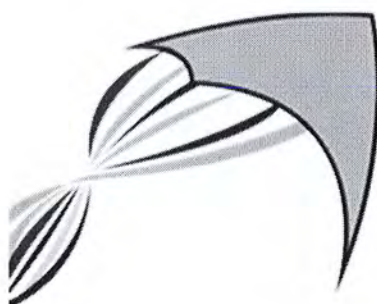


Name:

ENGLISH LANGUAGE A LEVEL CORE KNOWLEDGE



English Language A Level
Liskeard School and Community College

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The following is a glossary of some of the terms used in the [Guide to Language Levels and Frameworks](#) available on the qualification website.

AO1 requires students to use relevant terminology accurately as part of their responses and this guide is aimed at supporting the revision of key terms.

Phonetics and Phonology

It is useful for students to have a confident working knowledge of the key terms surrounding phonetics and the production of speech sounds as it can be useful to discuss accent, identity, child language acquisition and orthographic features.

Term	Definition
articulation	refers to the movement of the speech organs to produce sounds required for speech. Place of articulation refers to position of the speech organs used to make a sound and manner of articulation refers to how that sound is made. When describing articulation, it is syntactically typical to mention the place of articulation before the manner, for example an alveolar plosive.
voicing	certain speech sounds are made by drawing together the vocal cords so that they vibrate whereas others are made when the vocal cords are spread apart allowing air through. The former is classed as voiced and the latter is classed as voiceless. For example, the phoneme /d/ is a voiced alveolar plosive and the phoneme /t/ is an unvoiced alveolar plosive.
plosive	refers to consonant sounds made by a complete closure of the airway followed by a quick release of air. It is one of the more common manners of articulation for English and includes phonemes such as /d/, /t/, /p/ and /b/.
fricative	refers to consonant sounds made by the passing of air, often replicating hissing sounds e.g. /f/, /z/, /s/ and /v/.
accent	refers to the distinctive features of pronunciation that often mark an individual's regional, personal or social identity.
received pronunciation	is an accent of English that is typically associated with prestige and high social status. It is not a geographically based accent and is frequently abbreviated to RP.
th-fronting	refers to the substitution of the phonemes /ð/ or /θ/ for a labio-dental phoneme such as /f/ or /v/. For example, if a speaker pronounces with as /wɪv/ then they are using th-fronting.



Term	Definition
th-stopping	refers to the substitution of the phonemes /ð/ or /θ/ for a plosive phoneme, typically /t/ or /d/. For example, if a speaker pronounces that as /dæt/ then they are using th-stopping.
yod-dropping	the elision of the /j/ phoneme from certain words, typically as a feature of accent. For example, if a speaker pronounces the word tune as /tu:n/ then they are demonstrating yod-dropping.
minimal pair/set	these are words that are identical except for one phoneme occurring in the same place. This altered phoneme changes the meaning of the word. For example, /sɪt/, /bɪt/ and /fɪt/ are all part of the same minimal set. We use them to show which phonemes are distinctive or contrastive in a language.
homophones	refers to words that have the same pronunciation but different spelling and meaning. For example, grate and great. It is worth being aware that accent can affect homophones.
homographs	refers to words that have the same spelling but are pronounced differently and have a different meaning. For example, the word bow pronounced /baʊ/ or /bəʊ/ depending on the meaning.
glottal stop	a sound that is produced by the release of air at the glottis after being stopped by tightly closed vocal cords. It is represented by the symbol /ʔ/ and is most typically used in place of the /t/ phoneme. However, the glottal stop is used in place of a number of phonemes in different regional varieties. Be aware that the glottal stop is not strictly speaking a phoneme as it does not form a minimal pair. For example, /bɪt/ and /bɪʔ/ are not different words.
schwa	is the unstressed vowel sound represented by the symbol /ə/.
assimilation	in phonology, assimilation refers to the way in which sounds can change to be closer to neighbouring sounds. For example, in rapid speech the word handbag is often pronounced as /hæmbæg/ as both /m/ and /b/ have the same place of articulation.
rhotic	is used to describe accents that audibly pronounce the /r/ after vowel sounds such as many West Country varieties. Accents that do not pronounce this phoneme are classed as non-rhotic .



Lexis

Term	Definition
derivation	the process of creating new words by using affixes. Also known as affixation , this is a very common way of creating new words.
etymology	the study of the origins of words. It is an interesting area of study as it can reveal aspects of cultural and social ideology that people may not have explored. For example, the original meaning of the word 'villain' simply meant someone who was low born, revealing how attitudes towards the poor and class have affected the way the word is used today.
neologism	refers to a newly created or coined word or expression.
sociolect	the language used by a specific social group that helps distinguish that group from another.
idiolect	the distinctive language used by a specific individual.
slang	words and phrases associated with informal speech.
jargon	typically refers to the language used by different occupational groups that serves to exclude members outside of that group. For example, legal jargon is used to make it difficult for those outside of the legal profession to understand it easily.
register	refers to the way language is defined according to its use. For example, texts produced for highly formal occasions will adopt a formal register in order to match the communicative situation. Register may also be used to describe the varieties used for specific purposes, activities, trades or professions. For example, the jargon used by computer coding can be classed as a register.



Semantics

Term	Definition
hypernym	refers to a word with a broad coverage of meaning. For example, tree can refer to oaks, beeches, willows etc. Also called the superordinate .
hyponym	refers to the more specific elements 'under' a hypernym. For example, if the hypernym was red, then crimson, scarlet and vermillion would be hyponyms.
homonym	refers to a word that has the same form but two different meanings. For example, the word reserved can mean someone who is shy as well as the act of holding a room, table or place for someone.
synonym	refers to a word with a similar meaning as another. For example, huge and massive are considered synonyms of big.
antonym	refers to a word with the opposite meaning to another. For example, hot is an antonym of cold.
metonym	refers to the use of an attribute to refer to the thing or concept. For example, if a newspaper reported, 'The word from Number 10 is...' they are using the address of the Prime Minister as a metonym for the government.
types of semantic change	when you study language variation over time, you will study a number of different ways that meanings shift due to the way people choose to use language. Some of the examples you will study include: • amelioration – where the meaning of a word becomes more positive over time. For example, cool simply referred to a temperature but now is seen as a positive adjective describing something that is on trend or good • pejoration – where the meaning of a word becomes less positive over time. For example, the word villain simply referred to someone of low class and lived in the country, drawn from a synonym for villager. However, over time the word has become associated with evil and cruel actions • broadening or expansion – where the original meaning of a word expands to encompass more ideas. For example, the word holiday is derived from holy day, a time when people would stop work and observe religious practices. It has broadened to refer to any break from work or other occupation • narrowing or specialisation – where the original meaning of a word was much broader but has become more precise over time. For example, the word deer is derived from an Old English word



Term	Definition
	that simply meant small creatures. It has narrowed to refer to a specific type of creature • bleaching or weakening – where the original power or load of a word becomes reduced over time. For example, the emotive power behind the word dead has been weakened by it becoming an intensifier e.g. dead tired, dead boring.
connotation	refers to the associated meanings of a word that go beyond their literal definition. For example, using the word swarm to describe the movements of people conveys negative connotations because it is associated with insects and pests.
collocation	refers to two or more words that typically go together as a set phrase. For example, bread and butter, tea and biscuits, pay attention.



Grammar: Morphology

Term	Definition
morpheme	refers to the smallest unit of meaning. For example, in the word 'helped', both 'help' and 'ed' convey meaning and therefore both elements are morphemes. In this case, the morpheme help can convey meaning on its own, meaning it is a free morpheme whereas the morpheme 'ed', while conveying that the action is in the past, needs to attach to another morpheme to make sense, making it a bound morpheme. There are two types of bound morpheme: • inflectional morpheme – refers to the bound morphemes that indicate a shift in grammatical tense e.g. plurals and tense markers • derivational morpheme – refers to the bound morphemes that change a word's class or meaning e.g. suffixes such as -ful, -less, -able.
root or stem	refers to the main word that others are built from using prefixes and suffixes.
affix	refers to a bound morpheme that can be attached to existing words to create new ones.
prefix	refers to an affix that is placed at the beginning of a root word. For example, dis-, un-, anti-.
suffix	refers to an affix that is placed at the end of a root word. For example, -ity, -ment, -tion.
plurality	refers to when there is more than one of something, usually indicated by the addition of an inflectional morpheme e.g. on regular nouns -s or -es is used to show plurality.
regular	refers to words, typically nouns and verbs, which follow typical patterns grammatically. For example, to play is an example of a regular verb as it uses typical suffixes to indicate tense e.g. -ed, -ing, -s.
irregular	refers to words, typically nouns and verbs, which do not follow typical patterns grammatically. For example, the plural of mouse is mice making mouse an irregular noun.
tense	refers to the changes in the structure of a verb that indicates the timescale. For example, the word 'helped' indicates that the action has already happened, making it past tense.



Term	Definition
Person	refers to the distinction between the speaker (first person), the addressee (second person) and others (third person). Person is reflected in the personal pronouns and verb forms and can also indicate singular or plural. For example, by writing 'We helped', the pronoun 'we' is the first person plural form indicating that although the writer was personally involved in an action, they were not alone.



Grammar: Syntax

Term	Definition
dialect	where accent looks at the distinctive pronunciation features of speakers, dialect looks at the distinctive grammar, syntax and vocabulary that marks a speaker's regional, personal or social identity.
subject	refers to the noun phrase or pronoun which is the actor of the verb within a clause. For example, in the sentence, 'The wind howled all night,' the wind is the subject.
object	refers to the noun phrase or pronoun which is governed or affected by the verb within a clause. There are three types of object in English: • direct object – when the object is directly affected by the verb. For example, 'The cat caught <u>the fish</u>' • indirect object – when the object receives the action of a verb. For example, 'She gave <u>me</u> a new book' • object of preposition – when the noun or noun phrase is governed by or linked with a preposition. For example, 'They walked to the shop <u>in silence</u>'.
predicate	the part of the sentence which contains the verb and offers information about the subject. For example, in the sentence 'I moved quietly,' moved quietly is the predicate.
phrase	refers to a group of words that function as a single syntactical unit. For example, in the sentence, 'The grey cat sat on the mat,' the phrase 'The grey cat' acts as a single unit. Phrases are identified by their main head word: • noun phrase – a phrase where the head word is a noun, usually structured as determiner + noun e.g. The dog • modified noun phrase – a noun phrase which includes an adjective e.g. The huge dog • adjective phrase – usually structured as adverb + adjective e.g. very loud • adverbial phrase – usually structured as two or more adverbs e.g. quite smoothly • verb phrase – usually structured as an auxiliary verb and a main verb e.g. must leave, has left. Verb phrases can also act as adverbs or adjectives e.g. <u>Running as fast as I could</u>, I left the house.



Term	Definition
Clause	refers to a group of words that is structurally larger than a phrase and typically contains a finite verb. Clauses can be described as: • main or independent clause – a clause which is made up of a subject and a predicate and expresses a complete concept. For example, 'We walked home,' where 'we' is the subject and 'walked home' is the predicate • subordinate or dependent clause – a clause which depends on the main clause to make sense. For example, '<u>If I get out early</u>, I will wait in the common room' • co-ordinate clause – a main clause which is preceded by a co-ordinating conjunction connecting it to another main clause. For example, 'He was angry <u>and he was tired</u>'.
sentence	refers to a set of words typically containing a subject and a predicate, which conveys either a statement, question, command or exclamation.
co-ordination	the linking of lexical items/ideas that are equally important. For example, 'Rocky ran and jumped over the hedge.' In this sentence, both actions have equal status within the sentence.
subordination	the linking of lexical items/ideas that do not hold equal importance. For example, 'After the oppressive heat of the day, the cool evening was a welcome relief.' In this sentence, the main clause has the higher level of grammatical status.
modification	the process of using linguistic elements to specify or qualify the nature or features of another. For example, using adjectives or adverbs to modify nouns or verbs.
declarative	a sentence type which acts as a statement. For example, 'I had seven minutes to get to work.'
interrogative	a sentence type which acts as a question. For example, 'What are you doing?'
imperative	a sentence type which acts as a directive e.g. commanding, warning, pleading or requesting. For example, 'Don't go.' Other sentence types can function as an imperative despite having different structures e.g. 'Would you shut the door quietly'.
exclamatory	a sentence type which conveys strong emotion and ends with an exclamation mark. For example, 'What an incredible display of skill!'
active voice	refers to the grammatical structure of a sentence where the subject is the actor of a sentence. Typically, sentences in the active voice follow a subject-predicator-object pattern. For example, 'The wrong person answered the phone call.'



Term	Definition
passive voice	refers to the grammatical structure of a sentence where the subject and object change positions to change the focus of the sentence. For example, 'The call was answered by the wrong person.'
modals	auxiliary verbs which denote possibility, necessity or obligation. The main modal verbs are: can, could, shall, should, will, would, may, might, must, ought.
deixis	lexical items that rely on context to convey meaning. For example, in the sentence 'You know he did it again,' context is required to be able to understand both who 'he' is and what he has done.



