

ENGLISH A2 NOTES

Tables and notes that apply to both sections

Word classes

Word Class	Description / function	Example
Noun	Names of objects, feelings, attitudes, people and places.	Cottage
Verb	Shows actions, events or states of being, feelings or thinking's.	Seems
Adjective	Adds details to nouns.	Bleak
Adverb	Adds detail to verbs or other adverbs.	Extraordinarily

Sentence mode

Sentence mode	Feature	Structure	Example
Declarative	Telling / Statement	S + V	Before Easter, she had driven over to a development in Fife.
Interrogative	Asking	V + S	Is it done yet?
Imperatives	Inviting, Demanding	V + C	Look at the evidence.

Common Discourse structures in written texts

Discourse structure	Key features	Examples
List / Instruction	Logical progression through stages, use of imperative verbs to instruct, guide.	Recipes, instructions, guides.
Problem – solution	Identifies a problem.	Product advertisements.
Analysis	Breaks down key ideas into constituent parts. Evaluates and explores.	Academic articles, newspaper editorials.
Narrative	Details a series of events can be chronological, or non-chronological.	Novels, witness accounts.

Pragmatics

The factors that influence the choices that the speakers and writer's make in their language – why we choose to say one thing rather than another.

For example, a sign when entering Heathrow airport – ‘Heathrow zoo’

Language and Power

- Political power – power held by those with the backing of the law. E.g. that held by politicians, the police and those working in the law courts.
- Personal power – power held by individuals as a result of their roles in an organization. E.g. teachers and employers.
- Social group power – power held as a result of being a member of a dominant social group. Such as. Class, gender and age. Typically white, middle-class men hold positions of power.
- Instrumental power – power used to maintain and enforce authority.
- Influential power – power used to influence or persuade others.
- Power in discourse – the ways in which power is manifested in situations through language.
- Power behind discourse – the focus on the social and ideological reasons behind the enactment of power.
- Ideology – a set of beliefs, systems, attitudes or a world view held by an individual or groups.
- Epistemic modality – Constructions that express degrees of possibility, probability and certainty. E.g. ‘shall’, ‘will’, ‘is’.
- Deontic modality – Constructions that express degrees of necessity and obligation. E.g. ‘may’, ‘must’.
- Synthetic personalisation – The way in which advertising and other forms of communication use personalised language such as the second person pronoun ‘you’ to construct a relationship between text producer and receiver.
- Members resources – The vast amount of background knowledge and information that readers use to interpret texts and which may be explicitly drawn upon by text

producers. Text producers will use verbal and visual cues to evoke knowledge, behaviour and lifestyle frames.

- Power asymmetry – A marked difference in the power status of individuals involved in discourse.
- Unequal encounter – An alternative term for asymmetrical, highlighting the power one speaker has over another.
- Powerful participant – A speaker with a higher status in a given context, who is therefore able to impose a degree of power.
- Less powerful participants – Those with less status in a given context, who are subject to constraints imposed by more powerful participants.
- Constraints – Ways in which powerful participants may block or control the contributions of less powerful participants, for example, through controlling content or interrupting.
- Formulation – The rewording of another's contribution by a powerful participant to impose a certain meaning or understanding.
- Face – A person's self-esteem or emotional needs.
- Positive face – The need to feel wanted, liked and appreciated.
- Negative face – The need to have freedom of thought and action and not feel imposed on.

All types of power:

- Power in written texts – exert written power to apply restrictions on and to persuade their readers.
- Power in advertising – draws attention to product, invited to become of it. Is seen as ideological power. Synthetic personalisation.
- Powerful and less powerful participants – many times there is a marked different in status of individuals involved in discourse.
- Politeness in conversation – idea of face.

- Power and politics: rhetoric and persuasion – used by politicians to persuade and influence their listeners.

Language and Gender

- Sex – biological differences between male and female.
- Gender – the difference in behavior and roles that are a result of social expectations
- Socialisation process – a process by which individuals behaviours are conditioned and shaped.
- Actor – the individual or entity responsible for the action of a verb process.
- Affected – the person or entity affected by a material action process.
- Marked form – that which stands out as different from a norm.
- Unmarked form – the measured norm, against which marked lexical items can be compared.
- Covert marking – marking that is understood, for example, in the antonyms young and old, young is the marked, old the unmarked term.
- Overt marking – marking that takes place through affixation or modification.
- Stereotyping – assigning a general set of characteristics to a group as a whole, often with negative connotations.
- Semantic derogation – the sense of negative meaning or connotation that some lexical items have attached to them.
- Semantic deterioration – the process by which negative connotations become attached to lexical items.
- Folklinguistics – attitudes and assumptions about language that have no real evidence to support them, for example, in the assumption that women are generally more 'chatty' or prone to gossip than men.
- Covert prestige – a form of high status given to non-standard forms.

