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Introduction from the Series Editor

Approaches across the series

The aim of AS and A Level English publishing is to provide high quality resources to support students at every stage of their journey through the new one- and two-year linear courses. The Student Books in the series follow a unique three-part structure that allows for a firm grounding of the essential knowledge, concepts and skills that underpin each of the subject areas, more developed and sustained study of key topics that encourage a range of study skills, wider reading and independent learning, and the opportunity to extend learning through follow-up investigative work, further reading and engagement with more advanced aspects of the subject. They build on the key messages and ethos of A Level reform, including a sustained focus on utilising current, innovative and relevant research from higher education that can best inform learning post-16.

The Student Books

The Student Books are designed to support students in the transition from GCSE to A/AS level, to provide them with all the skills and knowledge they need to work through their course, and to prepare them for further study or employment at the end of the course. The three-part structure is designed to promote a recursive pedagogy that supports students’ learning and provides an integrated and coherent approach to teaching.

1. Beginning

These units set out the key principles, issues and concepts that underpin the specification and will support learning over a two-year course. They also act as a stand-alone reference point that students can use to return to throughout their studies.

2. Developing

These units follow the main content in the specification, building and developing students’ understanding of concepts and issues in the ‘Beginning’ units, and introducing new knowledge where appropriate. Activities in this section are designed to be more analytical, extending knowledge to a wider context and encouraging the move to independence.

3. Enriching

These units extend knowledge from the ‘Developing’ units through further investigative work, extensive wider reading links (books, websites, academic journal articles, blogs) and extended research summaries. They also contain specially commissioned and exclusive written articles and video interviews with leading academics and professionals, offering a unique insight into aspects of the chapter content.

How to use the Student Book

There is no single way to use the Student Book and teachers should decide on the best route according to the needs of their students and the time allocated to particular specification topics. In many cases it is logical that the Beginning units are taught first as these provide important background information for students and will ease the transition from Key Stage 4 to Key Stage 5 and more advanced study.

The Planning Map

This planning map has been structured to follow the content of the Student Book but is easily adaptable to fit the needs of individual students and classes. It also provides a clear summary of all key learning issues and concepts and an indication of how work can be differentiated to provide additional levels of both support and challenge for students.

The Teacher’s Resource

This acts as a guide for teachers through each of the units in the Student Book, highlighting key concepts and learning and suggesting ways that teaching could be focused to support students. It provides additional information and guidance on activities in the book and guides teachers towards additional further reading and resources, both in print form and those accessed on the Elevate platform.

Marcello Giovanelli
This course plan has been structured to follow the content of the CUP Student Book. The plan is like any other: a map of possible learning activities and opportunities that can be shaped to suit your learner’s needs where necessary. None of the activities are prescriptive. Nor is the chronological order in which they are catalogued necessarily binding. The key is not to be confined or restricted by an approach that is too mechanistic or predictable.

It is suggested, however, that the Beginning units are taught in the first half-term as these will provide a framework and arm students with a linguistic toolkit and metalanguage. Content from the Beginning section is largely self-study and although there is a large amount of terminology to be covered (much of which will be new from GCSE), students must not begin to think that textual analysis is simply an exercise in feature spotting.

The Developing units are more closely ‘linked’ to the exam and non-exam assessment, and should build on the foundations taught in the first half-term. The activities in the Student Book and the teaching resources are suggestions for how you might like to approach each section, and it is hoped that these are adaptable to suit individual needs. Furthermore, although texts are given in the Student Book and in the teaching resources, it is hoped that the suggested activities are applicable to other texts that are easily found.

The Enriching units, although designed with A Level students in mind, are not confined to these and could be easily used as extension activities for AS Level students.

The structure of the AS and A Levels is detailed in the table below.

You can download an editable version of the planning map from Cambridge Elevate.