Discourse

Term	Definition
mode	the term used to denote the medium of the language being explored, for example spoken or written. It can also be used to denote the format. For example, newspaper or TV script
linearity	refers to the linear or structure of a text – typically a text written in chronological order.
narrative	a spoken or written account of events which are connected.
cohesion	refers to the way links and connections are used to unite elements of a discourse or text.
coherence	refers to the way elements of a text or discourse combine to allow it to make semantic sense.
exchange structure	refers to the way certain interactions follow key exchange patterns to act as a single unit. For example, the Initiation – Response – Feedback structure is an expected pattern of discourse whereby the teacher asks a question, the student gives a response, and the teacher then gives feedback. The structure acts as a single unit of communication.
adjacency pair	refers to a unit of conversation where each participant takes a turn and the two elements are functionally related. For example, both speakers say hello to each other, or one speaker asks a question and the other responds.
overlap	refers to the simultaneous talk of two or more participants in a conversation.
topic shifts	refers to the linguistic techniques used by a speaker to change the subject of conversation. For example, 'That reminds me...' acts as a shift to a new topic.
framing moves	refers to linguistic patterns that are employed to highlight key segments of a discourse or text. For example, during a phone call one speaker may use a phrase like, 'It's been lovely to speak to you,' as a way of framing the close of the conversation.
non-fluency	refers to features such as fillers and false starts that prevent the discourse from being completely fluent.
pseudo-speech	refers to language that appears to have meaning but is actually not in the main lexicon of the language. For example, 'My head feels a bit <u>wooden</u> today.'
genre convention	refers to recurring elements within a genre or form. For example, the use of a happy ending is a genre convention of fairy tales.



Pragmatics

Term	Definition
context	refers to the circumstances in which speech or writing take place that can potentially impact on the language used. Contextual elements include social, cultural, personal, technological and physical factors.
context dependency	refers to the need for participants to be aware of the context of production in order to be able to understand the full meaning of a text or discourse. For example, if someone uses a deictic expression in their speech.
sense	refers to the semantic meaning of a lexical item. In words that have a number of different meanings, the sense of the word is identified by the way it links to the words around it. For example, the word 'fire' has many different meanings and identifying the intended meaning requires knowledge of how it is being used in a sentence.
semantic role	refers to the relationship between the verbs and noun phrases of a sentence. These roles can be further defined as: • agent – looking at the performer of an action within a sentence. For example, 'Louise ran home' • force – looking at the performance of an action but where the instigation is not voluntarily or consciously performed. 'It rained' • causative – looking at a natural force which has brought about a change. For example, 'The drought destroyed the crops' • possessor – looking at the ownership of something. For example, 'The back of Luke's chair broke in two' • recipient – looking at who or what receives something. For example, 'She gave the form <u>to her teacher</u>'.
Grice's maxims	refers to the unspoken rules which allow a conversation to operate successfully. These maxims work on the assumption that all participants want to co-operate with one another. The four maxims are: • the maxim of quality – where a speaker is truthful and honest • the maxim of quantity – where a speaker provides sufficient information and detail but no more or less • the maxim of manner – where a speaker tries to be clear and orderly in what they are saying and avoids ambiguity • the maxim of relevance – where a speaker tries to ensure their contributions are pertinent and relevant to the rest of the conversation.



Term	Definition
	However, speakers frequently and deliberately flout these maxims and still have successful conversations, often by creating implicature which the other participants understand. For example: A: Are you going to the party tonight? B: I've got to be at work by 6am for a meeting. Speaker B has openly flouted the maxim of relevance deliberately creating an implicature, which speaker A fully understands – B will not be coming to the party as they have to get up early.
implicature	refers to the implied meaning of a statement. Unlike entailment, if A is true, B does not always have to be true. For example, in the statement, 'I was late for work because I lost my cat,' the listener assumes that you were looking for your cat that day. However, it could be that your cat is usually the thing which wakes you up and because you lost them three days ago, you overslept. Implicature can also be employed by speakers who expect their audience to understand the meaning behind the statement rather than take it at its literal value. For example, if someone asks, 'Can you tell me the time?' you know they are not asking about your skills but asking for the time.
entailment	refers to the need to draw conclusions from a particular word or phrase. Typically, an entailment operates that if A is true then B must also be true. For example, in the statement, 'The Archduke Franz Ferdinand was assassinated,' we must draw the conclusion that the Archduke died.
presupposition	refers to the assumed knowledge or truth of a statement. For example, in the question, 'Are you a vegetarian now?' there is a presupposition that you once ate meat.



Term	Definition
politeness	refers to the ways in which language is used to show consideration of an interlocutor's thoughts and feelings, and to create and maintain positive relationships. Features include markers such as 'please' or 'thank you' as well as techniques such as avoiding giving blunt commands.
irony	refers to a way of writing or speaking whereby what is meant is the opposite of what appears to be stated. For example, if someone says, 'No, don't get off the sofa and help me,' it is likely they are being ironic and expect help.
phatic talk	refers to language used to establish or develop social contact. For example, greetings and comments about the weather are typical examples of phatic talk.
convergence/divergence	refers to aspects of Accommodation Theory , whereby speakers adjust their language in relation to the people they are interacting with. To achieve convergence , accents and dialects move closer, reducing the differences between them. In divergence , the differences between accents and dialects become more pronounced.

Graphology

Term	Definition
grapheme	refers to the smallest unit of a written language that conveys meaning and/or function. For example, letters, numbers and punctuation marks are all examples of graphemes.
typeface	refers to the design of type used. For example, Times New Roman or Calibri are examples of typeface.
font	refers to the style of a typeface. For example, bold and italic are types of font.
white space	refers to the use of space around words and images on a page.
logo	refers to the graphic mark or symbol used to identify and promote recognition of an individual, company or organisation.

KNOWLEDGE ORGANISERS

Child Language Acquisition (Speech)



Stages of Development

1.	Communicative competence	The ability to form accurate and understandable utterances using the grammar system, and to understand social context for using them.
Pre-verbal Stage (0-12 months):		
2.	Pre-verbal stage	Experimenting with noises/sounds but without producing recognisable words – it can be further broken down into the vegetative state , cooing and babbling .
Vegetative Stage (0-7 months):		
3.	Vegetative state	The baby makes discomfort sounds such as crying - this is instinctive to how a baby feels.
4.	Crying	The first noise a baby makes. They exercise the vocal cords to: learn to make different sounds, learn that making a noise will gain attention, and signal a physical need like hunger or tiredness. Parents suggest they are attuned to the different cries, but it has been suggested that parents actually just recognise when crying changes in intensity.
5.	Non-vocal interactions	Before communication can be achieved through speech, babies are able to communicate through gestures, such as pointing.
Cooing (4-6 months):		
6.	Cooing	Distinct from crying but not yet forming recognisable vowels and consonants. A baby experiments with the noises that can be made when the tongue and back of the mouth come into contact; the baby begins to develop control over the vocal muscles.
7.	Laughing	Starts at around 4 months.
Babbling (6-12 months):		
8.	Babbling	The baby produces phonemes, often in the form of combinations of vowels and consonants (eg. <i>ma, ga, ba, baba, gaga</i>), they are largely those that appear in the child's native language.
9.	CVC	Consonant-vowel-consonant construction – this is typical of early sound production.
10.	Reduplicated babbling	Appears first and consists of a child making the same sounds again and again (eg. <i>babababa</i>)
11.	Variegated babbling	Emerges later and involves variation in the consonant and vowel sounds being produced. This does not resemble recognisable words yet (eg. <i>daba, manamoo</i>)
12.	Proto words	'Made up' words that a child will use to represent a word they cannot pronounce (eg. 'rayray' for <i>raisin</i>). These are not true first words as they have no semantic content.
Holophrastic Stage (12-18 months):		
13.	Holophrastic stage	A child conveys a whole sentence worth of meaning in just a single word or labels things in the environment around them. The child is deliberately conveying meaning through word choice, which differentiates it from babbling. The caregiver must interpret the child's meaning, based on the word used and other non-verbal cues; the caregiver will often expand on a child's utterance to model the accurate form and lend clarity to what the child has said.
14.	Holophrase	A single word expressing a whole idea which can act as a declarative, exclamative, interrogative, or imperative.
15.	Noun bias	The number of nouns exceeds the number of other word classes in early vocabulary.
16.	Overextension	When a word is used more broadly to describe things with similar properties, other than the specific item to which the word actually applies (eg <i>any round fruit may be an 'apple' or rats, squirrels, and rabbits are all 'mice'</i>).
17.	Underextension	When a word is used in a limited way which does not recognise its full meaning (eg. <i>knowing the word banana for one in real life but not for a bunch of bananas or a picture of a banana</i>).
18.	Hypernym	An overarching (category) noun which encompasses many other nouns.
19.	Hyponym	A noun with a narrower meaning which is part of a hypernym (category member).
20.	Gestalt expression	Compressing a string of words into a single utterance as they have not been able to segment (eg. 'what's that?' = 'wassat?'). It is also argued that these are constructions which the child is using as units of language.
21.	Segment	To be able to perceive the boundaries between words – this skill is gradually acquired.
22.	Comprehension	The ability to understand language, which might differ from how much an individual can produce.
23.	Production	The language that people produce, which might be different from how much they can understand.
Two-Word Stage (18-24 months):		
24.	Two-word stage	Using two-word combinations in a word order which often resembles adult speech. Grammar begins to be understood as they demonstrate some understanding of the relationship

		between two words and the vocabulary range will start to include more verbs, adjectives, adverbs and pronouns.
25.	Productive vocabulary	The language which can be used (they will understand far more than this): • 18 months – 50 words • 24 months – 200 words • 36 months – 2,000 words
26.	Naming insight	Children begin to realise that everything around them has a name.
27.	Vocabulary spurt	A child displays a sudden growth in their vocabulary between 24-36 months; they switch from learning approximately two words per week per week to suddenly acquiring and using around 20 new words per week.
28.	MLU	Mean Length of Utterance – This is measured in morphemes (not syllables); Roger Brown found that between 12 and 26 months, children are expected to have MLU's of about 1.75
Telegraphic Stage (24-36 months):		
29.	Telegraphic stage	Utterances become longer; children convey ideas through content words and an emerging use of grammatical words, which are often omitted as they are not needed for meaning.
30.	Content word	Content words convey meaning.
31.	Grammatical word	Needed for structural accuracy but not for meaning so are often omitted and gradually acquired.
32.	Virtuous error	Errors in morphology that have some underlying logic to demonstrate that learning has taken place (eg. <i>I runned, Three mens</i>).
33.	Syntactic inversion	Reversal of the normal order of the words and phrases in a sentence, learnt when forming a question (eg. <i>'I can eat the cake' (S;MAV;V;O) becomes 'Can I eat the cake?' (MAV;S;V;O)</i>).
Post-telegraphic Stage (36+ months):		
34.	Post-telegraphic stage	Children are able to use grammatically more complex combinations.
35.	Normal non-fluency	Hesitation whilst mental processing occurs, especially when attempting more complex constructions or recounting stories (eg. <i>she runned after it – and – and – and the bird...</i>)
Phonology:		
36.	Biological noises	Vomiting, coughing, burping, crying, a low cooing sound, etc. These are common to the whole human race: there are no Icelandic burps or Thai cries.
37.	Melodic utterances	Melody, rhythm and intonation. Parents assume that these sounds have different functions: questioning, exclaiming, greeting etc. Babies of different nationalities sound increasingly different from each other.
38.	Early-8	Speech sounds develop at different rates; aged 1-3 they should become familiar with: /m/ /n/ /j/ /b/ /w/ /d/ /p/ /h/.
39.	Middle-8	Speech sounds develop at different rates; aged 3-6½ they should become familiar with: /t/ /ŋ/ /k/ /g/ /f/ /v/ /tʃ/ /dʒ/.
40.	Late-8	Speech sounds develop at different rates; aged 5-7½ they should become familiar with: /ʃ/ /ʒ/ /l/ /r/ /s/ /z/ /ð/ /θ/ + clusters.
41.	Assimilation	Swapping one consonant/vowel for another (eg. <i>borry = lorry</i>)
42.	Consonant cluster/Reduction	Reducing phonologically more complex units into simpler ones – from two (or more) consonants down to one (eg. <i>dis = dish; fis = fish</i>).
43.	Deletion	Omitting a particular sound within a word, usually the final consonant or a weak syllable (eg. <i>jamás = pyjamas; tephone = telephone</i>).
44.	Diminutive	Adding a suffix to make a word phonologically easier to say (eg. <i>doggie</i>).
45.	Metathesis	Swapping sounds in a word (eg. <i>relevant = relevant</i>).
46.	Reduplicated words	Repeating words (eg. <i>bye bye; moo moo</i>).
47.	Reduplication	Repeating consonants clusters or vowel clusters in a word (eg. <i>snowwowman</i>).
48.	Substitution	Swapping one sound for another which is easier to pronounce (eg. <i>wok = rock</i>).
49.	Th-fronting	Replacing th- sounds (/ð/; /θ/) with /f/ or /v/ (eg. <i>fink = think; vem = them</i>).
50.	Order of mention	When the sequence of clauses parallels the sequence of events – it is the basis for storytelling and children find this easy to follow, especially if they are given instructions (eg. <i>A happened, then B happened, then C...</i>).
51.	Reverse order of mention	When the sequence of clauses does not parallel the sequence of events – this is often achieved using conjunctions such as before/after, and time adverbials (eg. <i>'Before you go outside, put your books away'</i> – some children find this reverse order hard to decode).