- Tag question – a group of words that turn a declarative into an interrogative, for example, “It’s cold” becomes “It’s cold, isn’t it?”

A sexist language?

Lexical items used to describe females often stand out to distinguish them as different from the norm which distinguishes them from those used to describe males.

- Marked expressions – lexical items used to describe females are often marked to distinguish them from those used to describe males.
- Generic items – use of masculine pronouns as generic pronouns when the gender of the referent is unspecified is generally no longer considered acceptable.
- Stereotyping – Involves assigning a basic set of characteristics to represent a group as a whole.
- Semantic derogation – terms that are reserved for use when referring to women, have a strong negative connotation to them when compared to the corresponding term used to refer men.

Language and Technology

- Summons / answer – a sequence that opens the channel of communication on the telephone.
- Identification / recognition – a sequence in which speakers identify themselves to each other.
- Greetings sequence – a series of turns designed to initiate a shared social space.
- ‘How are you’ sequence – examples of phatic talk that maintain the social relationship before the main business of the telephone call commences.
- Pre-closing sequences – signals that one (or both) speaker wishes to end the conversation.
- Metatalk – talk that draws attention to the act of talking itself.
- Phatic speech acts – turns designed to maintain a sense of corporation or respect for the other speaker.
- Valediction – an item that acts as a farewell.

- Textspeak – the language (in terms of both lexis and grammar) used by those sending text messages on a mobile phone.
- Vowel omission – leaving out vowel sounds in Textspeak and other electronic communication.
- Homophonic representation – the use of single letters and numbers to represent words based on a similarity in sound.
- Phonetic spelling – a spelling that represent the sound of a word as opposed to its conventional spelling.
- Initialism – an abbreviation that uses the first letter of a group of words and is pronounced as individual letters.
- Acronymy – the process of abbreviating uses the first letter of a group of words but , unlike an Initialism, an acronym is pronounced as a single word.
- Variant spelling – deliberately non-standard spelling for effect.
- Prosodic features – paralinguistic vocal elements of spoken language used to provide emphasis or other effects.

A method for analysing conversation

Method	Questions
Lexis / semantics	What kind of register is adopted? Are particular lexical fields present according to the topic of conversation? Are there examples of technical or inclusive language?
Grammar	What kinds of sentence constructions are used? Are there instances of elliptical structures, deictic expressions, discourse markers (including skip connectors and false starts)?
Discourse structure	What is the overall discourse structure? How are openings and closings manages? How are turns and larger exchange structures managed and controlled? Can longer contributions be explained?
Pragmatics	To what degree are aspects of shared knowledge present between speakers? Do contributions adhere to conversational maxims and ideas about speaker support and cooperation?

	Are politeness strategies used to preserve face needs? To what extent are linguistic constraints applied by the presenter and / or the nature of the phone-in?
Phonology	Are there prosodic features present such as tone, intonation and stresses? (not that these may not be easily recognised from a printed transcript.)

Child Language Acquisition

Notes

How important is context?

- Who participates? (One or speakers, gender)
- What relationship exists between the speakers? (family members, friends, carer and child, teacher and student)
- What is the setting? (Domestic, nursery, local environment etc.)
- In what development stage is the child? (age)
- What other factors might affect the data? (cultural influences such as books, television, social experiences)

Features of child directed speech:

- Repetition and / or repeated sentence frames
- A higher pitch
- The child's name rather than pronouns
- The present tense
- One-word utterances and / or short elliptical sentences
- Fewer verbs / modifiers
- Concrete nouns – e.g. table / bottle
- Expansions and / or recasts
- Yes / no questioning
- Exaggerated pauses giving turn-taking cues.