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<tr>
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<th>A Level</th>
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<td><strong>(1)</strong> Language and the Individual (50%) 1.5 hours</td>
<td><strong>(1)</strong> Language, the Individual and Society (40%) 2.5 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Text variations and representations (3 questions, 1 on each text (25 marks each) and 1 comparison (20 marks))</td>
<td>A. Text variations and representations (3 questions, 1 on each text (25 marks each) and 1 comparison (20 marks))</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>(2)</strong> Language Varieties (50%) 1.5 hours</td>
<td>B. Child language development (1 question from a choice of 2; from written, spoken or multi-modal language (30 marks))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Language diversity (1 question from a choice of 2. Analytical essay on text/data from gender, occupation, accent, dialect, etc. (30 marks))</td>
<td>B. Language discourses (1 analytical essay about language attitudes in two texts (40 marks); 1 opinion article about both texts (30 marks))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Language discourses (1 opinion article based on attitudes to language (40 marks))</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>(2)</strong> Language Diversity and Change (40%) 2.5 hours</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Language diversity (gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc.) OR Language change (1 question from a choice of 2 (30 marks))</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Language discourses (1 analytical essay about language attitudes in two texts (40 marks); 1 opinion article about both texts (30 marks))</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>(3)</strong> Language in Action (non-exam assessment)</td>
<td>B. Original writing and commentary (5%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>A. Language investigation (10%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Original writing and commentary (5%)</td>
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<td>metalinguistics; linguistics; slang</td>
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<td>2. Text producers and receivers</td>
<td>discourse event; text producer; text receiver; multi-purpose text; primary purpose; secondary purpose; implied reader; implied writer; actual reader; actual writer; discourse community</td>
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<td>3. Mode and genre</td>
<td>mode; oppositional view; continuum; blended-mode; prototype model; genre; intertextuality</td>
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<td>4. Language use and language users</td>
<td>variation; register; situation of use; situational characteristic; dialect; accent; sociolect; idiolect; representation</td>
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<td>5. Language level 1: Lexis and semantics</td>
<td>word class; noun; verb; adjective; adverb; open (or lexical) word class; closed (or grammatical) word class; pronoun; determiner; preposition; conjunction; semantics; semantic field; collocate; fixed expression; synonym; euphemism; dysphemism; antonym; hyponymy; metaphor</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Language level 2: Grammar</td>
<td>morphology; syntax; descriptive; prescriptive; root; suffix; prefix; affix; inflectional function; derivational function; noun phrase; verb phrase; head word; pre-modifier; qualifier; post-modifier; primary auxiliary verb; modal auxiliary verb; clause; coordination; subordination; adverbial clause; noun clause; active voice; passive voice; orthographic sentence</td>
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<tr>
<td>Unit</td>
<td>Key terms and concepts</td>
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| 7. Language level 3: Phonetics, phonology and prosodics | phonology; phonetics; prosodics; International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA); heterophones; homophones; articulators; diphthong; sound iconicity; consonance; assonance; sibilance; lexica onomatopoeia; non-lexical onomatopoeia; phonological manipulation; minimal pair | • Activity 2 Ideas  
• Examples of puns  
• Videos of speeches by the American president  
• Beginning teaching resource | A Level students could begin to explore phonological patterns in children's books, in preparation for Unit 14 (Child language development)  
Add terms to language glossary |
| 8. Language level 4: Graphology | layout; iconic sign; symbolic sign; typographical feature; multimodal text | • Beginning teaching resource | A Level students could explore the graphology of children’s books, in preparation for Unit 14 (Child language development)  
A Level students could explore the changing nature of graphology in a specific genre, in preparation for Unit 16 (Language change)  
Add terms to language glossary |
| 9. Language level 5: Pragmatics | embodied knowledge; schema; co-text; cooperative principle; conversational maxim; implicature; positive face need; negative face need; face threatening act (FTA); politeness strategies; deixis; deictic categories; proximal signs; distal deixis | • Activity 3 Ideas  
• Beginning teaching resource | Explore cognitive linguistics in more detail. A Level students could begin to explore how cognitive linguistics might be used in the classroom, in preparation for Unit 14 (Child language development)  
Add terms to language glossary |
| 10. Language level 6: Discourse | internal evaluation; external evaluation; turn-taking; adjacency pair; preferred response; dispreferred response; insertion sequence; exchange structure; transition relevance place; constraint | • Activity 1 & 2 Ideas  
• Beginning teaching resource | A Level students could practise transcribing speech data, in preparation for the Language investigation  
Add terms to language glossary |
| 11. Introduction to analysing texts | text; text meaning; levels of language; connotations; alliteration; colloquial; contraction | • Activity 1 Ideas  
• Beginning teaching resource | Begin to compare two texts in preparation for the exam requirements  
Add terms to language glossary |
| 12. Becoming a language investigator | data | • Beginning teaching resource | A Level students begin to explore options and collect data for the Language investigation  
Add terms to language glossary |
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<th>Unit</th>
<th>Key terms and concepts</th>
<th>Cambridge Elevate resources</th>
<th>Differentiation, extension, co-teachability</th>
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| 13. Textual variations and representation | implied meaning; subtext; audience address; audience positioning; synthetic personalisation | • Activity 1, 5, 6, 11, 14 & 15 Ideas  
• Video on synthetic personalisation and audience positioning  
• Video on representation  
• J.K. Rowling's commencement address | Students could begin to explore language and gender in more detail, with some reading from the suggested list  
Add terms to language glossary |
| 14. Child language development | communicative competence; proto words; pre-verbal stage; cooing; babbling; holophrastic stage; non-verbal communication; reduplication; diminutives; addition; two-word stage; telegraphic stage; content words; grammatical words; post-telegraphic stage; operant conditioning; positive reinforcement; negative reinforcement; Language Acquisition Device (LAD); tabula rasa; universal grammar; virtuous errors; critical period; cognitive development; Language Acquisition Support System (LASS); scaffolding; egocentric; object permanence; more knowledgeable other (MKO); zone of proximal development (ZPD); usage based linguistics; child directed speech (CDS); expansion; recast; mitigated imperative; initiation, response, feedback; overextension; underextension; hyponym; hypernym; bound morpheme; unbound or free morpheme; superlative; mean length of utterance (MLU); copula verb; grapheme; phoneme; look-and-say approach; phonic approach; salutation; complementary close; oracy; literacy; tripod grip; gross motor skills; fine motor skills; directionality; cursive script; print handwriting; casual cursive script; homonyms; homophones; phonetic spelling; undergeneralisation; overgeneralisation; omission; insertion; substitution; transposition; digraph | • Daily Telegraph article on how babies listen to sounds while in the womb  
• Science Magazine article on babies in the womb  
• Article on Genie  
• Article on iPads and children  
• Oxford Reading Tree  
• Video on stages of language development  
• Video on language development: lexis, semantics and grammar  
• Activity 4, 6, 9, 11, 14, 16, 23, 27, 28, 29, 31, 32, 33, 34, 42 Ideas | Only relevant to A Level students  
Use the Child Language Data Exchange System website to explore bilingual child language data  
Add terms to language glossary |
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<th>Key terms and concepts</th>
<th>Cambridge Elevate resources</th>
<th>Differentiation, extension, co-teachability</th>
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| **15. Language diversity** | dialect; accent; idiomatic phrases; social mobility; code-switching; unmarked by person; multiple negation; plural marking; unmarked plurality; dialect levelling; convergence; divergence; lavender language | • Identity article  
• Labov’s research paper on [r]  
• BBC poll on Welsh accents  
• Telegraph article on Birmingham accent  
• Bloomberg article on Sitel study  
• Eckert’s research paper on adolescent language  
• Cheshire’s Reading study  
• Gender neutral toys article  
• Video on regional dialects  
• Video on age and language  
• Video on language and gender  
• Activity 4, 9, 12, 16, 18 Ideas | A Level students could begin preparing for their *Original Writing* assessment by writing an article (and commentary) on attitudes to language diversity. Add terms to language glossary. |
| **16. Language change** | diachronic change; prescriptivism; descriptivism; synchronic change; inkhorn terms; change from above or conscious change; change from below or unconscious change; neosemy; external factors; internal factors; stative verb; L1; L2; English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) | • Cambridge dictionary  
• Apostrophe website  
• Video on lexical change  
• Video on attitudes to lexical change  
• Video on semantic change  
• Video on world Englishes  
• Activity 2, 7 Ideas | Only relevant to A Level students. Students could begin preparing for their *Original Writing* assessment by writing an article (and commentary) on attitudes to language change. Add terms to language glossary. |
| **17. Language in action: a language investigation** | prosody; micropause; smooth speaker switch; observer’s paradox; hypercorrection; random sampling; judgemental sampling; open question; closed question; loaded or leading question; likert scale; Semantic Differential Scale; variable | • BAAL recommendations on good research practice  
• Survey Monkey ranking scales  
• Video on data collection  
• Activity 6, 7 Ideas | Only relevant to A Level students. Add terms to language glossary. |
| **18. Original writing** | blog; dysphemism; cohesion; rhetoric | • Activity 1, 3, 11, 12, 13 Ideas  
• Video on the writing process | Only relevant to A Level students. Add terms to language glossary. |
Using digital resources in the classroom