Stages of Development Theories

Babbling:				
1.	Petitto and Holowka (2002)	They videoed infants and noted that most babbling came from the right side of the mouth which is controlled by the left side of the brain. This side of the brain is responsible for speech production; their findings suggest that babbling is a form of preliminary speech.		
2.	Desmond Morris (2008)	For the first 6 months of a baby's life gurgles and babbles will be the same, regardless of the baby's nationality or how much parental input the child had had. Deaf children will also create the same sounds. By 6 months, the child will be increasingly attuned to variations in language being used around them and the babbling will start to resemble this more closely.		
Holophrastic Stage:				
3.	Katherine Nelson (1973)	Nelson placed the early words of children in to four categories: naming, action, social and modifying (descriptions). She found that around 60% of a child's first 50 words were nouns.		
4.	Bloom (2004)	Bloom says the supposed noun bias merely reflects the frequency of nouns in our language; nouns outnumber verbs by 5:1 in dictionaries.		
5.	Jean Aitchison (1987)	Aitchison identified three stages that occur during a child's acquisition of vocabulary:		
		6.	Labelling	Associating sounds with objects in the world around the child Linking words to things Understanding the concept of labels
		7.	Packaging	Starting to explore the label
		8.	Network Building	Making connections between the labels they have developed Understanding opposites and similarities, relationships and contrasts
9.	Eve Clark (1973)	Clark found that common adjectives (e.g. nice and big) are developed in the first 50 words, however, spatial adjectives are acquired later (e.g. wide/narrow). She also hypothesised that overextension was based on two main criteria:		
		10.	The semantic features hypothesis	This means that the baby overextends on the basis of the features that combine to give an object meaning, for example, colour, shape, sound, movement, etc. So any moving thing with four legs could be called 'cat'.
		11.	The functional similarities hypothesis	Overextension results from similarities in the uses to which objects are put. Things used to hold liquid might all be called 'cups'.
12.	Leslie Rescorla (1980)	Rescorla further explored overextension, collecting concrete data:		
		13.	Categorical overextension	Most common form of overextension which occurs by mixing of hyponyms with the hypernym. It is only when a child picks up other hyponyms that this form of overextension disappears.
		14.	Analogical overextension	Found in about 15% of overextensions. Relates to the 'packaging' element of an object and the properties it has. A scarf might be called 'cat' because it is soft when the child strokes it.
		15.	Mismatch/Predicate statements	Found in about 25% of overextensions. They convey abstract information and show a high level of awareness of the connections between objects that are not always obvious to the listener. A cot might be called 'doll' because the doll can often be found in the cot but wasn't on this occasion.
Two-Word Stage				
16.	John Braine (1963)	At the two-word stage, children use patterns of two-word utterances that seem to evolve around certain key words. He called this a pivot schema - children use key words as a 'pivot' to generate utterances e.g. allgone: 'allgone dinner', 'allgone milk'.		
17.	Roger Brown (1973)	He identified the syntactic structures of two-word utterances and suggested that the combination of words places together follow a limited range of patterns:		
		<i>Combination</i>		<i>Example</i>
		Agent + Action		Daddy go
		Action + Object		Make cake
		Agent + Object		Billy bike
		Action + Location		Run garden
<i>Combination</i>		<i>Example</i>		
Object + Location		Teddy chair		
Possessor + Possession		Granny gloves		
Object + Attribute		Coat soft		
Demonstrative + Object		Here chair		

Telegraphic Stage:				
18.	Roger Brown (1973)	Question development stages: 1) Only prosodic features (rising intonation) indicate the interrogative mood: 'Daddy come...?' 2) Interrogative pronouns (wh- words , such as <i>when, where, what, how</i>) are used at the start of sentences: 'where baby...?' 3) Syntactic inversion of the auxiliary verb (<i>can, is, did</i> – <i>tense will not always be correct</i>) and the subject of the sentence (e.g. <i>You, Daddy</i>) produce the correct form: Is Daddy gone?		
19.	Roger Brown (1973)	Morpheme acquisition stages: 1) Inflection -ing (<i>Playing</i>) 2) Plural – s (<i>Trains</i>) 3) Possessive – s (<i>Billy's book</i>) 4) Definite and indefinite articles (<i>The/a</i>) 5) Past tense -ed (<i>Walked</i>) 6) Third person singular inflection (<i>She walks</i>) 7) Contraction of the verb be (<i>He's happy</i>)		
20.	Ursula Bellugi (1967)	Negation development stages: 1) Uses 'no' or 'not' at the beginning of end of the sentence – "No shoes!" 2) Puts 'no' or 'not' inside the sentence – "I no wear shoes!" 3) Attaches negatives to auxiliary verbs - "I won't wear shoes!" NB the main verb is not always yet in the correct tense		
21.	Ursula Bellugi (1967)	Pronoun usage stages: 1) Uses their own name – "Katherine play." 2) Recognises I/me pronouns – "I play", "Me up" 3) Uses pronouns according to whether they are the subject or object position – "I play with the toy." / "Give it to me."		
Pragmatic Development (Functionalism):				
22.	MAK Halliday (1978)	He proposed the functions of child language can be categorised. The most commonly used is instrumental and regulatory, which are learnt, along with interactional and personal, at a young age. Representational is used by 6-8+ year olds.		
		23.	Heuristic	"Tell me why"- uses language to explore environment/ seeking information ('Why don't stars fallout of the sky?')
		24.	Imaginative	"Let's pretend" - imaginative language, used with play, to create imaginary world ('I'm Batman.')
		25.	Instrumental	"I want"- expressing needs/wants (<i>David (14 m) points to the refrigerator door and says 'door'</i>)
		26.	Interactional	"Me and you" - speaking to other, establishing personal contact ('Hello' said Catherine — holding out her doll)
		27.	Personal	"Here I come"- child expresses their feelings/expressing personal preferences ('I hate that!')
		28.	Regulatory	Do as I tell you" - requesting/asking for things (<i>Miriam says 'Daddy push' telling her father to push her on the swing</i>)
		29.	Representational	"I've got something to show you" – used to communicate information ('I got four Barbie dolls at my birthday party')
30.	John Dore	Describes language functions through focussing more on categorising individual utterances.		
		31.	Answering	Responding to an utterance of another speaker
		32.	Calling	Getting someone's attention
		33.	Greeting	Greeting someone
		34.	Labelling	Naming a person, object or thing
		35.	Practising	Using language when no adult is present
		36.	Protesting	Objecting to requests from others
		37.	Repeating	Repeating an adult word or utterance
		38.	Requesting Action	Asking for something to be done for them
Discourse Development:				
39.	Brown and Levinson	Brown and Levinson suggested that politeness in children centres around two aspects of 'face':		
		40.	Positive face	Where the individual desires social approval and being included
		41.	Negative face	Where the individual asserts their need to be independent and make their own decisions

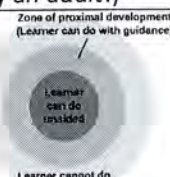
Child Language Acquisition (Speech) – Key Theories

Key Terminology		
1.	Operant conditioning	A positive or a negative response given by a caregiver can influence the way in which a child talks on future occasions
2.	Positive reinforcement	Encouraging or establishing a pattern of behaviour by rewards and praise
3.	Negative reinforcement	Stopping a child from repeating a mistake through correction, punishment, ignoring or a denial of wants (eg. being told off for forgetting 'please')
4.	Universal grammar	All human languages possess similar grammatical properties which the brain is hardwired to be able to decode and use
5.	LAD (Language Acquisition Device)	1. Baby is born with an innate knowledge of language so already knows linguistic rules 2. Baby hears examples of his/ her native language 3. The linguistic rules help Baby make presumptions about the language it is hearing 4. From these estimations and presumption Baby works out grammatical sets of rules. As more language is heard the grammar becomes more and more like adults
6.	Critical period hypothesis	The crucial time to acquire a first language; if language input does not occur until after this time, the individual will never achieve a full command of language, especially grammatical systems
7.	Egocentric	A child is unable to see a situation from another person's point of view or mentally process the concept that something can exist outside their immediate surroundings
8.	Object permanence	A child understands something can exist without having to see it
9.	Piaget Stages	Sensorimotor (up to 2) Experiences the physical world through the senses and begins classifying the things in it; lexis tends to be concrete; object permanence develops
10.		Pre-operational (2-7) Language and motor skills develop; language is egocentric
11.		Concrete operational (7-11) Begins thinking logically about concrete events
12.		Formal operational (11+) Abstract reasoning skills develop
13.	Interpersonal speech	Also termed social speech, this is external communication used to talk with one another.
14.	Intrapersonal speech	Also termed private speech, this is communication that a person directs at themselves – typical from age 3.
15.	Silent inner speech	What happens when private speech is internalised – typical at around age 7.
16.	Intentional reading	When language is spoken, the child understands the meaning and intentions around them from the language and gestures being used (eg. children identify the words communicating the most meaning and use these in the holophrastic stage)
17.	Pattern finding	On reaching the two-word stage, a child can understand the effect of particular word pairing and patterns (eg. more + noun), developing grammatical accuracy.
18.	Constructions	Chunks of language (such as slot-and-frame constructions)
19.	Slot-and-frames	Constructions with a reliable pattern which can be populated with different variables (eg. 'it's a X/ where's X' with X being the variable that can be filled by different items)
Behaviourism (Nurture)		
20.	Skinner (1957)	Skinner believed that biology plays almost no part in the way children learn language. He experimented on rats and believed his findings on operant conditioning could be extended to language development. He stated that all behaviour is conditioned through positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement . <i>Criticism: Chomsky questioned the validity of experiments on rats and pigeons to offer comment on humans' capacity to learn.</i>
21.	Albert Bandura (1989)	Bobo Doll Experiment - When children saw violent treatment of a doll prior to a period of play with the doll, they were far more likely to imitate this behaviour. Bandura explicitly emphasised the importance of language modelling – the language to which a child is exposed is likely to be imitated by the child in the same way as behaviour.
Nativism (Nature)		
22.	Noam Chomsky	Chomsky stated that children are born with an innate knowledge of language and universal grammar . This innate ability to learn language is governed by the LAD which he suggested needed activating and is the reason children sometime over regularise and put grammar into utterances when they are not needed. <i>Criticism: Tomasello called Chomsky an armchair theorist as his ideas were only speculative.</i>