Tables

Common key features of spoken discourse

Discourse feature	Description	Examples
Back-channelling	Attention or agreement	Mmm, yeah, OK
Discourse markers	Shift in conversation	OK, right then, so, but
Fillers	Pauses in speech	Er, um

Hedging	No clear answer	Kind of, sort of, maybe
False starts / repairs	Starts, pauses and recommences Returns to correct previous sentence	It began er.... He sorry she broke
Skip connectors	Returning back to previous conversation to move on	Anyway, coming back...
Fixed expressions	Routine expressions – metaphorical	As a matter of fact, basically, at the end of the day
Vague expressions	Non-specific	Anything, something, thing
Ellipsis	Miss out words – economical purposes	Just seen jack (I've)
Tag questions	Request for clarification	You did really well, didn't you?
Deixis	Spoken discourse	I, you, they we
Non-fluency features	Non-verbal occurrences	Pauses / hesitations

Lexical and grammatical stages of development

Stage	Features	Approx. age (months)
Holophrastic / one-word	One-word utterances	12 – 18
Two-word	Two-word combinations	18 – 24
Telegraphic	Three and more words combined	24 – 36
Post-telegraphic	More grammatically complex combinations	36 +

Early phonological errors

Term	Explanation	Examples
Deletion	Omitting the final constant in words	Do(g), cu(p)
Substitution	Substituting one sound for another (especially the 'harder' sounds that develop later, such as j)	'pip' for 'ship'
Addition	Adding an extra vowel sound to the ends of words, creating a CVCV pattern	e.g. doggie
Assimilation	Changing one consonant or vowel for another (as in the	'gog' for 'dog'

	early plosive sounds 'd' and 'b')	
Reduplication	Repeating a whole syllable	Dada, mama
Consonant cluster reductions	Consonant clusters can be difficult to articulate, so children reduce them to smaller units	'pider' for 'spider'
Deletion of unstressed syllables	Omitting the opening syllable in polysyllabic words	'nana' for 'banana'

Types of overextension

Type	Definition	Example	% of overextension
Categorical overextensions	The name for one member of a category is extended to all members of the category	Apple used for all round fruits	60 %
Analogical overextension	A word for one object is extended to one in a different category; usually on the basis that it has some physical or functional connection	Ball used for a round fruit	15%
Mismatch overextension	One word sentences that appear quite abstract; child makes a statement about one object in relation to another	Saying 'duck' when looking at an empty pond	25%

Aitchison's stages of children's linguistic development

Number	Stage	Description
1	Labelling	Linking words to the objects to which they refer, understanding that things can be labelled
2	Packaging	Exploring the labels and to what they can apply Over / under-extension occurs in order to eventually understand the range of a word's meaning
3	Network-building	Making connections between words, understanding similarities and opposites in meanings

Stages of children's grammatical development

Stage	Descriptions	Grammatical constructions	Age (months)
One-word / Holophrastic	One word utterances		12 – 18
Two-word	Two words combined to create simple syntactical structures	Subject + Verb Verb + Object	18 – 24
Telegraphic	Three or more words joined in increasingly complex and accurate orders	Subject + Verb + Object Subject + Verb + Complement Subject + Verb + Adverbial	24 – 36
Post-telegraphic	Increasing awareness of grammatical rules and irregularities	Instead of saying 'runned' using 'ran'	36 +

Types of meaning relations in two-word utterances

Meaning relation	Explanation	Example	Context
Agent + action	Did someone (the do-er) perform an action	Daddy kick	Dad kicks ball
Agent + affected	Does someone do something to an object (done-to)?	Me ball	Child kicks ball
Entity + attribute	Is a person or object described?	Kitty big	Sees tigers in zoo
Action + affected	Does an object affect an object?	Throw stick	Child throws stick
Action + location	Does an action occur in a place?	Sit chair	Child sits on chair
Entity + location	Is an object located?	Spoon table	Spoon is on the table
Processor possession +	Does an object have a processor?	Daddy coat	Points to dads coat
Nomination	Is a person or object labelled?	That cake	That is a cake
Recurrence	Is an event repeated?	More ball	Finds second ball
Negation	Is something denied?	No ball	Has lost her ball

Stages of negative formation

Stage	The child...	Example
1	Uses 'no' or 'not' at the beginning or end of a sentence	No wear shoes
2	Moves 'no' / 'not' inside the sentence	I no want it
3	Attaches the negative to auxiliary verbs and the copula verb 'be' securely	No, I don't want to go to nursery I am not

Halliday's functions of speech

Function	Where language is used to...
Instrumental	Fulfil a need e.g. 'want milk'
Regulatory	Influence the behaviour of others e.g. 'pick up'
Interactional	Develop and maintain social relationships e.g. 'love you'
Personal	Convey individual opinions, ideas and personal identity e.g. 'me like Charlie and Lola'
Representational	Convey facts and information e.g. 'it hot'
Imaginative	Create an imaginary world and may be seen in play predominantly e.g. 'me shopkeeper'
Heuristic	Learn about the environment e.g. 'wassat?'