The Cambridge Elevate-enhanced edition of A/AS Level English Language features a variety of supplementary content, including interview and tutorial videos.

The length of the videos is tailored to the needs of the classroom: no matter how engaging the speaker is, few classes will want to sit and watch a talking head on a screen for half an hour. Clips last no longer than 5 minutes; long enough to set up food for thought, but short enough to allow plenty of lesson time.

Videos and other media resources, including access to third-party websites, can be accessed from the ‘Media Library’ tab in the contents listing of the Cambridge Elevate-enhanced edition of A/AS Level English Language Student Book, or they can be accessed directly from the page as you are reading through the Student Book units onscreen. This offers you several teaching options: you can ask students to watch videos or explore links at home, or use them to inspire classroom discussion.

Overall, the series aims to provide a blended resource in which print books, ebooks, video and audio combine to give a twenty-first century flavour to English Language teaching and learning.

A list of the supplementary content contained within each unit from the student book is provided, as well as suggestions for further reading and exploration.
This relates to ‘Language and the Individual’ and ‘Language Varieties’ in the specification for AS Level and ‘Language, the Individual and Society’, ‘Language Diversity and Change’ and ‘Language in Action’ in the specification for A Level.

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

- to become familiar with the content of the *Beginning* section
- to understand some of the fundamental concepts of studying English Language at A Level.

**Notes**

- A Level English Language is very different from GCSE English Language.
- Students should be encouraged to see themselves as linguists, observing language in use beyond the classroom.
- They should keep a folder of texts, collected from their experiences with language in everyday life.
- Whereas the use of terminology is important (as with all subjects), it should not be the sole focus and students must do more than simple feature spotting.
- As with all language work, emphasis should be placed on looking at real life texts and applying knowledge and concepts to these.

**Beginning**

It is suggested that the *Beginning* units are taught during the first half-term of the first year of the A Level. This will provide students with a language framework and linguistic ‘toolkit’, which they can then use to apply to later units. The order of the units in the textbook is the recommended order to teach these.

The Texts and Activities in the Student Book should be looked at and completed either individually or in groups, and are not given here. Instead, some ideas for complementary and further work are suggested.

**What does language study mean at A Level? (1)**

Explain the overview of the A Level and emphasise the importance of using terminology accurately, but not in terms of simple feature spotting. Students should start and maintain a language glossary from their very first English Language lesson, adding to it and refining it as they move through the course. Explain the key terms associated with this unit and encourage students to keep a folder of texts they come across in the real world – and to see themselves as linguists.

**Text producers and receivers (2)**

Many students will be familiar with terms such as **purpose** and **audience**, so the focus on this unit should be refining and expanding these definitions. Students should be aware that a **discourse event** affects language in a number of ways, and that language use is affected by multiple different variables. Remind students to be tentative and suggestive with their interpretations, as the contextual backgrounds of texts cannot always be fully understood.

**Mode and genre (3)**

Again, students may have some prior understanding of speech and writing differences and blended mode texts from their GCSE studies. Emphasise the idea of a mode **continuum**, and start to examine how discourse events and other contextual factors might affect the nature of speech, writing and blended mode texts. The **prototype model** is particularly useful when exploring blended mode and genre, and many different things can be used to demonstrate it. For example, put a noun such as **fruit** in the middle of the model – apples and pears would be ‘a typical example’, where ‘tomato’ would be a ‘less typical example’. Once again, students should be pro-active in collecting texts that they can use for analysis in class.

**Language use and language users (4)**

Explain the concept of a **variable** (e.g. gender) and how these things can affect how language is used. Students should think about their own language use and the variables that might affect this – using new terminology associated with this unit such as **idiol ect**, **sociolect**, **accent** and **dialect**. **Activity 2 (Rewriting a text)** could be done with a range of different materials – for example, taking a transcript of **Prime Minister’s Questions** and re-writing one contributor’s utterances as a letter to voters. Students should also be encouraged to write a commentary, analysing and justifying the language choices they have made.