23.	Jean Berko Gleason (1958)	Wug Test - When faced with a picture of an imaginary 'wug': 76% of four-to-five-year-olds formed the regular -s plural. 97% of five -to-seven-year-olds formed the regular -s plural Berko Gleason found that even very young children are able to connect suitable suffixes—to produce plurals, past tenses, possessives, etc.—to nonsense words they have never heard before, implying that they have already internalized systematic aspects of the linguistic system.
24.	Steven Pinker (1994)	In 'The Language Instinct', Pinker suggests that rather than being a human invention, language is an innate human ability because: - Deaf babies "babble" with their hands as others normally do with voice, and spontaneously invent sign languages with true grammar. - Even in the absence of active attempts by parents to correct children's grammar, accurate speech develops.
25.	Nicaraguan Sign Language (1980s)	Deaf children in Nicaragua spontaneously collaborated to form their own sign language, suggesting an innate capacity to create a new language with quite sophisticated grammar systems
26.	Eric Lenneberg	Lenneberg proposed that the capacity to learn a language is innate but that if a child does not learn a language before the onset of puberty, the child will never master language at all; this is known as the critical period hypothesis . Evidence for Lenneberg's theories emerged from studies on feral children such as Genie and Oxana .
27.	Genie (1961)	A 13-year-old Los Angeles girl who had been locked away from all social interaction. Following her rescue, attempts to teach her English only ever produced partial success, and she never achieved full grammatical competence.
28.	Oxana (1991)	An 8-year-old who had lived with a pack of dogs, when she was found she could hardly speak and ran on all fours barking. Since being taught language; her speech is odd, without rhythm, inflection or tone. She speaks flatly, as though it's an order, and can still communicate through barking.
Cognitivism		
29.	Piaget	Piaget stated that children need to develop certain mental abilities before they can acquire particular aspects of language, so they cannot be taught before they are ready. Until around 18 months, children are egocentric, and then they begin to realise that things have object permanence. He proposed four development stages: sensorimotor, pre-operational, concrete operational, formal operational. <i>Criticism: Some people with learning difficulties are still linguistically fluent so cognitive development and language development are not always as closely connected as Piaget suggests.</i>
30.	Lewis & Ramsay (2004)	They found that pronoun development during a child's second year will depend on the extent to which the child has a sense of identity and can recognise the notion of self, particularly within the context of imaginative play.
31.	Repacholi & Gopnik (1997) <i>Criticism of Piaget's egocentricity</i>	In an experiment involving food, broccoli and crackers were offered to infants aged between 14 and 18 months, who preferred the crackers. When offering a snack to the researcher: 14-month-old would offer the cracker, irrespective of whether the researcher expressed an interest for broccoli or crackers. 18-month-old was able to identify the researcher had indicated a preference for broccoli and offered this. This suggests that from a very young age, children are sensitive to the needs and desires of others and are not entirely egocentric in their behaviour.
32.	Vygotsky	Vygotsky believed that sociocultural environment (interactions with adults, cultural norms, and environment) plays an important role in how children develop cognitively. He believed that when they learn that talking out loud is considered anti-social or eccentric, their intrapersonal speech 'goes underground', and becomes the ' silent inner speech ' that adults use to think with.
Usage-Based		
33.	Tomasello (2003)	Tomasello proposed a focus on the inter-connectedness of language development with intentional reading and pattern finding .
34.	Ibbotson (2012)	Ibbotson believed that instead of picking up single words and then learning to combine them according to a pre-programmed set of abstract grammatical rules, children pick up constructions which they are then able to adapt.
35.	Berko & Brown (1960)	'Fis phenomenon' - A child called his toy fish fis. When asked: "Is this your fis?", he said no. But when asked: "Is this your fj?", he said: "Yes, my fis." This is evidence that children's perceptual abilities are often in advance of their productive abilities.

Social Interactionism & CDS

1.	Social Interactionism	Social interactionism believes that carers scaffold conversation and interaction with children and that it is only through their interactions with adults that children learn the social pragmatics of language use.
Key Theorists		
2.	Bard & Sachs (Jim)	Bard and Sachs studied a boy called 'Jim', who was son of two deaf parents. Although he was exposed to TV and radio, his speech development was severely retarded. It demonstrated that simple exposure to language (e.g. from television) is not an effective stimulus to language learning; human interaction is necessary to develop speech
3.	Patricia Kuhl (TED Talk -The Linguistic Genius of Babies (2011))	Kuhl found that babies learn language best in social settings and that TV is not a substitute for interaction. In experiments using American and Japanese babies, those only watching TV or listening to audio did not show the ability to distinguish sounds in the same way as those who had human interaction. She also has asserted that the "critical period" for learning language is from birth until 7 years old and that from 6 to 12 months, babies have an incredible ability to distinguish different sounds no matter what the language.
4.	Clark-Stewart (1973)	Clark-Stewart found that children whose mothers talk more have larger vocabularies.
5.	John Macnamara	Macnamara stated that rather than having an in-built language device, children have an innate capacity to read meaning into social situations; it is this that makes them capable of understanding and learning language, not the LAD.
6.	Cruttenden (1974)	Cruttenden compared adults and children to see if they could predict football results from listening to the score. He found that adults could successfully predict the winners by the intonation placed on the first team, but the children (up to the age of 7) were less accurate
7.	Vygotsky	Vygotsky suggested that for children to learn they need an MKO who supports the child in moving beyond their ZPD , encouraging them to move beyond what they already know to what is not yet known by the means of scaffolding and support.
8.	Catherine Garvey	Garvey asserted that sociodramatic play usually begins when the child is around four-years-old and fulfils Halliday's imaginative function. In their re-enactments they use subject specific lexis and structure them in some of the formulaic ways that adults use in real-life situations, suggesting they can observe and imitate adult behaviours.
9.	David Crystal	Crystal states that 80% of interaction between parent and child is language play in the first year (eg. lullabies and nursery rhymes). Early play routines also demonstrate how language complements the patterns of visual and tactile contact (eg. nuzzling and tickling routines, finger walking, peeping sequences, bouncing games are accompanied by highly marked forms of utterance). He believes this language play continues throughout life, with children experimenting with phonetic play, prosodic variations, rhyming, nonsense words and morphological variations.
10.	Jerome Bruner	Bruner states that language learning is an innate ability but that, crucially, it needs activating through the Language Acquisition Support System (LASS) . This is exemplified by how parents often use books and images to develop their child's naming abilities and their ability to get involved in conversation: • Gaining attention - drawing the baby's attention to a picture • Query - asking the baby to identify the picture • Label - telling the baby what the object is • Feedback - responding to the baby's utterances
Key Terminology:		
11.	Scaffolding	The active support provided by caregivers/MKOs (eg. modelling). Children will initially be heavily reliant upon support but as they become more competent, the support can be reduced.
12.	MKO	<u>More Knowledgeable Other:</u> Someone who is able to offer support in language acquisition (this is not necessarily an adult!)
13.	ZPD	<u>Zone of Proximal Development:</u> The area between what a child can already do and that which is beyond their reach – it is where the MKO enables the child to progress by offering the necessary support through scaffolding.



14.	Sociodramatic play	In play, children adopt roles and identities, acting out storylines and inventing objects and settings, whilst practising social interaction with clear rules and reflecting real world behaviour.
15.	LASS	<u>Language Acquisition Support System:</u> Caregivers support their children's linguistic development in social situations, by interacting and encouraging the child to respond (by pointing, asking questions).
16.	Child Directed Speech (CDS)	First proposed by Catherine Snow, Child Directed Speech's key aims are to: • attract and hold the baby's attention • encourage a child to interact and respond • help the process of breaking down language into understandable chunks • make the conversation more predictable by keeping the conversation in the 'here and now' and referring to things the baby can see It is also called motherese, fatherese, carese, baby talk, parentese.
Key Theorists for CDS:		
17.	Catherine Snow (1970s)	Snow's research focussed on the ways in which mothers talk to their children and the connection to the child's age. She initially proposed the idea of child directed speech.
18.	Mark Vandam (2015)	Vandam distinguished between 'motherese' and 'fatherese' by stating that male talk to children is more likely to resemble that used to other adults, and is less likely to have the sing song intonation and simplification that is perhaps more attributable to a female caregiver.
19.	Hirsh-Pasek and Treiman (1982)	Hirsh-Pasek and Treiman found that even four-year-olds adjust their language when speaking to a two-year-old and that the way that adults talk to babies is similar to the way they talk to dogs.
20.	Schatz	Only 4% of children's errors corrected by caregivers
21.	Bryant and Clark Barrett (2007)	They undertook research which suggested that intentions can be recognised in CDS, regardless of whether the meaning is actually understood. For example, Shuar adults (South America) were able to successfully differentiate between child-directed and adult-directed speech even if the language being used was unknown so the words themselves could not be understood. They could sense whether the utterance was intended to prohibit, approve, comfort, or provide attention.
Features of CDS:		
22.	Higher pitch	
23.	Exaggerated intonation patterns for key content words as children tend to imitate the stressed words	
24.	Frequent use of the child's name and an absence of pronouns.	
25.	Questions and commands (getting the child to do something)	
26.	Questions where the w-word doesn't appear in its usual place but where the baby must replace with a word (eg. you ate what?)	
27.	Repeated sentence frames. This occurs when the parent uses the same structure over and over, filling in part of it with a different word each time, e.g. 'That's a ...'	
28.	Absence of past tenses (e.g. threw, ran, played).	
29.	One-word utterances.	
30.	Use of simple sentences (e.g. Shoogle is a nice cat)	
31.	Omission of inflections such as plurals and possessives	
32.	Fewer verbs, modifiers (adjectives in front of nouns) and function words (e.g. at, my)	
33.	Use of concrete nouns and dynamic verbs	
34.	Simplification of lexis to become more general (eg. calling tulips, roses and bluebells 'flowers')	
35.	Repetition and partial repetition of the adult's own words.	
36.	Use of re-castings — where the baby's vocabulary is put into a new utterance.	
Criticism of CDS:		
37.	Papua New Guinea	In the Kaluli Tribe in Papua New Guinea, adults speak to children as they speak to adult, and children acquire language at the same pace as elsewhere.
38.	Samoa	In some tribes of Samoa, parents do not speak to their children until they reach a certain age. These children still go through the same developmental stages at roughly the same time provided there is exposure to language.

Milestones in CLA

Approx. Age	Function / Pragmatics	Phonology	Syntax/Morphology	Lexis and Semantics
0 - 9 Months	Mainly instrumental and regulatory ; attention-seeking ; basic statements and requests	Babbling Basic exchanges of pre-verbal sounds between parent and child rehearse basic patterns of conversational turn taking . Basic intonation patterns emerge even pre-verbally. This will allow holophrases to be used to express different functions and meanings . Some consonant and vowel phrases appear, often very inconsistently (e.g. /b/, /d/, /m/, /li/, /a/, /u/). Repetition of groups of similar sounds or reduplication (e.g. baba = baby, or nana - grandma) may be common.		
9 - 18 Months	Interactional, instrumental, and regulatory functions start to be served by verbal as well as non-verbal utterances . Early language includes basic statements, labelling and requests .		The 'one-word' stage . Most utterances consist of a single item - holophrases - e.g. mamma, juice, teddy, though they may carry more pragmatic meanings (e.g. dada = I want daddy to play with me).	Much naming of people and objects in the immediate environment . Semantic fields include food, the body, clothes, family members and toys. Meanings are context- and —phonology dependent .
18 months - 2 years	Speech may start to include exchanges of information (representational language)	Some use of stress to distinguish meanings (e.g. MY car not anyone else's). More phonemes appear, though words may be quite different from adult speech.	The '2-word' stage . Speech includes many such combinations including basic questions (where teddy?). Word order becomes important (e.g. 'teddy play', 'play teddy'). First grammatical suffixes (inflections) e.g. -ing -s (plurals) -ed (tense).	Much classification . Spatial location (up, down, in, out etc). Attributes of objects (hot, cold, big, small etc).
2 - 2½ years	More complex requests .	Vowel sounds becoming more consistent; pronunciation generally closer to speech as most phonemes appear and reduplication disappears. Intonation/stress/other prosodic features continue to develop.	Sentences expand to three or more elements - the beginnings of the so-called telegraphic stage . E.g. 'Daddy drive car', 'Harry fall down'. More grammatical inflections (-s, -ing etc) begin to appear.	Lots of actions — sometimes in the past , less often in the future . 'Function' words like <i>the, is, a</i> begin to appear more frequently.
2½ - 3 years	Requests for explanations ('why?!') may mark increasingly heuristic and imaginative functions. Indirect requests ('Can I have..?')	Continuing stabilisation and development of phonemic and prosodic aspects - though some consonants (such as l, r, th) still not acquired, especially in combinations e.g. <i>thick</i> in which /f/ is likely to be substituted for /θ/	Sentences expand to four or more elements . Simple sentences complete. Inflections on verbs and nouns becoming more consistent. Use of auxiliary verbs .	More abstract ideas and relationships
3 - 3½ years	A full range of functions now, including representing feelings and attitudes .	Increasingly subtle use of 'meaningful' intonation patterns ('do I HAVE to?')	More complex sentences emerge, including confident use of pronouns E.g. I want the car daddy bought me.	Conditional or hypothetical meanings ('what if...?') Specific references to time past, present and future .
3½ - 4 years	Continued development in sophisticated use of interactional, heuristic and imaginative language functions.	Acquisition of phonemic system completed; some subtleties of intonation/ stress patterns continue to be acquired with further development and social experience.	More consistent use of irregular verb and noun endings; and auxiliary verbs (e.g. in questions and negatives); Over-generalised forms (e.g. I failed) self-corrected .	Continued development in ability to use more precise, abstract and varied vocabulary and meanings .
4½ years onwards	Basic grammatical structures in place. Later development will show increasingly stylistic versatility and adaptability.			

Frameworks for analysing Child Language

Phonology	Do the children create accurate sounds reflecting adult speech? Are there any patterns in the errors made?
Lexis	Which words appear and what do these words relate to in the child's world? How many different words appear? Which word classes are used and which are missing?
Semantics	What do the words mean? Do the children seem to have a grasp of the words' meanings? Are there any issues over correct labelling of objects, creatures, people?
Grammar	Are the words in the 'correct' order? How many suffixes and inflections are used? Are there any patterns emerging?
Pragmatics	How is turn-taking used? Do the children understand or use less obvious/more indirect forms of communication? How cooperative are the children in their exchanges?