Dore's language functions

Function	Description
Labelling	Naming a person, object or thing
Repeating	Repeating an adult word or utterance
Answering	Responding to an utterance of another speaker
Requesting action	Asking for something to be done for them
Calling	Getting attention by shouting
Greeting	Greeting someone or something
Protesting	Objecting to requests from others
Practising	Using language when no adult is present

Theorists

1. Skinner – Children learn language from imitation.
2. Chomsky – LAD (Language Acquisition Device) – Language is inbuilt, humans pre-programmed to acquire it.

3. Vygotsky – Children need input from others to communicate effectively.
4. Piaget – Children use cognitive skills to develop language by themselves.

Arguments for and against nativist theory – Chomsky

For	Against
Children:	Children:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experience the same stages of development and at the same pace 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stop overgeneralising and learn to use language correctly, as with irregular verbs
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resist correction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Need input to give them more skills than grammar, for example pragmatic understanding
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create forms of language that adults don't use (overgeneralisation) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Children who have been deprived of social contact can't achieve complete communicative competence
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Make their own rules for language use that seem to understand that all languages have grammatical rules 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Produce correct language when surrounded by 'impoverished' faulty adult-speech, i.e. with false starts, incomplete utterances 	
Relevant Studies:	Relevant Studies:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 'wug' test suggests children apply grammatical rules 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Studies of Genie (a girl deprived of social contact until she was 13 and then unable to learn speech beyond a very basic level) and feral children support the 'critical period' hypothesis that says that language needs to be acquired within a certain time frame. This challenges Chomsky's early argument that the ability to acquire language is simply innate within us as it shows that some interaction is needed for language competency.

Arguments for against behaviourist theory – Skinner

For	Against
Children:	Children:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Imitate accent and dialect 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do more than just imitate language

	and can from sentences that they have never heard before
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Learn politeness and pragmatic aspects of language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hear ungrammatical spoken language around them but can still learn correct language
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Repeat language they have heard around them and incorporate it into theirs – lexical knowledge must be gained from being told the right labels 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Do not seem to respond to correction
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Aren't negatively reinforced for language use
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Aren't always corrected by parents for incorrect grammar
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Corrections might actually slow down development
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Imitate but don't necessarily understand the meanings
	Other limitations:
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 'fis' phenomenon suggests that children can hear and understand the correct pronunciation but simply can't produce it themselves at that stage
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Research was conducted on rats and pigeons not on humans

Arguments for and against social interactionist theory – Vygotsky

For	Against
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Routine / rituals seem to teach children about spoken discourse structure such as turn-taking 	children from cultures that do not promote interaction with children can still become articulate and fluent language users without adult input
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pragmatic development suggests that children do learn politeness and verbally acceptable behavior 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Role-play and pretend play suggests that more interaction with carers can affect vocabulary 	
Relevant studies:	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Halliday's research into the functions of language supports the importance 	

of social interaction	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Vincent, a hearing child born to deaf parents, learned to communicate using sign language. As a hearing child he enjoyed watching television, but he ignored the sounds. He did not start to speak until he went to school, where people talked to him 	

Arguments for and against cognitive theory – Piaget

For	Against
Children:	Children:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can't grasp aspects of language until they are ready; stages of development support this 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> With cognitive difficulties can still manage to use language beyond their understanding
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Produce utterances which increase in complexity as they work towards mastering a rule 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Acquire language without having an understanding of it, especially in the early stages of development
Relevant studies:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 'fis' phenomenon suggests children's cognitive understanding can be present but their physical development still impacts their ability to use language

Key terms

- Idiolect – an individual's own 'linguistic fingerprint'.
- Register – a variety of language appropriate to a particular purpose and context.
- Phoneme – the smallest contrastive unit in the sound system of language.
- Lexis – the vocabulary of a language.
- Semantics – the study of meaning.
- Syntax – the way words are arranged to make sentences.