**Language level 1: Lexis and semantics (5)**

Remind students of the importance of **interpretation** – not simple feature spotting. Although there is a significant amount of terminology introduced in this unit, the best way to learn it is to apply it to texts. A good grammar dictionary would be a wise investment for students. Encourage students to think not just about individual words, but as words in a network. How do individual word choices fit in with the wider context of the text? What patterns and clusters of data can they see, rather than just relying on one or two words for their analysis?
When teaching word classes, always remember that these must be taught in the context of a text, and be made meaningful. Why would a writer choose to use a noun rather than an adjective, for example?

Language level 2: Grammar (6)

Again, an interpretative, descriptive view of grammar should be adopted when teaching this unit. The English Language for AQA book is an excellent resource for understanding and analysing grammar in context, and has hundreds of activities based on real language use.

Language level 3: Phonetics, phonology and prosodics (7)

The IPA is a useful tool in any linguist’s kit and should be understood through practical use. Give each student a copy of the English phonetic alphabet and point out some of the more ‘strange’ looking symbols: [ɹ], [æ] and [ŋ] for example. Explore some of the subtle differences in sounds: for example, the voiceless-voiced differences as in pairs such as [s z] and [θ ð]. Students should then transcribe some individual words themselves, such as their name and their hometown. Although many students will make errors – such as using two phonemes for double letters, as in [hæɹɹi:] for <harry> – these can be seen as opportunities to discuss further mismatches between spelling and sound.

Phonetics, phonology and prosodics should be analysed in terms of real texts. Poetry is a particularly good place to start, but adverts and speeches could also be useful in understanding why writers use certain sounds to achieve different things.

Language level 4: Graphology (8)

Graphology is sometimes seen as the ‘easy’ language level, and students should indeed avoid over-relying on this when writing analytically. Much more interestingly, they should aim to understand and analyse how graphology works with other language levels.

Language level 5: Pragmatics (9)

Pragmatics is an interesting and exciting area of language study, and one that provokes real discussion in the classroom. Some more abstract concepts, such as embodied knowledge and deixis are important here, and it is well worth spending a significant amount of time on this unit. An effective and lively way of teaching deixis is when students are on their feet and exploring how changes in spatial and distal deixis and deictic centers change language.

Language level 6: Discourse (10)

After exploring Labov’s narrative categories and Goodwin’s story structure, students should find or record their own data and see how well the theory fits.

They could also compare this to written language – what stays the same or changes, and why might this be? Many students will have knowledge of spoken language from their GCSE studies, and this unit should build on this.

Introduction to analysing texts (11)

This unit aims to bring everything together so far, looking at and thinking about how different language levels work with and affect one another. Again, stress the importance of interpretative analysis that uses patterns and clusters of data. A simple way to begin analysing texts is to adopt a systematic approach, dealing with one language level or theoretical idea at a time. Students should be reminded of the importance of context and how language is affected by this, aiming to link their analysis back to contextual factors.

Becoming a language investigator (12)

This section is particularly useful to A Level students, who are required to complete a Language investigation as part of their non-exam assessment, but should also be taught as part of the AS Level.

Links and suggested resources

The ‘Englicious’ website is jam-packed with activities, ideas, exercises and data for exploring language in use. All of the data and examples are taken from the 2012–2014 Survey of English Usage carried out at UCL, and so provide true examples of real life language. The ‘English Language List’ (note: this is a subscription service) contains daily questions, answers and discussions about a range of English-related topics. Contributions are from teachers (new and experienced), examiners and academics.

The Guardian’s ‘Mind your Language’ is a regular and engaging blog about all aspects of language, many of which are highly relevant to A/AS Level English Language.

The British Library’s ‘Sounds Familiar?’ is an interactive and comprehensive catalogue of UK dialects and accents. It features audio recordings, transcripts and linguistic information and will be very useful for teaching language variation and to relevant language investigation work.

‘Word of Mouth’ is Michael Rosen’s popular radio show about language features topics such as child language, language change, language use and abuse and sociolinguistic variation.

‘Grammarianism’ is Bas Aart’s (UCL) blog about English grammar with illuminating examples and discussion.

Further reading

There are many ‘introductions’ to studying language and linguistics, and the following suggestions could be a good place to start:

Often used as a ‘core’ textbook for first-year undergraduates in linguistics. Covers many of the language frameworks in this section of the Student Book.


What the subject is, why it appeals, how it works, what issues it confronts and the practical impact it can have on our social and professional lives.


Covers many topics relevant to A/AS Level English Language, including textual analyses, language change, language acquisition, language variation and language in use.


A thorough yet entertaining study guide, aimed specifically at A/AS Level English Language students.


An accessible overview of English language complete with activities, questions, sample analyses, commentaries and key readings.


A very readable and accessible collection of bite-sized essays on a range of language issues.

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**CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES**

**In this Teacher’s Resource**

**LINK:** Visit the ‘Englicious’ website

**LINK:** Visit the English Language List

**LINK:** Visit The Guardian’s ‘Mind your Language’ blog

**LINK:** Visit the British Library’s ‘Sounds Familiar?’ website

**LINK:** Listen to Michael Rosen’s radio programme ‘Word of mouth’

**LINK:** Visit the ‘Grammarianism’ blog
This relates to ‘Language, the Individual and Society’ in the specification for A Level and ‘Language and the Individual’ in the specification for AS Level.

**AS Level exam:**
**Language and the Individual** (50% of AS Level) 1.5 hours

A. Text variations and representations (3 questions, 1 on each text (25 marks each) and 1 comparison (20 marks))

**A Level exam:**
**Language, the Individual and Society** (40% of A Level) 2.5 hours

A. Text variations and representations (3 questions, 1 on each text (25 marks each) and 1 comparison (20 marks))

B. Child language development (1 question from a choice of 2; from written, spoken or multi-modal language (30 marks))

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This section of Unit 13 explores the relationships between text producer(s) and text receiver(s), investigating how audiences are addressed and positioned in a range of texts, and understanding that texts are produced self-consciously in order to achieve different effects. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

- understand how writers and speakers address their audiences
- understand the concept of synthetic personalisation and why it might be used.