Glossary of useful terms for analysing child language acquisition

Addition	Involves the addition of an extra vowel sound to the end; so adult 'egg' might be pronounced 'egu'
Assimilation	this happens when one consonant or vowel becomes similar to another, as in 'gog' for 'dog'.
Communicative Competence	Coined by Del Hymes re: the skills associated with conversation e.g. when and how to speak
Deletion	Children will often simplify pronunciation by deleting certain sounds
De-voicing	use of a de-voiced (voiceless) consonant instead of a voiced one, i.e. [t] instead of [d], or [s] instead of [z].
Diphthong	a two part vowel such as 'au' or 'ou'
Expressive	Also known as scribble talk. The baby makes long strings of babbled jargon sounds which sound like normal conversation.
Fricative Sounds	Where there is vibration whilst air is released, such as [f], [z], [s] - e.g. the 's' in pleasure
Function	This is a more technical word for the purpose of an utterance.
Gurgling	When babies are 6-8 weeks old they make sounds like 'coo', 'goo' or 'ga-ga'.
Holophrase	A one word utterance / sentence that conveys meaning. E.g. 'Dada', 'hot'.
Inflections	These are parts of words (morphological markers) that show some grammatical function like past tense (-ed), or plural (-s)
Innate	Anything which is innate is present from birth and is presumed to be biologically programmed. Derived from French verb 'nass'. Other words include natural; ante-natal etc
Intonation and stress	The intonation of an utterance can be determined by factors like which word is stressed or whether or not the pitch rises or falls. E.g. rising intonation often indicates a question.
Lexis	Another term for vocabulary
Linguistic competence	Chomsky's term for a person's underlying knowledge of linguistic rules. It is the knowledge that enables people to create new sentences
Over - extension	A word is given a broader, more general meaning than it should have.
Over - regularisation	Applying regular verb tenses to irregular verbs, e.g. he drived, he goed or using regular plural - s to irregular plural forms e.g. sheeps, mouses.
Phoneme	This is the smallest unit of sound that makes a difference to the meaning of a word. A long or short 'a' can make the difference between 'cat' and 'cart'.

Glossary of useful terms for analysing child language acquisition

Phonemic expansion	During babbling phase, the number of different sounds produced by child increases initially.
Phonemic contraction	At 9-10 months reduction begins to occur
Pragmatics	This is the study of the way language functions in society, often with unspoken rules for communication. A child with perfect grammar but with no knowledge of pragmatics would not know what language is used for. Language use in a particular context or situation.
Pre-linguistic	This is usually the time before a baby's first word is uttered.
Reduplication	The repetition of a whole syllable, as in 'choo choo', 'moo moo' and 'woof woof'. This has become a recognised feature of 'baby talk'. Also refers to babbling.
Semantics	This is the study of linguistic meaning or the meaning of words. In the field of language acquisition semantic development looks at how children's meanings differ from adults'. For example, when a child uses 'dog' to mean any animal with four legs.
Stages	In language acquisition studies a stage is a period in a child's development characterised by certain linguistic features. Gordon Wells offers this advice '... 'referring' to stages is nothing more than a convenient way to describe the child's development . In fact this development is more or less continuous, with no sharp boundaries between successive stages.' (1986)
Substitution	Another form of simplification involves substituting easier sounds for harder ones. E.g. [r] in rock becomes [w]
Syntax	This refers to the rules for combining words in English
Turn-taking	This refers to the tendency for people in conversation to take turns to speak. Linguists are interested in uncovering the rules that govern this behaviour.
Underextension	A common semantic error made by children when a word is given a narrower meaning than it should have.
Voicing	This refers to the vibration of the vocal chords to produce the difference between [z] and [s].

Features of speech

Agenda	What bias or attitude/s do the speakers have towards the topic being discussed?
Adjacency pairs	Where a person responds to an initial utterance in a directly related way, e.g. one person asks a question and another answers it. It must be related text split over two participants.
Back-channelling	Verbal or non-verbal feedback to indicate that a speaker is in agreement and listening, but not wishing to take over a turn.
Backtracking	When a viewpoint is explicitly changed.
Closing conversation	Phatic utterances to indicate a conversation is coming to an end, e.g. 'Right then, it was lovely catching up'
Co-operative signals	Verbal or non-verbal cues to show cooperation between two participants.
Deictics	Reference to objects around that can be seen, e.g. 'Can you see <i>those</i> chairs?'
Feedback	Indications of agreement or disagreement with a point of view.
Fillers	Sounds which maintain a person's turn, but are otherwise semantically empty, e.g. 'I was <i>like</i> starving.'
High considerateness/high involvement speakers	High considerateness is where a speaker is conscious and considerate of other speakers' right to a turn. High involvement speakers take more turns and speak for longer.
Metamessages	The underlying, real message of a phrase. E.g. 'It's dark in here' = turn on the light.
Opening conversation: request, question, offer	Phatic talk to open a conversation, e.g. 'Hi, how are you?'
Overlap (co-operative)	Where two people are talking at the same time, but it is a cooperative interruption.
Pauses	Gaps in the conversation. Used for thinking time, to indicate the end of an utterance or as punctuation in an utterance.
Phatic talk	Utterances which maintain relationships, but are semantically reasonably meaningless, 'Hi', 'You all right?',

Features of speech

	etc.
Rapport talk/report talk	Rapport talk is interactional and simply to maintain relationships – e.g. joking around with friends. Report talk is to convey a message.
Repetition	Repeating an utterance or part of an utterance for clarity or to suggest agreement.
Simultaneous speech	Where two speakers overlap.
Tag questions	Mini questions to emphasise a point, e.g. 'It's a lovely day, <i>isn't it?</i> ', 'They look pretty, <i>don't they?</i> '
Turn-taking	The negotiation of how one person hands over control of a conversation to another smoothly. This can be done with verbal or non-verbal cues. Verbal cues might be the completion of a sentence, a dropping of tone, a question, a long pause, etc. Non-verbal cues might be looking directly at someone or other gestures.
Uncompleted sentences	Utterances which are grammatically incomplete. This is normal in speech.
Utterance types: statement (declarative); question (interrogative); command (imperative); exclamation	Same as sentence functions.
Utterance	A unit of speech. The utterance ends when the speaker gives their turn to someone else or to silence. DO NOT USE the words 'sentence' or 'paragraph' – they are meaningless in speech analysis.

KNOWLEDGE ORGANISERS

Paper 2 – Language diversity and change

A LEVEL ENGLISH LANGUAGE: LANGUAGE AND GENDER		
TERMINOLOGY		
1.	Amelioration	The meaning of a word or phrase becomes increasingly positive over time.
2.	Bitching	The exchange of emotions by women, often expressing anger and complaints.
3.	Deficit model	The belief that language used by women is inferior to the language used by men.
4.	Difference model	The belief that men and women have innate differences in the style and function of their speech and writing.
5.	Diversity model	The belief that gender is not the only thing influencing men and women's language use, rather their language behaviours are affected by the groups they belong to.
6.	Dominance model	The belief that the differences in language use by men and women can be explained by the hierarchical dominance of men within society.
7.	Euphemism	Words or phrases that are used to refer to things that others may find upsetting or embarrassing.
8.	Filler	A seemingly meaningless word, phrase or sound that marks a pause or hesitation in speech.
9.	Folk linguistics	The opinions and beliefs that non linguists hold about language use.
10.	Gender neutral terms	Words or phrases that avoid bias towards a particular gender.
11.	Genderlect	The particular dialect used by men and women depending on their gender.
12.	Hedge	A word or phrase that makes a statement less forceful or assertive.
13.	Hegemonic masculinity	Language and behaviour associated with an idealised male group that is seen to have the most power and status within society.
14.	Heteronormativity	The belief that heterosexuality is the norm or default sexual orientation.
15.	House talk	The discussion of the female role as an occupation.
16.	Hypercorrection	A pronunciation, word form or grammatical construction produced by mistaken analogy with standard usage in a desire to be correct.
17.	Interruption	Speaking at the same time as another speaker with the intention of taking the turn from them.
18.	Marked terms	The unusual form of a term, often shown by an additional suffix e.g. ladette. The unmarked term would be the regular form e.g. lad.
19.	Minimal response	Short sounds or words that are used to maintain a conversation. Shows the listener is listening.
20.	Pejoration	The meaning of a word or phrase becomes increasingly negative over time.
21.	Pejorative term	A judgemental term that usually implies disapproval or criticism.
22.	Performativity	Using speech and other communication methods to construct or perform an identity.
23.	Rapport talk	Attempting to build relationships through speech. Typically associated with female speech.
24.	Reclamation	The cultural process of removing negative associations with a particular word or phrase that have been used against a less powerful social group by a more powerful one.
25.	Representation	The portrayal of events, people and circumstances through language (and image and sound) to create a way of seeing the world.
26.	Social constructivism	Places importance on social interaction as constructing identity and people coming together to create a shared construction of the world.
27.	Socialisation process	Learning to be a participating member of a society.
28.	Stereotype	A fixed generalised set of characteristics that are widely believed to represent a particular type of person or thing.
29.	Tag question	A short question added at the end of a sentence, often inviting agreement with the speaker. Sometimes seen to be used as seeking reassurance.
30.	Up talk	Rising intonation used at the end of declarative statements.
31.	Variable	A contextual factor that can influence speech and writing
32.	Verbal hygiene	The effort to improve or correct speech and writing to arrest change in language.

THEORIES			
33.	Robin Lakoff (1975)	Deficit	Women are socialised into behaving like 'ladies' (linguistically and within society) and that this subordinate position within society stops them being powerful.
34.	Dale Spender (1980)	Dominance	Believes that a male dominated society has structured and regulated language to reflect men's best interests.
35.	Zimmerman and West (1974)	Dominance	Men are more likely to interrupt women in a mixed sex conversation, suggesting their dominance.
36.	Geoffrey Beattie (1982)	Dominance	Critical of Zimmerman and West. In his own study found that whilst men interrupted more it was by such a slight margin that it wasn't statistically significant.
37.	Pamela Fishman (1983)	Dominance	Women do more of the conversational work, due to their inferior position within society.
38.	Deborah Tannen (1990)	Difference	Women use language differently from men not out of inferiority, but because they have been socialised differently and have different conversational goals. They are aiming to keep a conversation going through their use of tag questions.
39.	Jennifer Coates (1988/89)	Difference	Found that boys and girls tended to belong to same sex friendship groups and subsequently developed different styles of speaking.
40.	Deborah Jones (1990)	Difference	Categorised women's talk into four main groups; house talk, scandal, bitching and chatting.
41.	Jane Pilkington (1992)	Difference	Women in same sex conversations are collaborative and used positive politeness strategies. Men in same sex conversations were less collaborative, less complimentary and less supportive than women.
42.	Penny Eckert (1990)	Diversity	Suggested that we need to explore other reason for language variation such as class.
43.	Deborah Cameron (2009)	Diversity	The gender 'template' doesn't fit everyone; suggesting that there can be as many differences in communication between two men as there could be between a man and a woman.
44.	Janet Holmes (1984)	Diversity	Researched tag questions; discovering they could be used to express solidarity, or that they could weaken a command or criticism.
45.	O'Barr and Atkins (1980)	Diversity	Studied courtrooms and the speech of witnesses. Found that language differences are based on situation specific authority or power, rather than gender.
46.	Janet Hyde (2005)	Diversity	Gender similarities hypothesis: men and women are similar on most, but not all, psychological variables. This includes speech.
47.	Judith Butler (1993)	The way we present ourselves, such as our speech and body language, and continually repeat these presentations, constructs our gender rather than reflecting it.	
48.	Victor Seidler (1989)	Men and women tend to discuss different topics in single sex conversations.	
49.	James Pennebaker (2005)	In mixed sex conversation the average number of words spoken by men and women were about the same. There was more difference noted within genders than between them.	
50.	Jenny Cheshire (1982)	Males are more susceptible to covert prestige, but social attitude is more of a determining factor than gender.	

