late 8: SH TH S Z L R ZH</td></tr>
<tr><td>Leslie Rescorla (1980)</td><td>Categorical overextension: confusing a hypernym (broad category e.g. fruit) with a hyponym (specific example e.g. apple).

Analogical overextension: associating objects which are unrelated but have one or more features in common (e.g. same colour).

Predicate overextension: conveying meaning that relates to absence (e.g. saying ‘cat’ when looking at an empty cat basket).

Underextension: when the meaning ascribed to a word is narrower than the meaning it has in adult language use; using a hyponym instead of a hypernym (e.g. using the word ‘cat’ instead of ‘pet’)</td></tr>
</table>

Jean Aitchison (1987)	**Labelling**: the process of attaching words to objects; as the child learns more about the world their capacity to connect words with an increasing range of objects grows. **Packaging**: in trying to ascertain the boundaries of the label the child sometimes confuses hyponyms giving rise to over- and under-extensions. **Network building**: having labelled objects, children start to identify connections between them, recognising similarities and differences.
B.F. Skinner	<u>Behaviourist imitation theory</u> Operant conditioning - Language is learnt through imitation - Reinforcement through rewards from parents (positive and negative reinforcement)
Noam Chomsky	<u>Universal grammar theory</u> Children have an innate understanding of grammar which speeds up their learning of native language when they hear it. Examples of language fit into LAD. ● Aided by Language Acquisition Device (LAD) (McNeill)- an unconscious mental model of how language works.
Eric Lenneberg	<u>Critical Period theory</u> The human brain is designed to acquire language at a certain time and once this has passed normal language development is no longer possible. - See the Genie case study
Jean Piaget	Children are active learners ● Can't be taught before ready ● Use environment and social interactions to shape language Sensorimotor Stage- Up to 2 years ● Uses senses ● Classifies objects ● Concrete lexis ● **Object permanence** (understand that something exists, despite it not being in the field of vision) ↓ Pre-Operational Stage- Age 2-7 years ● **Egocentric speech** ● Language and motor skills develop further

Jerome Bruner	<u>Social Interactionist Theory</u> Adults act as Language Acquisition Support System (LASS) ● Companion to LAD External support of: ● More knowledgeable others ● Reinforcement ● Child Directed Speech (CDS) ● Environment ● Social routine Conversation skills and pragmatics learnt through interaction with adults.
Lee Vygotsky	Zone of proximal development ● Scaffolding (from more knowledgeable others) 
Ursula Bellugi	**Summary of theory 1:** She concluded that there are stages in a child's development of forming negatives: ● Stage 1: 'No' is either placed at the beginning or the end of a sentence. ● Stage 2: 'No' is in the middle of a sentence and next to the verb. ● Stage 3: The use of contractions such as 'don't' and 'can't'. ● Uses 'do not' and 'cannot' correctly. All negatives are formed correctly and accurately. **↑Each stage has its own distinct grammar↑** **Summary of theory 2:** She also found that there were similar stages in a child's formation of questions: ● Stage 1: Use of intonation to express a question being asked. ● Stage 2: The use of question words such as 'what' 'where' and after these 'why'. ● Stage 3: Changing the syntax to create more detailed questions.

	Summary of theory 3: Stages of pronoun formation Children struggle with using determiners such as 'a' and 'the' in utterances. The two types of pronouns are subjective (used as the subject of sentences) and objective. • Stage 1: Uses their own name • Stage 2: Recognises 'I' and 'Me' • Stage 3: Uses pronouns according to whether they are the object or subject.
Katherine Garvey	Investigated play and language acquisition, finding that children adopt roles and identities as required in a role-play scenario. - Fulfils Halliday's imaginative function and children also practice social interactions and negotiations This is known as **'sociodramatic play'**.
Eve Clark	Eve Clark's study of first words (1977) found that children base overextension on: - The physical qualities of objects - Features such as taste, sound, movement, shape, size and texture i.e. 'more moon' for stars. Uptake of new words in conversation (2007): Children repeated new words about twice as much as they repeated utterance information from ordinary conversation. There is a difference in the function of repetition between new words and new information. Children are aware of new words, and rely on the introduction of them using the deictic frame. E.g. (This) is an + owl (Here) is a + whisk
Roger Brown	<u>Morphological Development</u> Used to understand and predict the path that language development takes. Mean length in utterances (MLU), which is the number of morphemes (smallest unit of meaning) toddlers can produce. Stages: 1. Present tense progressive 2. Prepositions 3. Plural noun endings 4. Possessive 5. Determiners 6. Regular past tense ending 7. 3rd person singular regular past tense

	8. Auxiliary verb
Michael Tomasello	"Children begin to acquire language when they do because the learning process depends crucially on the more fundamental skills of joint attention, intention-reading and cultural learning"
Child Directed Speech (CDS)	**Exaggerating prosodic cues**: using more exaggerated intonation patterns and slightly higher frequencies, greater pitch variations. **Recasting**: phrasing sentences in different ways, such as making it a question. **Echoing**: repeating what the child has said. **Expansion**: restating what the child said in a more linguistically sophisticated form. **Expatiation**: expounding further on the word by giving more information. **Labelling**: providing the name of objects, using simplified vocabulary. **Over Articulating**: using more precise sounds contained in the words, stretching out sounds, sounding out 'super-vowels'.
	<u>Phonology</u> ● Separate phrases more distinctly; longer pauses ● Speak more slowly ● Exaggerated intonation- emphasis on keywords; differentiating questions, statements and commands ● Higher and wider range of pitch
	<u>Lexis and semantics</u> ● Concrete nouns and dynamic verbs ● Adopting a child's own words for things (diminutive forms- e.g. 'doggie') ● Frequent use of child's name and fewer pronouns ● Restricted vocabulary
	<u>Grammar</u> ● Simpler constructions (more simple sentences, fewer complex and passives) ● Frequent imperatives ● Frequent repetition ● Personal names instead of pronouns (e.g. 'Mummy' instead of 'I')

	● Fewer verbs, modifiers and adjectives ● More frequent one-word utterances (holophrase) ● Deixis to direct attention ● Parallelism ● Omission of past tenses, inflections (plurals and possessives) ● More commands, questions and tag questions ● Expansion ● Recasting
	<u>Pragmatics</u> ● Paralinguistic features (welcoming and indicative no verbal communication) ● Fewer utterances per turn- frequently stopping to allow response ● Supportive language (expansion and re-castings)