**Notes**

- Students should be encouraged to see themselves as linguists, observing language in use beyond the classroom.
- Students should keep a folder of texts, collected from their experiences with language in everyday life.
- Tentative suggestions about text producer–receiver relationships should be made as opposed to assertive assumptions.
- As with all language work, emphasis should be placed on looking at real life texts and applying knowledge and concepts to these.

**Suggested route through this section**

This section should ideally be taught early on in the AS course, as the concepts included here are a useful starting point for analysing texts. Ensure that concepts are related to data, and that a wide variety of texts are analysed in class, as this is reflective of the source material students will be asked to discuss in the examination. Both the AS and A Level exams include a comparative question, so begin by analysing texts in isolation and gradually build up to comparing similarities and differences across texts.

**Audience address (13.2.2)**

Explain the concept of **audience address** by exploring a number of different discourse events. Ask your class to imagine they are the text producer in the following texts – how are they likely to shape their language, and why?

- an open letter from a political party candidate to the local area
- a new teacher giving their first ever lesson
- a thank-you speech at a wedding or similar celebratory occasion
- a Facebook status update.

Read Text 13C and then look at a similar text in more detail, analysing the language in the same way. The commencement address given by Steve Jobs to Stanford University graduates is available online. After analysing this, students could write a short discursive essay on audience address in this text. Students could also be asked to compare the two commencement speeches.

**Audience positioning (13.2.3)**

Next, introduce the concept of **audience positioning**, which again concerns the relationship between the text producer and the audience. For example, a teenage magazine for girls is likely to use colloquial language and direct address to make the audience feel involved and ‘positioned’ at the same level as the text producer. A broadsheet newspaper positions the audience differently – it is likely to use formal language and an indirect mode of address to acknowledge the audience’s need for quality and information. Students could look at examples of these kinds of texts, either analysing them in isolation or comparing across them.

**Synthetic personalisation (13.2.4)**

Explain the concept of **synthetic personalisation**, discussing why a writer might choose to use it and where your students have experienced it for themselves.
Watch the video about this, and then complete Activity 4 (*Exploring synthetic personalisation in an advert*).

Students could then find a text of their own that uses synthetic personalisation in a different way (i.e. a text from a different genre, and for a different purpose and audience) and analyse this in the same way – or compare it to Text 13F.

**Differentiation and extension**

Charity adverts and texts provide a rich source of language to analyse in relation to audience address, positioning and synthetic personalisation. Students could carry out a research investigation on these, either focusing on a number of texts from one charity or comparing across different ones. This activity could also be done as specialist preparation for the A Level non-exam assessment *Investigating language*.

**Further reading**


The original text in which Norman Fairclough proposes the idea of synthetic personalisation, now in its updated 3rd edition.

**CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES**

**In the Student Book**

*LINK*: Find the text of J. K. Rowling’s Harvard commencement address

*VIDEO*: Synthetic Personalisation and Audience Positioning

**In this Teacher’s Resource**

*LINK*: Find and read commencement address given by Steve Jobs to Stanford University graduates
This relates to ‘Language, the Individual and Society’ in the specification for A Level and ‘Language and the Individual’ in the specification for AS Level.

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**Language and the Individual** (50% of AS Level) 1.5 hours

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A. Text variations and representations (3 questions, 1 on each text (25 marks each) and 1 comparison (20 marks))

B. Child language development (1 question from a choice of 2; from written, spoken or multi-modal language (30 marks))

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This section explores genre and mode in written and spoken texts, and the concept of blended mode. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

- understand what blended mode is and how texts can incorporate elements of speech, writing and a mixture
- understand some of the expected genre conventions of written language
- understand some of the expected genre conventions of spoken language.

**Notes**

- Students should add to their folder of texts as they work through this section.
- Students should always relate language observations back to context.

**Suggested route through this section**

This section should ideally be taught early on in the AS course, as the concepts included here are a useful starting point for analysing texts. Ensure that concepts are related to data, and that a wide variety of texts are analysed in class, as this is reflective of the source material students will be asked to discuss in the examination. Both the AS and A Level exams include a comparative question, so begin by analysing texts in isolation and gradually build up to comparing similarities and differences across texts.

**Mode: speech and writing (13.3.1)**

Begin by asking students to draw up a list of differences between speech and writing, giving a couple of prompts beforehand (e.g. writing is permanent; speech is transient). Discuss as a class and read ‘Speaking of writing and writing of speaking’ (Crystal, 1995 (available online)). Discuss some of the problems with the binary, oppositional way of classifying speech and writing like this: what might be a better option? Introduce the idea of a mode continuum and the definition of **blended mode**. Ask students to place the following texts on the continuum, giving justifications and reasons for their answers:

- a text message to a friend
- an internet chat room
- the Bible
- a Shakespeare play
- TV news broadcast
- a reality TV programme
- a church sermon
- a text message from a mobile phone company
- a telephone directory
- a political speech
- a shopping list
- a radio news broadcast
- a poem
- a class group discussion

Complete Activity 5 (Identifying features of writing and features of speech in a newspaper article). Students could then find their own examples of blended-mode texts. Twitter and Facebook are typically good examples of these, and could even lead to a mini-investigation on the use of blended mode language in social media platforms.

**Genre and mode in written texts (13.3.3)**

Begin by drawing up a list of expected generic conventions in written texts. Compare this list to the linguistic features found in Text 13H, and complete Activity 6 (Identifying genre and mode). Students could then find their own examples of written texts, comparing these to Text 13H.