A LEVEL ENGLISH LANGUAGE: ACCENT AND DIALECT		
TERMINOLOGY		
1.	Accent	Variation in pronunciation, often associated with a particular geographical region.
2.	Code switching	When speakers who speak two or more different languages switch from one to the other, often in mid conversation. Can also be used to refer to switching between dialects of the same accent.
3.	Convergence	When two accents or dialects stop begin different and become more similar.
4.	Covert prestige	The less obvious or hidden prestige associated with the use of certain non-standard varieties of a language within particular social groups.
5.	Descriptivism	An approach to language study that focuses on how language is actually used.
6.	Dialect	Variation in words and grammatical structures associated with a particular geographical region.
7.	Dialect levelling	The process by which language forms of different parts of the country converge and become more similar over time, with the loss of regional features and reduced diversity of language.
8.	Diphthong	A vowel sound where there is a noticeable sound change within the syllable. Also known as a long vowel e.g. /ai/ in eye.
9.	Divergence	When the differences between two accents or dialects become increasingly different.
10.	Estuary English	Accent spreading outwards, along the Thames, from London containing features of both RP and London speech.
11.	Eye dialect	The deliberate use of misspellings to identify a speaker who is using a regional or non-standard form of English. So called because we see rather than hear the difference.
12.	Heterophones	Words with the same spelling but a different meaning and sound.
13.	Homophones	Words with the same sound but a different meaning and spelling.
14.	Idiomatic phrases	A phrase which has an accepted and known meaning that is different from the dictionary definition of the word. E.g. he's part of the furniture now; you've hit the nail on the head.
15.	Idiolect	Variation in language use which is specific to a particular person.
16.	Lexical set	A group of words which have the same vowel sound in a given variety of English.
17.	Monophthong	A single vowel sound e.g. /i:/ in read.
18.	Multiple negation	A sentence or utterance containing more than one negative.
19.	Non-Standard English	Not conforming to the recognised way of speaking or writing.
20.	Overt prestige	The obvious prestige associated with the use of the standard variety of a language within a particular society. Connected to notions of speaking 'properly'.
21.	Phoneme	The smallest individual unit of sound in a language which conveys meaning.
22.	Phonetics	The study of how speech sounds are made and received
23.	Phonology	The study of the sound systems of languages, in particular the patterns of sounds
24.	Plural marking	The method of making a singular noun into its plural form.
25.	Postvocalic /r/	The /r/ sound that appears after a vowel and before a consonant e.g. farm, or at the end of a word e.g. far. It is not pronounced in most English accents.
26.	Prescriptivism	An approach to language study that focuses on rules and notions of correctness.
27.	Prosodics	Non-verbal aspects of speech like pace, stress, pitch, intonation and volume
28.	Queen's English	Received pronunciation; how the Queen, and other members of the ruling classes, stereotypically speak.
29.	Received pronunciation	An English accent which does not indicate a person's geographical location, rather is recognised as belonging to a person with a higher social status.
30.	Register	The situation or context in which a discourse event takes place which motivates the speaker or writer to adopt a particular register.
31.	Rhotic accent	An accent which pronounces postvocalic /r/
32.	Social mobility	A phrase used to describe a person's move from one social class to another.
33.	Standard English	The form of the English language widely accepted as the correct form of speaking and writing.
34.	Th-fronting	Pronunciation of 'th' as /f/ or /v/. e.g. 'think' becomes 'fink' and 'with' becomes 'wiv'.

35.	Unmarked plurality	When a singular form of a noun is used rather than a plural.
THEORIES		
36.	Carmen Llamas (2007)	Created Sense Relation Networks (SRNs). This draws upon the idea that within the mind there exists a network of interconnected words and phrases. Used to explore patterns of lexical variations across regions.
37.	Dixon, Mahoney and Cocks (2002)	Used a 'matched guise' approach to explore the correlation between accent and perceived guilt. Suspects were perceived to be significantly more likely to be guilty when they spoke with the non-standard Birmingham form.
38.	Gerard Van Herk (2012)	The use of covert prestige is 'the linguistic equivalent of street credibility'.
39.	Howard Giles (1973)	Accommodation theory: The idea that people have different levels of formality of language at their disposal, and will converge or diverge their language depending on their situation.
40.	Howard Giles (1975)	Investigated RP and Birmingham accent. The same speaker used two different accents to discuss psychology. The RP 'speaker' was rated higher in terms of competence and intelligence.
41.	Jonathon Harrington (2000)	Tracked changes in the Queens speech over a thirty year period. Certain aspects of her speech have moved towards a more general southern British English variety, rather than RP.
42.	Paul Kerswill (1999)	Studied dialect levelling in Hull, Reading and Milton Keynes. The more people mix in different networks, the more people move in from elsewhere and the more scope there is for social mobility can have an impact on language used.
43.	Peter Trudgill (1974)	Studied the -ng sound at the end of words in Norwich. Found the -g was dropped more widely in lower social classes.
44.	Thomas Pear (1931)	People had different perceptions of a speaker depending on the accent that they had heard them speak with.
45.	William Labov (1960's)	Martha's Vinyard: The locals resisted dialect levelling due to 'summer people', claiming their identity as residents. Divergence was used to mark the change.
46.	William Labov (1966)	Studied the procononantal /r/ in New York City department stores. Found that the lower middle class were most susceptible to overt prestige.
CASE STUDIES		
NORWICH		LIVERPOOL
47.	In words such as 'city' the final sound is pronounced /i:/.	55. In words such as 'city' the final sound is pronounced /i:/.
48.	In words such as 'dance' and 'bath' the vowel sound is /ɑ:/.	56. In words such as 'dance' and 'bath' the vowel sound is /æ/.
49.	[ʊ] and /ʌ/ sounds are both present and distinguish between words like 'put' and 'putt'.	57. There is no distinction between words like 'put' and 'putt'. Both are pronounced /put/ as there is no /ʌ/ vowel.
50.	In words such as 'room' the vowel sound is /ʊ/ rather than /u:/.	58. There is no contrast between pairs of words like 'fair' and 'fir' which are usually pronounced with the vowel sound /eə/.
WEST MIDLANDS		BRADFORD
51.	In words such as 'city' the final sound is pronounced /i:/ although sometimes a diphthong is used, such as /eɪ/.	59. In words such as 'city' the final sound is pronounced /ɪ/.
52.	In words such as 'dance' and 'bath' the vowel sound is /æ/.	60. In words such as 'dance' and 'bath' the vowel sound is /æ/.
53.	There is no distinction between words like 'put' and 'putt'. Both are pronounced /put/.	61. There is no distinction between words like 'put' and 'putt'. Both are pronounced /put/.
54.	'One' and 'won' are distinguished as /wɒn/ and /wʊn/.	62. Words such as 'make' and 'take' are pronounced /mek/ and /tek/.

A LEVEL ENGLISH LANGUAGE: LANGUAGE AND OCCUPATION		
TERMINOLOGY		
1.	Adjacency pair	A simple structure of two turns.
2.	Asymmetrical relationship	Unequal power balance between two people.
3.	Convergence	Move language styles and patterns to more closely match those of other speakers.
4.	Discourse community	A group of people with shared interests and belief systems who are likely to use language in similar ways.
5.	Divergence	Move language styles and patterns to be increasingly different from those of other speakers.
6.	Hedge	A word or phrase which softens what is said or written to make it less direct.
7.	Illocutionary speech act	The implied meaning that a text producer wants you to understand.
8.	In group	An exclusive group of people with shared interests or identity.
9.	Influential power	A type of power that is persuasive rather than imposing.
10.	Instrumental power	A type of power that is explicit and often imposed by a higher authority.
11.	IRE/ IRF	Initiation; response; evaluation/feedback – The routine structure for short interactions.
12.	Jargon	The vocabulary and manner of speech that define and reflect a particular profession which may be difficult for others to understand.
13.	Legalese	Legal register associated with the domain of law.
14.	Lexicon	The words used in a language or the words used in a language by a person or group of people.
15.	Locutionary speech act	The literal meaning of something.
16.	Management speech	Mocking term given to the way in which business people speak.
17.	Occupation	A job or profession.
18.	Occupational register	The words or phrases used solely in a particular job, or have originated from a particular occupation.
19.	Perlocutionary speech act	The perceived meaning that the text receiver understands.
20.	Phatic talk	Socially orientated talk
21.	Plain English Campaign	A campaign established to ensure that documents produced by companies are clear and understandable.
22.	Power asymmetry	A power imbalance between speakers shown by the unequal way they address each other.
23.	Register	A variety of language that is associated with a particular situation of use
24.	Semantic field	A group of words which have similar connotations, or which are part of the same theme.
25.	Unequal encounters	When one speaker has accepted dominance over another influencing language choices.
THEORIES		
26.	Drew and Heritage (1992)	Identified the key difference between everyday conversation and workplace talk e.g. goal orientated speech and turn taking rules and restrictions.
27.	Drew and Heritage (1993)	Inferential frameworks: members of a discourse community share implicit ways of thinking, behaving and communicating. Constraints on language use are dictated by workplace hierarchies.
28.	Herbert and Straight (1989)	In the workplace compliments flow downwards, from higher status to lower status workers.
29.	Holmes and Marra (2002)	Women use just as much humour as men in the workplace; citing the same reasons for their humour. Women are more likely however, to encourage supportive and collaborative humour.

30.	Hornyak (1994)	The shift from work talk to personal talk is initiated by the highest ranking person in the room.
31.	Howard Giles (1973)	Accommodation theory: The idea that people have different levels of formality of language at their disposal, and will converge or diverge their language depending on their situation.
32.	Janet Holmes (1998)	Women managers are more likely to negotiate consensus of an idea of plan, compared to men who will press through their agenda.
33.	John Swales (1990)	Professional discourse communities occur due to the professional lexis used to maximise efficiency in the workplace.
34.	Koester (2003)	Phatic talk is important for increasing productivity in the work place, by establishing positive interpersonal relationships and building solidarity between workers.
35.	Porter (1992)	Workplaces or professions with increasingly complex bureaucratic or technical procedures are more likely to develop stronger and more restricted discourse communities.

A LEVEL ENGLISH LANGUAGE: LANGUAGE AND SOCIAL GROUPS

TERMINOLOGY

1.	Accommodation	How people adjust their speech behaviours to match others; this can be aspects of accent, grammar, vocabulary and even the style of speech delivery.
2.	Anti-language	A minority dialect, or method of communicating, within a minority speech community that excludes members of the main speech community.
3.	Discourse community	A group of people with shared interests and belief systems who are likely to use language in similar ways.
4.	Divergence	When an individual changes their language choices (usually temporarily) to become more dissimilar to another individual or group.
5.	Downwards convergence	A speaker's emphasis on the non-standard aspects of their speech emphasising the covert prestige of non-standard forms.
6.	Face	The concept that all communication relies on presenting a 'face' to listeners and audiences.
7.	Face threatening Act	An act which challenges the face of another participant in the conversation.
8.	Field specific lexis	Vocabulary that is only related to a particular field or work activity.
9.	Idiolect	Variation in language use which is specific to a particular person.
10.	Interactional speech	Communication that primarily serves the purpose of social interaction, e.g. small talk and conversation.
11.	Jargon	The vocabulary and manner of speech that define and reflect a particular profession which may be difficult for others to understand.
12.	Lavender linguistics	The study of LGBTQ+ language.
13.	Mode	The medium of communication, which divides fundamentally into speech and writing.
14.	Multiplexity	The number of separate social connects between any two people. A single tie between individuals, such as a shared workplace, is a uniplex relationship.
15.	Negative politeness	A way to make a request without giving offence by showing deference – often shown through hedging (a word or phrase that makes a statement less forceful or assertive), questioning and presenting disagreements as opinions.
16.	Non-standard English	Not conforming to the recognised way of speaking or writing.
17.	Off-Record (indirect)	The use of indirect language by a speaker to remove the potential of being imposing.
18.	Oppressive discourse strategy	Commonly used by superiors in conversation as a method of exerting their power. The use of direct language e.g. telling someone with less power within the group to 'shut up'.
19.	Polari	Gay slang language.
20.	Politeness strategies	Speech acts that express concern for others and minimise threats to self-esteem ("face") in particular social contexts – there are positive and negative politeness strategies.
21.	Positive politeness	A way to make a request without giving offence by highlighting friendliness – often shown through compliments, common ground, jokes, tag questions, honorifics (title of address such as Mrs) and specific discourse markers (please).
22.	Repressive discourse strategy	Power is displayed more subtly, and can go unnoticed in conversation. Indirect language is used, and social standing is subconsciously demonstrated. e.g. a group member stating 'they prefer the quiet'.
23.	Slang	Words, expressions and meanings that are informal and used by people in similar social groups.
24.	Small talk	Polite conversation about unimportant or uncontroversial matters, especially as engaged in on social occasions.
25.	Social network	The structure of a particular speech community. Social networks, and the interactions between the members within them, are a driving force behind language change.
26.	Sociolect	Variation in language use associated with membership of a particular social group.