- Morphology – the area of language study that deals with the formation from smaller units called morphemes.
- Phonology – the study of the sound systems of language and how they communicate meaning.
- Discourse – a stretch of communication.
- Pragmatics – the factors that influence the choices that speakers make in their use of language – why we choose to say one thing rather than another.
- Language Acquisition Device (LAD) – the human brain's inbuilt capacity to acquire language.
- Vocative – a form (especially a noun) used to address a person.
- Content word – a type of word that has an independent 'dictionary' meaning, also called a lexical word.
- Function word – a word whose role is largely or wholly to express a grammatical relationship.
- Social interactionist – those who believe that child language develops through interaction with carers.
- Positive reinforcement – when a behavior is rewarded, including verbal praise to encourage this behaviour to be repeated.
- Negative reinforcements – when an undesirable behaviour is unrewarded with the intention that it will not be repeated.
- Behaviorists – those who believe that language is acquired through imitation and reinforcements.
- Overextension – a feature of a child's language where the word is used to label something is 'stretched' to include things that aren't normally part of that word's meaning.

- Under-extension – a feature of a child's language where the word used to label is reduced to include only part of its normal meaning.
- Hyponymy – the hierarchical structure that exists between lexical items.
- Hypernym – a superordinate, i.e. a word that is more generic or general and can have more specific words under it.
- Hyponym – a more specific word within a category or under a Hypernym.
- Virtuous error – syntactic error made by young children in whom the non-standard utterance reveals some understanding, though incomplete, of standard syntax.
- Bound morpheme - one that cannot stand alone as an independent word e.g. 's'.
- Child Directed Speech (CDS) – any of various speech patterns used by parents or care givers when communicating with young children, particularly with infants, usually involving simplified vocabulary, melodic pitch, repetitive questioning, and a slow or deliberate tempo.
- Expansion – the development of a child's utterance into a longer, more meaningful form.
- Recast – the commenting on, extending and rephrasing of a child's utterance.
- LASS (Language Acquisition Support System) – this refers to the child's interaction with the adults around them and how this interaction supports language development.
- Object permanence – the awareness that objects continue to exist even when they are no longer visible.
- Scaffolding – the process of transferring a skill from adult to child and then withdrawing support once the skill has been mastered.

Exam Structure

1. Context: Power / Gender.

The transcript is of a conversation between a mother and her daughter; it takes place in their own home during play time. The mother takes on the role of the educator and leads the discourse. E.g. “...” the mother controls content and attempts to place constraints on her daughter by “...”, she attempts to establish herself as the powerful participant. However, the child also attempts to impose her own power upon the discourse.

- i. May talk about face
- ii. Mother’s face threatening act and child’s response (threat to child’s independence)

Look for other examples – why do they happen?

Not just a battle to control the discourse there are elements of power asymmetry and the child shows an understanding of the rules of spoken discourse. Her mother makes initiation (e.g.) and the child makes a relevant response and the mother then gives feedback (e.g.) this is then followed by another interrogative which establishes the mother as the powerful participant and educator.

2. Stages of development of the child / children: Give examples!

- Does the child use sentences with more than one clause?
- Do they use coordinating conjunctions or subordinating conjunction?
- What verb forms do they use? Are they used correctly? E.g. “Gemma was putting the puzzle in the bin.”
- What nouns do they use? Concrete (tangible) only. E.g. table / bottle. Or do they use abstract (non-tangible) nouns? E.g. love / hate / like.
- Are the noun phrases simple or is there any use of modification? E.g. “I’ve got a big red lorry.”

3. Functions of language:

- What do the child / children achieve or trying to achieve through the use of their language?
- Do they fulfill Halliday’s or Dore’s functions?
- How does the language fulfill a function?
- What does it tell us about their understanding of how language works? E.g. mother has a chocolate and the child says “that looks nice”. According to Halliday this would be classified as personal but it may also show an

understanding of implicature, the child really means “I want some of that chocolate.”

You are attempting to identify any use of pragmatics – this includes politeness. But you have to explain what it shows that the child understands. E.g. if I say please I may get a chocolate.