**Genre and mode in spoken texts (13.3.4)**

Now look at Text 13J and identify some of the linguistic features that characterise spoken language, introducing/revising key terms such as discourse marker, tag question and non-fluency features. Students could then record and transcribe natural spontaneous speech, such as two people discussing their plans for the
weekend. This data could then be analysed in the same way and compared to the data in Text 13J.

End with students writing an essay on two texts that use different written/spoken/blended modes. The question should be the same as found in the sample assessment materials:

**AS Level:** Compare and contrast Text A and Text B, showing ways in which they are similar and different in their language use.

**A Level:** Explore the similarities and differences in the ways that Text A and Text B use language.

**Differentiation and extension**

Students could research different types of utterances: referential, expressive, transactional, interactional and phatic.

**CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES**

**In this Teacher’s Resource**

**LINK:** Find and read ‘Speaking of reading and writing of speaking’ by David Crystal
4 Introduction to representations (13.5)

This relates to ‘Language, the Individual and Society’ in the specification for A Level and ‘Language and the Individual’ in the specification for AS Level.

AS Level exam:
Language and the Individual (50% of AS Level) 1.5 hours
A. Text variations and representations (3 questions, 1 on each text (25 marks each) and 1 comparison (20 marks))

A Level exam:
Language, the Individual and Society (40% of A Level) 2.5 hours
A. Text variations and representations (3 questions, 1 on each text (25 marks each) and 1 comparison (20 marks))
B. Child language development (1 question from a choice of 2; from written, spoken or multi-modal language (30 marks))

AIMS AND OUTCOMES
This section explores how representations, stereotypes, hegemony and ideology can be expressed through language. By the end of this section, students should be able to:
• understand the meanings of representation, stereotypes, hegemony and ideology
• understand how these can be expressed through language and how the relationship between text producer and receiver can affect this.

Notes
• Students should be reminded to write objectively about social groups when discussing language, being aware of potentially sensitive issues.

Symbolic representation (13.5.1)
Introduce the idea of representation through looking at a number of logos. What things, feelings and events are connoted through these logos, and how? Complete Activity 11 (Discussing how logos represent their organisations).

Representations (13.5.2)
Next, look at how language can be used to represent certain people, places and events. Examine the possible representations of these different words, each being used to signify the same thing:
- lunatics
- fanatics
- anarchists
- terrorists
- freedom-fighters
- guerrillas
- rebels
- revolutionists

How might a text producer’s attitude and values affect the word they choose to use here? You could also introduce the linguistic relativity hypothesis: the idea that language is related to thought, and the words we and others choose to use affects the way that we think. Watch the video on Representation, available on Cambridge Elevate, for more information about this.

A further activity could be looking at the sample assessment material for the AS Level exam, Questions 1 and 2.

Representation of concepts (13.5.3)
Next, discuss the representations of concepts using Text 13Q as source material and complete Activity 12 (Exploring representations of concepts). Students could then find some of their own examples – the online ‘urban dictionary’ (http://www.urbandictionary.com/) – be aware that some of the content is explicit) has some interesting data of groups and concepts.

Challenging stereotypes and hegemony
Discuss as a class the meaning of stereotypes; how and why they exist, and how they can be simplified representations of people and groups. Discuss stereotypical views of certain groups: nationalities, teenagers and sub-cultures. Look at Text 13S and discuss how British, French and German people are stereotyped, focusing closely on language. Read the BBC article on the evolution of stereotypes available online.

Link ideas on linguistic relativity and stereotypes to hegemony and pejorative terms: how can representations of people and groups be used to manipulate the way people think and behave? Explore how certain groups (e.g. disabled people; benefit seekers (see Text 13S); the unemployed; City bankers; Premier League footballers) can be represented in the media, perhaps though a mini-investigation. Lots of data is available online and in newspapers/magazines to carry out this kind of work.

Next, explain the concept of ideology and discuss two opposing political ideologies: the Conservatives and the
Green Party, for example. Students could then take a short extract from political manifestos and investigate how separate and distinct ideologies are expressed through language. In addition, students could investigate language of newspapers, drawing cross-comparisons between left- and right-wing political publications and the tabloid/broadsheet press. How are views, beliefs and ideas expressed through linguistic choices? This work could be linked to stereotypes and hegemony, ending with students writing an essay or giving presentations about their findings.

Finally, discuss the issue of language and racism: is the English language inherently racist? Begin by exploring some of the connotations of black and white – a simple dictionary search would be a good starting point. How many positive/negative synonyms are there in the dictionary for black/white? Next, draw up a list of negative/positive phrases that include black or white: blackmail, blacklisted, to be in someone’s black book and so on.

**Differentiation and extension**

A more straightforward way of exploring ideology could be to investigate your own school or college. What kinds of beliefs and values are expressed through the literature/marketing material/letters/website of the school? What kinds of messages are delivered during assemblies?

A piece of investigative research like this could also be used in preparation for A Level students’ non-exam assessment Investigating language.

Students could investigate the links between political correctness and language.

**Further reading**


Accessible and readable chapter covering linguistic relativity. The whole book has many bite-sized chapters on a range of issues in linguistics, many of which are relevant to other parts of the A/As Level course.


Explores the pejorative shift in representations of the working class.
This relates to ‘Language, the Individual and Society’ in the specification for A Level and ‘Language and the Individual’ in the specification for AS Level.

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B. Child language development (1 question from a choice of 2; from written, spoken or multi-modal language (30 marks))

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This unit explores the representations of people, social groups and gender. Students should use the key terms learnt in previous Unit 13 sections such as representation, stereotype, hegemony and ideology. Further work on language and gender is included in Unit 15. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

- analyse how language can be used to represent people and social groups
- compare texts that are used to represent people and social groups.