27.	Standard English	The form of the English language widely accepted as the correct form of speaking and writing.
28.	Taboo	A word, topic, or phrase that is social custom to avoid using or discussing as people find them embarrassing or offensive.
29.	Tag question	A short question added at the end of a sentence, often inviting agreement with the speaker. Sometimes seen to be used as seeking reassurance.
30.	Transactional speech	Language which is used to make a transaction, and creates a result. It is different from interactional language which is used to maintain relationships.
31.	Upwards convergence	A speaker's emphasis on the standard aspects of their speech emphasising the prestige of standard forms.
THEORIES		
32.	Anna-Brita Stenström et al (2002)	Common features of teen speak include: slang, irregular turn taking, verbal duelling, overlaps, teasing and name calling, indistinct articulation, taboo and language mixing.
33.	Brown and Levinson (1978)	Bald On-Record: A direct way of saying things, without any minimisation to the imposition, in a direct, clear and unambiguous way. e.g. 'Do X!'
34.	Ignacio Palacios Martinez (2011)	Teenagers use more negatives than adults; are more direct and not afraid of face threatening acts. Multiple negation is a common feature of teenage language.
35.	Jenny Cheshire (1982)	Adult and child language develops in response to important life events such as marriage, child birth and change in social situations.
36.	Lesley Milroy (1980)	Social networks are composed of a 'web of ties' between individuals. BELFAST
37.	Michael Halliday (1976)	Constructed the idea of an anti-language.
38.	Penelope Eckert (1997)	Argues that three different ways to define age: chronological age (years since birth), biological age (physical maturity) and social age (linked to life events such as marriage and having children).
39.	Penelope Eckert (2003)	Slang is used to connect an individual to youth culture and to disassociate themselves with other generations.
40.	Unni Berland (1997)	Teenagers often use tags such as 'innit', 'right' and 'yeah'. 'Innit' is used more by working class and 'yeah' by middle class.
41.	Vivian de Klerk (2005)	Younger people have the freedom to challenge linguistic norms; they seek establish new identities. Patterns of speech formed by parents are eroded by patterns within their peer groups.
42.	Zimmerman (2009)	Factors that influence teen speak include the media, music, graffiti and new forms of communication.

A LEVEL ENGLISH LANGUAGE: WORLD ENGLISHES

TERMINOLOGY

1.	Acrolect	The variety of speech that is closest to a standard prestige language, especially in an area where a creole is spoken.
2.	Basilect	The variety of speech that is most remote to a standard prestige language, especially in an area where a creole is spoken.
3.	Code switching	When speakers who speak two or more different languages switch from one to the other, often in mid conversation. Can also be used to refer to switching between dialects of the same accent.
4.	Colonisation	The action or process of settling among and establishing control over the indigenous people of an area.
5.	Covert prestige	The less obvious or hidden prestige associated with the use of certain non-standard varieties of a language within particular social groups.
6.	Creole	A mother tongue formed from the contact of a European language (especially English and French) with local languages (especially African languages spoken by slaves in the West Indies).
7.	Crossing	The practice of using particular features of speech that 'belong' to a different ethnicity from that of the speaker.
8.	Diasporas	The dispersal of language around the world.
9.	Ethnicity	A shared social identity consisting of social practices, language, beliefs and history. You have some control over your ethnic affiliation.
10.	Ethnolect	A variety of language that is associated with a particular ethnic group.
11.	Ethnolinguistic repertoire	A set of linguistic resources that are available to be used by individual speakers in order to signal their ethnic identity.
12.	Globalisation	The process by which businesses, or other organisations, develop international influence or operate on an international scale.
13.	Heritage Language	A language that is not the dominant language in the society in which someone lives, yet it is one that is spoken at home.
14.	Inkhorn	Borrowing a foreign word into English deemed to be unnecessary or pretentious. e.g. celebrate and dismiss
15.	Inkhorn controversy	The extended dispute from the 15 th to 16 th century over whether English should continue to add words from Greek and Latin.
16.	Intersectionality	The idea that social categorisations are all interconnected. Someone's ethnicity cannot be separate from their gender, social class, sexuality etc.
17.	L1	English spoken as a first language.
18.	L2	English spoken as a second language.
19.	Language death	The process in which the level of a speech community's linguistic competence in their language variety decreases, eventually resulting in no native or fluent speakers of the variety.
20.	Lingua-Franca	A language that is adopted as a common language between speakers whose native language are different.
21.	Linguicism	Linguistic and cultural racism.
22.	Mesolect	The variety of speech that shares some similarities with a standard prestige language, especially in an area where a creole is spoken.
23.	MLE	Multicultural London English.
24.	Mother tongue	The language first learnt as a child.
25.	Multiethnolect	A collection of linguistic resources combining features from a variety of languages within a multi-ethnic, multicultural context.
26.	Neosemy	The process by which an existing word develops a new meaning.
27.	Overt prestige	The obvious prestige associated with the use of the standard variety of a language within a particular society. Connected to notions of speaking 'properly'.
28.	Pidgin	A grammatically simplified form of a language, typically English, Dutch or Portuguese, some elements of which are taken from local languages, used for communication between people not sharing a common language.

29.	Race	Perceived physical similarities and differences that groups and cultures consider socially significant. You generally cannot choose your race.
30.	Standard English	The form of the English language widely accepted as the correct form of speaking and writing.
THEORIES		
31.	Braj Kachru (1992)	Three circles model: 1. The Inner Circle: where English is used as a first language, acquired from birth by most 2. The Outer Circle: includes countries colonised by Britain and the USA where English is spoken as a second language and plays an important historical and governmental role 3. The Expanding Circle: where English is not an official language, but is recognised as important as a foreign language, perhaps for trade
32.	Canagarajah (2005)	There is no universal English language, nor a world standard English.
33.	Canagarajah (2010)	Questioned the validity of Kachru's circles as migration and modern technology have led to the 'leaking' of clearly defined circles.
34.	Charles Hockett (1958)	Random fluctuation theory: Language changes due to its own instability.
35.	Crystal (2003)	English has become the world's leading language because: 1. English was distributed around the world as the language of the British Empire. 2. It was the language of the industrial revolution, technological innovation and western science. 3. It is the language of the USA, the world's remaining super-power.
36.	Edgar Schneider (2007)	Dynamic model of postcolonial English: 1. Foundation- English is newly distributed to a geographical area. 2. Exonormative stabilisation- English begins to be used, modelled closely on the British standard forms. 3. Nativisation- Old and new languages become more closely linked. Neologisms occur. 4. Endonormative- The local variety of English is accepted as the norm. 5. Differentiation- New variety reflects local identity and culture.
37.	Kandiah (1998)	The reason for the spread of the English Language was colonisation.
38.	Mencken (1921)	American English has 'outgunned' British English as America has more citizens and therefore more speakers than Britain.
39.	Sharma (2011)	Investigated Punjabi speaking Indians in West London; exploring their performance of both languages.
40.	Rampton (2010)	Creole was widely seen as cool, tough and good to use, even by those without a black peer group. It was associated with assertiveness, verbal resourcefulness, competence in sexual relationships and opposition to authority.
41.	Widdowson (1998)	English was distributed around the world due to colonisation. This was in a controlled manner, with Standard forms preserved. Today English spreads more naturally around the globe, and is no longer controlled allowing it to mix with other languages.

A LEVEL ENGLISH LANGUAGE: LANGUAGE CHANGE			
TERMINOLOGY			
1.	Accommodation	How people adjust their speech behaviours to match others; this can be aspects of accent, grammar, vocabulary and even the style of speech delivery.	
2.	Amelioration	The process of a word's meaning changing and picking up more positive connotations over time.	
3.	Broadening	The process of a word's meanings becoming generalised over time.	
4.	Computer-mediated communication	Also known as CMC. Any form of communication that uses the medium of a keyboard or digital device, rather than being spoken or written.	
5.	Corpus Linguistics	A method of studying language using computational tools and big datasets (corpora).	
6.	Critical Discourse Analysis	An approach to the study of both written and spoken language focusing on the ways the power is enacted.	
7.	Declinism	A tendency noted by Robert Lane Greene for prescriptivists to view language as being in a state of constant decline from a once great peak.	
8.	Descriptivism	A way of viewing language as being standard or non-standard, not making judgements about correctness.	
9.	Diachronic change	The historical development of language.	
10.	Diglossia	A situation where two very different varieties of a language exist alongside each other, each holding a distinct social function.	
11.	Emoji	A term to describe visual icons (representations of facial expressions, actions and objects) used in social media messaging.	
12.	Etymology	The study of the origin of words and the way they change in meaning.	
13.	Grammatical variation	How varieties of English use different grammatical structures to create meaning.	
14.	Lexicon	The vocabulary of language.	
15.	Linguicism	A term used to draw parallels between hierarchies on the basis of race or ethnicity, gender and language.	
16.	Linguistic imperialism	An ideological view and process of language change, whereby one language is imposed on speakers who use another language, often undermining the rights of those speakers. It promotes the idea that there is a hierarchy of languages.	
17.	Linguistic purism	A pejorative label used for a view that sees a language as needing preservation from things that might make it change, such as dialect variation and borrowings from other languages.	
18.	Multi-modal communication	A way of communicating that uses multiple channels e.g. speech and body language.	
19.	Narrowing	The process of a word's meanings becoming more specialised over time.	
20.	Pejoration	The process of a word's meaning changing and picking up more negative connotations over time.	
21.	Prescriptivism	A way of viewing language as correct or incorrect, prescribing a 'correct' way to use language.	
22.	Sociolect	Variation in language use associated with membership of a particular social group.	
23.	Speech community	Any socially or regionally defined group in which its members share a number of linguistic characteristics.	
24.	Standardisation	The process under which a language develops a standard 'prestige' variety.	
25.	Synchronic change	The study of language change at a particular moment in time.	
26.	Uptalk	A way of speaking in which the intonation pattern moves up towards the end of a declarative utterance.	
27.	Writing system	A method for visually representing spoken language, including letters of alphabets and punctuation marks.	
HISTORY OF ENGLISH			
28.	Old English	5th century	The languages of Britain were Celtic. English developed from the speech of the Angles, Jutes and Saxons. Anglo-Saxon and Old Norse had significant influence; vocabulary being drawn from both. English was largely phonetic, with little consistency in writing.

29.	Middle English	11 th century	French was the verbal language of the court and administration (due to the Norman invasion), whilst Latin was the written language (due to the Church). English became more prominent due to writers, such as Chaucer, using English to write, rather than French. Dialectal differences remained around the country.
30.	Early Modern English	15 th century	Caxton introduced the printing press (1476), contributing to the establishment of a standard English. The SE dialect was used as the basis for this. The popularity of English spread to due English writers and playwrights. James 1 commissioned the Authorised Version of the Bible.
31.	Modern English	18 th century	The English language had grown at an incredible rate, with words borrowed from Latin, Greek and further afield; the spread of the British Empire also influenced this. Grammarians began to propose correct ways of speaking and writing.
32.	Present English	20 th century	English has continued to develop and the influence of the media, technology and travel has helped to establish English as a global language.
PROCESSES OF CHANGE			
33.	Acronym		First letters are taken for a series of words to create a new term.
34.	Affixation		One or more free morphemes are combined with one of more bound morphemes.
35.	Back formation		A verb is created from an existing noun by removing a suffix.
36.	Blending		A combination of clipping and compounding. Words are abbreviated and joined together to form a new word.
37.	Borrowing		The process of taking a word from another language and inserting it into the lexicon of another.
38.	Clipping		Words are shortened and the shortened form becomes the norm. q
39.	Compounding		Words are combined together to form new words. These can be open, hyphenated or solid.
40.	Conversion or functional shift		A word shifts from one word class to another, usually from a noun to a verb.
41.	Eponym		Names of a person or company are used to define particular objects. Often they are the inventors or distributors of the product.
42.	Initialism		The first letters from a series of words form a new term, but each letter is pronounced.
43.	Loan word		A word that has been borrowed into a lexicon.
44.	Neologism		A completely new word.
THEORIES			
45.	David Crystal (2001)		The way we communicate online is similar to how we communicate in real life. He believes we are now living in a linguistic economy in which now language is more practical than formal, we shorten words for practicality, this has derived from things like text talk
46.	Donald Mackinnon (1996)		Categorises the attitudes people may have to language use: 1. As incorrect or correct; 2. As pleasant or ugly; 3. Socially acceptable or socially unacceptable; 4. Morally acceptable or morally unacceptable; 5. Appropriate in context or inappropriate in context; 6. Useful or useless.
47.	Harvey and Shalom (1997)		Taboo language has become increasingly acceptable in the home, between friends and in informal situations. Over time it becomes more acceptable in society at large.
48.	Jean Aitchinson (1996)		Three metaphors to describe language change; The damp spoon syndrome, the crumbling castle view, and the infectious disease assumption.
49.	Robert Lowth (1762)		A prescriptivist. Introduced the first grammar book for the English Language.
50.	Sapir Whorf Hypothesis		This states that the certain thoughts of an individual in one language cannot be understood by those who live in another language. The way people think is strongly effected by their native languages.
51.	Sharon Goodman (1996)		Explores two aspects of language change: Firstly, she states that that we are living in a time where language has become informalisation, this the idea that language which was used in close personal relationships is now being used in wider sociological context. She also talks about supercharged typographic icon- Letters in the English language act as symbols in modern society with meanings behind them. e.g. x meaning incorrect.