4. CDS (Child Directed Speech) – the way in which parents use language to advance the child’s language capabilities. Does the adult use expansions and / or recasts?

E.g. a child may say “daddy’s bike” and the adult say “yes, this is daddy’s bike” (points to the bike). She uses an affirmative to positively reinforce the child’s declarative; she also uses expansion to communicate the sentence in full to the child.

E.g. the child is doing a puzzle and says “this here” and the adult responds “this piece goes here, correct, well done.” Expansion / positive reinforcement / positive face.

Some things to look for:

- Does the adult use concrete nouns? The adult will probably discuss concrete nouns because it is easier for a child to group the concepts; it is harder for a child to grasp the concept of abstract nouns.
 - Does the adult use simple sentences? Do they use any modifiers? Do they refer to the child directly or do they use pronouns? E.g. if an adult repeats the child’s name it is attempting to engage the child, it ensures that the child is aware that they are being engaged in the discourse.
 - Does the adult exaggerate their pauses to encourage turn taking?
 - Does the parent repeat or recast sentences to aid the child comprehension.
5. Theorists – does the child imitate the adult? If not this would seem to suggest that Skinner’s theory does not explain how the child is learning language in this context. Despite the adults repetition of the phrase “small ball” the child responds “my ball”.

Language change

Notes

Key areas of change are in the:

- English lexicon as words enter and leave language or change meanings
- Syntax between earlier and later forms of English

- Phonology of spoken English and its representation in written texts
- Graphology (including typography and orthography): how texts are arranged on a page, font styles and their punctuation and spelling
- Discourse structure and the organization of texts.

Why does language change over time?

- The people as they:
 - Invent things and need words to describe them
 - Change attitudes because of changes in society, or are influenced by others such as politicians or the media
 - Travel to, move to, trade with or invade other countries.
- Migration, travel, the British empire and globalization
- Wars or invasions
- The language of science and technology
- Trade, working practices and new inventions
- Social, ideological and cultural changes
- The media
- Layout and text design changes

Graphology:

Shape – gives indication of its genre and text producers rely on readers knowledge of genre convention to identify the purpose and meaning of the text.

Images:

Iconic signs – direct of what it represents of what they stand for.

Symbolic signs – association or connotation, society place certain values or qualities on them.

Photographs and artwork – can provide strong associative meanings and work in the same way as logos to produce meaning.

Typography – clearly informed by a texts purpose and implied readership.

Space – empty space – where we expect language to occur, non-occurrence itself an attention-seeking device.

Tables

Ways in which new words can be created

Term	Definition	Example
Borrowing / Loan word	The introduction of a word from one language to another; these can be anglicised or remain similar to the original spelling and pronunciation.	Anglicised: chocolate (from French, chocolat) Non-anglicised: pundit (from Hindi, meaning a learned person or a source of opinion) now a popular media term political commentator or sports expert.
Eponym	The name of a person after whom something is named.	Sandwich, braille.
Proprietary Names	The name given to a product by one organization becomes the commonly used name for the same product.	Tampex, Hoover, Walkman.

Abbreviating words

Term	Definition	Example
Acronym	A lexicalised word made up from the initial letters of a phrase (sounded as a word).	RADAR
Initialism	A word made from initial letters, each being pronounced.	CD
Clipping	A new word produced by shortening an existing one.	Edit (from edit)

Re-using words

Term	Definition	Example
Affixation – usually in the form of:	The addition of bound morphemes to an existing word.	Affixes are sometimes linked to contemporary tastes
Prefixes	The addition of a bound morpheme to the beginning of a root word.	Examples of prefixes: mega / uber

Suffixes	The addition of a bound morpheme to the end of a root word.	Recent suffixes: (radical)ising
Conversion	A word changes its word class without adding a suffix.	Test (noun and verb)
Compound	The combining off separate words to create a new word, sometimes using a hyphen to link them.	Size zero Man flu Carbon footprint
Back formation	The removal of an imagined affix from an existing word.	Editor became edit
Blend	Two words fusing to make a new one.	Smog (smoke + fog)