**Notes**

- Care is needed when representing people and social groups, and students should be aware of stereotyping.
- Students should adopt a critical approach when analysing people, social groups and gender, thinking why representations are framed in certain ways – and to what extent they agree with them. How and why is language shaped in order to affect the way that people think?

**Suggested route through this section**

This is the final section to be taught in this unit and, in many ways, is the most challenging. Students should be now applying their knowledge from Units 1–13, using technical linguistic terminology where appropriate and demonstrating objective, interpretative analyses about language. They should also be able to compare across texts, as in the requirements for the examination.

**Representations of people and social groups (13.6.1)**

Begin by exploring and discussing what is meant by a social group, sociolect and sociolinguistics. Explain how these groups are dynamic and often interwoven with and across one another. Pick out some ‘loaded’ words such as chav, benefit seeker or WAG and discuss some of the pejorative connotations often associated with these social groups. Explain the concept of stigmatising and the power of language – again, this could be linked to linguistic relativity and ideology. Discuss: does language represent the point of view of ‘the norm’? Is the language inherently prejudiced, or is it the users of that language?

Find and read The Guardian article ‘So now we’ve finally got our very own “white trash”’ on stereotypes of social groups and ideology and discuss why language to describe social groups can often be so vehement.

Next explore terms used to represent gay, lesbian, bisexual and transgender people. Discuss the words that the class come up with: which ones are ‘acceptable’, and why? Which ones are pejorative, and why? Discuss how language changes over time and how words can undergo semantic change – amelioration or pejoration. Introduce the term lavender linguistics and read ‘Two lavender issues for linguists’, by Arnold Zwicky (available online). Think about why LGBT communities would use certain sociolects, and discuss the links between language and identity.

As a consolidation activity, students could investigate the representation of a social group of their choice, presenting their ideas as a presentation to the class.

**Representation of women (13.6.2)**

Discuss how and why men and women might be represented differently in the media and complete Activity 14 (Discussing effects of media representation on women). Read Text 13V (full article available online) and read the linguistic analysis.

Students following the A Level could look at a text from another time period to examine how language and representations have changed over time in a specific genre.
Representation of men (13.6.3)

Look at some examples of language in which English appears to be biased towards men:

Star Trek: Our people are the best gamblers in the galaxy. We compete for power, fame and women. (*people = men*)

School textbook: The brave pioneers crossed the plains with their wives, their children and their cattle. (*pioneers = men*)

Riddle: A man and his son are out fishing when the son has an accident. He is rushed to hospital, where a doctor is told to treat him. But, the doctor gasps in horror and says ’I can’t treat the boy, he’s my son’! (*doctor = man*)

Ask the class to think of as many phrases as they can that are marked in terms of gender. Put them into two columns, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>manpower</td>
<td>housewife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chairman</td>
<td>babe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hunk</td>
<td>tart</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Look at a text that represents men in a particular way – such as an advert for alcohol or for male vitamins/supplements. Ask students to analyse the use of synthetic personalisation, audience address/positioning and gender representation.

**Differentiation and extension**

Students interested in lavender linguistics could investigate the Polari language, the coded lexicon of gay communities (see *Babel* magazine, January 2015 for an introduction to this).

Students could also look at the representation of people, social groups and gender in film – such as the James Bond series or Disney films.

**Further reading**


A popular first year undergraduate textbook, covering a range of sociolinguistic areas such as language diversity, variation, contact and attitudes.
This relates to ‘Language, the Individual and Society’ in the specification for A Level, and is not relevant to AS Level.

A Level exam:

Language, the Individual and Society (40% of A Level)
2.5 hours

A. Text variations and representations (3 questions, 1 on each text (25 marks each) and 1 comparison (20 marks))

B. Child language development (1 question from a choice of 2; from written, spoken or multi-modal language (30 marks))

AIMS AND OUTCOMES

The first section of Unit 14 explores the stages of child language development and their typical linguistic characteristics. By the end of this section, students should:

• understand the stages of child language development
• understand the linguistic characteristics of different stages.

Notes

• It is crucial that students understand the given stages of child language development are mere guidelines – and that the boundaries are fuzzy.
• If a child does not show typical linguistic characteristics of a certain stage, this does not mean they are ‘under developed’ or ‘advanced for their years’ – each child progresses and develops at a highly individual rate.
• Individual development is an interesting part of child language development in its own right.

Suggested route through the unit

The most obvious way to teach this unit is a chronological journey through the developmental stages of child language, beginning with pre-birth and ending with post-telgraphic. This is the suggested route given here. It may also be useful to refer to the ‘theories of child language development’ throughout, so that theoretical arguments can be applied to the data. A table containing features of each stage that students can complete as they work through this unit will be useful in bringing ideas together. A glossary of key terms related to child language development is also a useful resource for students to complete as they work through this unit.

The process of spoken acquisition

Begin this unit with a general question and discussion session, which aims to explore some of the general concepts related to child language acquisition, and also providing a good opportunity to debunk some of the ‘myths’ and introduce some key terms. You might explore some of the following questions:

• What challenges do children face during language development?
• Are children explicitly taught how to use language?
• Do children around the world learn language in the same way?
• What kind of errors are children likely to make during language development, and why?
• How important are adults in the process of language development?
• Why do humans have language – and where did it come from?

You could then ask students to complete Activity 1 (My early speech) of the student book – students love sharing their own stories, memories and anecdotes about their own language development.

Pre-birth

Ask students to read The Daily Telegraph article on how babies learn to recognise their caregiver’s prosodic features while in the womb, available on Cambridge Elevate. Discuss this as a class.