52.	Suzanne Romaine (1998)	External and Internal history of language: Internal: Formation of new words and the influence of dictionaries. Look what happens with no external influences. External: the changing social contexts-how social contexts influence language change.
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Charles Hockett	Bull's Eye theory
Paul Postal	"non-functional stylistic change" (Random Fluctuation theory)
Bailey	Wave theory: people closest to the change get affected quickest and most heavily.
Chen	S-curve theory – language changes slowly to start with, then picks up speed as users engage with new terms. Slows down at end.
Halliday	Functional theory – language changes because it has to respond to the needs of its users/lexical gaps. The Great Vowel Shift is an example of phonemic attrition due to this.
Crystal	Tide metaphor
Aitchison	Process of change • Potential – there is the gap or potential for change. • Implementation – the change occurs. • Diffusion – the change spreads. • Codification – the change is made official (e.g. being added to the dictionary)
Harrington	Study of how Queen's English has changed over time
Giles	3 attitudes to change (aesthetics, correctness, laziness)

THEORIES	Why does Language change?	Evidence to support theory	Further examples	Strengths/Weaknesses
Functional theory	Developed by Halliday- language is used as a tool for evolving economic + social functions. Lexis is invented/adapted for new, relevant technological developments . Words shorten as needs for fast communication are necessary.	Words move in/out due to change in society. The words <i>vinyl</i> and <i>chronometer</i> are NOT used today. Neologisms/broadened words such as <i>avatar</i> , <i>troll</i> and <i>hashtag</i> due to social media.	Obsolete words like <i>britches</i> , <i>icebox</i> , <i>gallivant</i> and neologisms used in today's society due to social changes/events such as <i>freegan</i> and <i>permaculture</i> . Other shortened words/ acronyms used like <i>DVD</i> , <i>PDF</i> and <i>FOMO</i> .	S: makes a lot of sense due to the correlation between a changing society = changing vocabulary to fit the new developments. W: does not account for all language change as it focuses on lexical change only.
Cultural Transmission theory	Developed by various theorists, psychologists and sociologists - language is passed on from generations through socialization (cultural learning). A system of symbols used to share cultural ideas . Language changes when individuals/groups feel a benefit in change (for status/belonging).	Non-PC, outdated or old fashioned sayings have moved out of lexis and new ones are created/used frequently because others in society are using them as well. Such as: <i>be still my heart</i> and <i>jew down</i> .	Older generations may enforce the use of "Ma'am/Sir", socializing the norm of respect for elders (vertical transmission). Peers in the same generation will horizontally transmit language such as teenagers sharing slang, making certain words popular in their speech (e.g. <i>cap</i> , <i>bet</i> , <i>basic</i> , etc).	S: explains the use of language other than for communication (socialization). W: does not take into consideration all learning such as trial/error.
Random Fluctuation theory	Developed by Hockett- language develops and changes randomly . Reflects the uneven use of spoken language .	Users pronounce words differently and this spreads until it becomes a desirable form of speech. The spread of Estuary English originates in London and now found in many areas of the English-speaking world.	Hockett states human error can change or influence language change. Predictive text messaging .	S: creates a relationship between changing language and the users of spoken language. W: changes are too similar to be random.

Substratum theory	Developed by various theorists (e.g. William Labov) - language change happens because of globalization (varieties of English influencing each other).	The word <i>like</i> has been used as a comparison between two things - now it is used globally as a filler in spoken discourse.	William Labov studied Jewish communities in New York - he concluded with the idea that pronunciation of words changed slightly in those communities.	S: creates a relationship between the effect of global media that influences different areas. W: Cannot be the sole reason for language change
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				(society development is also key).
Theory of Lexical Gaps	Correlates with Functional Theory - there is a certain need for new lexis. A sequence of sound combinations form new words (and follow a recognizable sound pattern). Individuals look for innovation and a collection of neologisms (loanwords/further modified words with prefixes/suffixes).	Recognizable sound patterns in prefixes and suffixes are used for several words such as <i>-dis</i> in words like <i>disrespect</i> , <i>disregard</i> and <i>disinterest</i> .	Consonant cluster - <i>spr</i> in words such as <i>sprain</i> , <i>spring</i> , <i>spree</i> , <i>spray</i> , etc. Brand names such as <i>Tylenol</i> , <i>Kleenex</i> and <i>Band-aid</i> .	S: explains the use of borrowed words as well as those that broadened in meaning (need for new lexis). W: like Functional Theory, does not account for other areas of change other than lexical.
Wave Model	Developed by Johannes Schmidt - language evolves from the center and ripples out, becoming weaker or slower to adopt as it moves away from the original place (geographically speaking).	Geographically , an accent will be stronger in the original place - such as the New York accent and slang; it has slightly moved towards other places in America.	Accents in the UK now blend due to geographical movement such as a rise in travel . They can be heard in other parts close to the original place.	S: explains how geographical location makes language weaker and how language has the possibility of travelling. W: does not consider the global travel of language due to mass media and the internet (says change happens slowly whereas the internet makes it go fast and at a global level).
Tree Model	Language can be traced back to a parent language (protolanguage/language family). It changes by splitting from a common protolanguage and separating into branches .	Latin is the protolanguage of many Romance languages; branches separated into French, Italian, Spanish and Romanian.	Proto-German is the parent language that resulted in the creation of English, German, Dutch, etc.	S: explains the link between older languages and shows a relationship between languages that come from the same protolanguage. W: does not explain the process of pidgin and creole languages.
S-Curve Model	Developed by Chen - change starts in a limited way before getting faster as more users adopt the change. Language changes when people are willing to welcome new	The percentage of people that used the word <i>you</i> instead of <i>ye</i> is shown in the graph (P239), accelerating slowly and then much faster starting at the 1520s.	Online n-gram shows that the saying <i>piece of cake</i> was less popular, then began to become more popular during the 1980s until it's max. popularity in the early	S: explains the idea that words become more/less popular. W: information such as the reason/development that

	forms (lexical and syntactical changes).		2000s. (S-curve shows progression)	made words more popular cannot be inferred by s-curve graphs.
Unfolding of Language	Guy Deutscher states that language changes due to minds desiring order and the need for regularity in language (this is why expected sound patterns are used). Speakers use shortcuts which show change as well as use neologisms to be expressive , broaden meaning and be innovative .	His book mentions examples such as, the plural of <i>book</i> used to be <i>beek</i> before it changed to <i>books</i> in the 13th century due to rules of regulating plurals/singulars.	Words used to be expressive : a plain <i>no</i> is deemed weak to convey emotion - this has changed into sayings like <i>not at all</i> , <i>not a bit</i> , <i>by no means</i> , etc.	S: explains that neologisms are created using patterns of sounds (why words are similar to each other). W: does not explain why some neologisms are completely new and random (do not follow a pattern, e.g. <i>avatar</i>).

Exam structures

Paper 1: Language, the Individual and Society
What's assessed - Textual variations and representations - Children's language development (0-11 years) - Methods of language analysis are integrated into the activities
Assessed - written exam: 2 hours 30 minutes 100 marks 40% of A-level
Questions Section A - Textual Variations and Representations Two texts (one contemporary and one older text) linked by topic or theme. - A question requiring analysis of one text (25 marks) A01⁽¹⁰⁾, A03⁽¹⁵⁾ - A question requiring analysis of a second text (25 marks) A01, A03 - A question requiring comparison of the two texts (20 marks) A04 Section B - Children's Language Development A discursive essay on children's language development, with a choice of two questions where the data provided will focus on spoken, written or multimodal language (30 marks)

Paper 2: Language Diversity and Change
What's assessed - Language diversity and change - Language discourses - Writing skills - Methods of language analysis are integrated into the activities
Assessed - written exam: 2 hours 30 minutes 100 marks 40% of A-level
Questions Section A - Diversity and Change One question from a choice of two: Either: an evaluative essay on language diversity (30 marks) A01 (10) A02 (20) Or: an evaluative essay on language change (30 marks) Section B - Language Discourses Two texts about a topic linked to the study of diversity and change. - A question requiring analysis of how the texts use language to present ideas, attitudes and opinions (40 marks) A01⁽¹⁰⁾, A03⁽¹⁵⁾, A04⁽¹⁵⁾ - A directed writing task linked to the same topic and the ideas in the texts (30 marks) A02 (20) A05 (10)

Structuring your answers
Paper 1: Section A – text analysis

Q1: analyse text A (25 mins)

Q2: analyse text B (25 mins)

Q3: compare A and B (20 mins)

Questions 1 and 2:

1. Intro – REPRESENTATION of topic, purpose, genre (5 mins)
2. Text level – semantic fields and what is being represented (people/places/events/issues)
Analyse a range of different word classes – tick them off your list!
3. Sentence level – are there any patterns? Why? Why has something been fronted, etc.? Remember AUDIENCE POSITIONING – how is the audience positioned by the writer?
4. Clauses
5. Conclusions – overall representation and positioning.

Question 3

PLAN!

Use a quick comparison table with the categories listed below (topics, attitude, technology, context)

1. Intro - what topics are represented in each text? How are the audiences positioned in each text?
2. Compare attitudes and tone of each text (e.g. formality)
3. Technology (e.g. interactivity, etc.) – how does this impact on the audience and relationship between writer and reader?
4. Social and historical context
5. Language – word classes/sentence types/patterns of language etc used and why
6. Conclusion – obvious similarities and differences.

Paper 1: Section B – Child Language Acquisition analysis and essay (40 mins)

PLAN – read question, plan theories and order and analyse data/find examples for theory

Each paragraph – use a theorist and link data from the text (and from own experience etc) to support/challenge the ideas.

ARGUE! Make sure you point out limitations of theories and suggest the grey areas which are left unexplained.

Structuring your answers

Paper 2: Section A – diversity and change essay

CHOICE of questions – choose one you can ARGUE and CHALLENGE most with.

45 mins (30 marks): 5 mins planning, 35 mins writing with 5 mins for checking as you go through

PLAN – write brief list of theories to support and challenge the question topic.

1. Intro – outline the basic theories that fit with the question
2. Take theory by theory (each paragraph) and link back with the question. Use the theories to challenge each other. Evaluate how successful your theory is.
3. Conclusion – answer the question with a final opinion.
- 4.

Paper 2: Section B – language discourses

Question 3: Comparison of two articles

45 mins (40 marks)

PLAN – use comparison table and annotate/highlight examples

1. Intro – compare linguistic approaches in each text, e.g. either prescriptivist/descriptivist, etc.
2. Compare representations of topics – use semantic fields, word classes and cohesion as examples.
3. Compare how the audiences are positioned
4. Conclusion – overall what is your impression of both texts and how they compare.

Question 4: Creative writing

45 mins (30 marks)

- Use text A or B from Q3 as inspiration for structuring your article.
- Use metaphors
- Link to theories without being too technical
- Include 3-4 different theories
- Use a variety of language features, e.g. rule of threes, short sentences, questions, etc.
- Make sure you use the links with the topic from Q3 to guide you.

Writing non-fiction

Opening paragraph: make this punchy, passionate and opinionated (one sentence and containing a rule of three plus a colon), ... and :

Second paragraph: an anecdote (a story about a situation which demonstrates your point of view – can be entirely fictional, but make it believable and realistic).
E.g. Last week when I

Third paragraph: theories and case studies to support your view – get in as many punchy, factual statements as you can here – make your argument sound fool proof.

Fourth paragraph: appeal to the reader by including them. Use rhetorical questions and personal pronouns ("you", "we").

Fifth paragraph: make an emotional appeal to your readership. Make them feel something – guilty, happy about joining your cause, etc.

Final paragraph: make this a final, one-sentence paragraph with a great technique.

EDIT and IMPROVE your work

Check your lists of what to include. Use the following to help you improve your work:

STAR

Substitute better words/phrases for weaker ones

Take out phrases and words that are unnecessary

Add things in – language techniques; elaborate your ideas, etc.

Rearrange – consider the order of your ideas and the structure of your sentences

Ethos, Logos, Pathos –

Logos appeals to the audience's reason, building up logical arguments.

Ethos appeals to the speaker's status or authority, making the audience more likely to trust them.

Pathos appeals to the emotions, trying to make the audience feel angry or sympathetic, for example

Writing non-fiction

Techniques:

Rule of three

Alliteration

Rhetorical questions

Emotive language

Contrasts

Repetition

Exaggeration

Punctuation:

; : ! ? – ()

Sentence structures:

- **Begin with a verb ending with -ing.**
Gasping for breath, David ran to catch the bus.
- **Begin with a verb ending with -ed.**
Frightened he would be late for school, David ran to catch the bus.
- **Begin with a prepositional phrase.**
With his backpack flopping on his back, David ran to catch the bus.
- **Begin with an adverb.**
Hurriedly David ran to catch the bus.
- **Begin with an adjective.**
Anxious about being late for school, David ran to catch the bus.
- **Begin with a phrase that tells when.**
At 7:00 AM, David ran to catch the bus.
- **Begin with a phrase that tells where.**
Down Main Street, David ran to catch the bus.