The process of semantic change

Term	Definition	Example	Change in meaning
Amelioration	A word takes on different, more positive, meaning that it had previously, thereby gaining status	Pretty Priest	Sly: attractive Old man: church leader
Pejoration	A word takes on a different, more negative meaning than it had previously, so losing status	Notorious Idiot	Widely known: infamous Private citizen: someone being stupid
Weakening	A word loses the strength of its original meaning	Soon and presently	Immediately: in a short while
Narrowing (for specialisation)	A word becomes more specific in its meaning	Meat Wife	Any food: flesh of an animal Any woman: married woman
Broadening (or generalisation)	A word keeps its original meaning but acquires other	Place	A broad street: an area

Metaphorical changes

Type	Definition	Example	Description
Metaphor	A word acquires new meanings because it is used metaphorically	Bug	A insect or crawling creature, or to annoy, or a fault in a system
Euphemism	A way of describing something unpleasant in a more pleasant manner	Down-sizing Passed away	Making workers redundant Died

		Surgical strikes	Bombing people in a war
Idiom	A speech form, or an expression, that can't be understood literally for the meaning of the individual parts	Pull your socks up Bull in the china shop	Try harder Clumsy

Key terms

- Standardisation – making all the variations of language conform to the standard language.
- Mixed-mode – features of printed text combined with feature expected in conversation.
- Diachronic change – refers to the study of historical language change occurring over a span of time.
- Synchronic change – refers to an approach that studies language at a theoretical point in time without considering the historical context.
- Lexicon – the vocabulary of a language.
- Euphemism – inoffensive word or phrase used to suggest something less pleasant.
- Idiom – a speech form or an expression of a given language that is peculiar to itself grammatically or cannot be understood from the individual meaning of its elements.
- Archaism – an old word or phrase no longer in general spoken or written use.
- Dummy auxiliary – the verb 'do' which is used to form questions and negatives or to add emphasis in a statement.
- Emoticons – the online means of showing facial expressions and gestures.
- Omission – the leaving out of a phoneme in a group of phonemes clustered together
- Assimilation – the influence exercised by one sound upon articulation of another, so that the sounds become more alike.

- Informalisation – the way in which language is becoming increasingly informal in all areas of society.
- Received Pronunciation (RP) – the prestige form of English pronunciation, sometimes considered as the ‘accent’ of Standard English.

Exam Structure

1. Context: why were they written (purpose)? Who were they written for (audience)?

Gender Specific / neutral

Implied reader – is it male? Do they assume to understand what the implied reader knows or wants (omniscient – all knowing)? E.g. “this is your dream car” – this also relates to power and synthetic personalisation.

2. Expand on ideas of gender – what ideological perspective is established? E.g. are men and women equal; do women belong to specific groups? E.g. housewives / care givers.

This is likely to relate to language and power.

3. Do the pieces use technology? E.g. in the BBC Sport extract it relies upon new technology. Describe how this technology effects what is written. For example, the BBC text is instant reporting so it has informal register (give examples); it may have grammatical errors. There will also be changes in tenses – look at verb formations.

Then contrast it with the more archaic text. What happens to the language because of the lack of technology? E.g. more complex sentences, more modifiers.

4. Grammar – what grammatical features are used? Sentence structures e.g. modern texts may use more simple sentences or more variation / compound / complex / simple sentences.

What types of sentences? E.g. declaratives, imperatives, interrogatives – Language and power.

Does the text use modal verb? Does one text use more of them than the other? If it is one text why are modal verbs used? What does it tell us about the relationship between the implied writer and implied reader? It may be that the implied writer is imposing an ideology upon the reader. E.g. “Ladies are, generally speaking, less developed than those of men”. Although the writer attempts to qualify his declarative through the subordinate clause “generally speaking” the modal auxiliary verb expresses their

certainty and reveals their ideological position. Here you can talk about the language and power and language and gender.

Punctuation – uses of italics, capitalisation, full stops, or absence of punctuation. Do you see any marked changes in the use of punctuation?

5. Lexical range – specialist / non-specialist terms. Do you see any evidence of new words, are there any archaic terms e.g. “side-car” a term describing an additional part that was added to a motorcycle but now rarely used as side-cars are obsolete. Examples of new / borrowed words – what may have brought them into the language? Technology.

Eponyms / acronyms / proprietary names / Initialism / prefixes and suffixes / compound / blended words.

Important: if you find examples of any of these could explain why they are there. You may find it helpful to relate these to the context.

6. Graphological and typographical features – this of course is related to technology but will be able to show how the text producer has other methods to communicate. E.g. a picture is used to supplement (add) to the text.