Pre-verbal stage

Begin by asking students to create a list of sentences that babies might typically ‘think’, on separate pieces of paper (e.g. I want to be fed; Where is my mummy?; Give me that teddy bear, etc.) Collect in the sentences and redistribute them in paired groups, making sure that each student only sees their own. Next, ask students to communicate the sentences to one another, without using spoken language, with their partner having to guess the intended message. It may result in a noisy classroom, but will allow students to experience just how difficult it is for babies to communicate their intended message!

Next, discuss some of the problems that relying on non-verbal language may create. How does it limit the way in which humans can communicate? Introduce some key terms (cooing; babbling) and how some of these sounds articulated, and ask students to complete Activity 2 (Non-verbal communication).

Holophrastic stage

As preparation work for this unit, ask your students to ask their parents what their first words were. Discuss as
a class. Why were these words learnt first? What does it reveal about child language development, the way in which children learn, and what is important to children?

Complete Activity 3 (Holophrastic utterances and their meaning), adding students’ first words onto the table. Remind students that if language is reduced to one-word utterances, then this creates ambiguity – potentially solved by context, but it nonetheless creates difficulties in interpreting the intended meaning of language.

Ask students to categorise the following words into groups: (1) naming things or people; (2) actions/events; (3) describing/modifying and (4) personal/social.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ball</th>
<th>dirty</th>
<th>go</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dog</td>
<td>cat</td>
<td>allgone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give</td>
<td>sit</td>
<td>juice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bye-bye</td>
<td>baby</td>
<td>mummy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hi</td>
<td>shoe</td>
<td>more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nice</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yes</td>
<td>daddy</td>
<td>down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>up</td>
<td>milk</td>
<td>put</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stop</td>
<td>car</td>
<td>biscuit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Which category has the most words – and why do you think this is?

Introduce Katherine Nelson’s 1973 ‘50 first word study’ and her findings. Discuss as a class her results.

You might end by asking students to write a discursive essay on child language development in the first 12 months.

Two-word stage

Begin with an exploration about what the following two-word utterances might mean

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I sit</th>
<th>I shut</th>
<th>byebye car</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>no pee</td>
<td>see baby</td>
<td>siren by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more cereal</td>
<td>more hot</td>
<td>dry pants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other pocket</td>
<td>boot off</td>
<td>all dry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post come</td>
<td>airplane allgone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>our car</td>
<td>dada away</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>all messy</td>
<td>all wet</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

And then discuss the potential ambiguities within these utterances. What can a child ‘do’ in the two-word stage that they were unable to do in the holophrastic stage? Stress that the beginning of the two-word stage marks the emergence of grammar and syntax. Work out the errors the children are making in the above data, and explain these using precise linguistic terminology.

You might also introduce Roger Brown’s 1970 research on two-word utterances, and the idea that even though children’s utterances tend to be lacking in grammatical
Further reading


CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES

In the Student Book

VIDEO: Stages of Language Development

LINK: Find the article on the Science Magazine website discussing how babies learn to recognise words while in the womb

LINK: Find The Daily Telegraph article about how babies listen to their mothers while in the womb

In this Teacher’s Resource

LINK: ‘Child Language Data Exchange System’ (CHILDES) website
This relates to ‘Language, the Individual and Society’ in the specification for A Level, and is not relevant to AS Level.

A Level exam:

**Language, the Individual and Society** (40% of A Level)
2.5 hours

A. Text variations and representations (3 questions, 1 on each text (25 marks each) and 1 comparison (20 marks))

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**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This section of Unit 14 explores a range of theoretical work associated with child language development. This is particularly relevant to AO2, where students will be required to demonstrate critical understanding of concepts and issues relevant to language use. By the end of this section, students should:

- understand the key theories surrounding child language development
- be able to critically engage with a range of theories, considering the arguments for and against each of these.

**Notes**

- Theories surrounding language must always be supported by and interpreted through data. Students should not try to ‘force’ learned theories into their answers, but to use the data as a springboard to discuss wider theoretical issues.
- No one theory is ‘better’ than another – they each have their own potential merits and flaws. Students should be able to critically engage with these, asking questions of theories and justifying their ideas with evidence from the data.
- Linguistic research about child language development is an ongoing process, and students should not be aiming towards a definitive right or wrong ‘answer’.

**Suggested route through this section**

Taking a chronological approach to teaching this section is beneficial in a number of ways. It allows students to see how theories surrounding child language have changed over time, and what current thinking looks like. This is the suggested route given here, and it will be useful to refer to the section on ‘stages of acquisition’ throughout, as these two sections complement each other. Students could complete a separate resource folder on theorists, using their class notes and own independent research to add to this.

**What is a ‘theory’ and how might it be tested?**

Begin with a general discussion about child language development and how children learn language. Explain the main differences between the nature/nurture debate and complete Activity 7 (*Nature or nurture?*) as a class.

There are a number of useful videos available on YouTube that may also be useful here. Discuss how linguists might study child language:

- What are some of the important factors to consider, and why?
- What ethical considerations must be taken into account?
- Why are theories only valid if they are supported by data?
- How do linguists study a particular, specific part of language?
- Are humans born with any knowledge or is it all learned?

**Skinner and behaviourism**

Begin with an explanation of Skinner’s ideas, including key terms such as operant conditioning, positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement.

Discuss some of the potential problems/arguments against these ideas:

- How can experimental findings from rats and pigeons be applied to humans?
- Why do children make grammatical errors that adults wouldn’t (such as *we holded the baby rabbits*) if they learn by imitating others?
- Is operant conditioning too simple to be applied to social and linguistic development – does it leave much room for ‘free will’?

Students could also complete some independent research on Skinner and behaviourist approaches, adding to their resource file as they do so.

**Chomsky and nativism**

Introduce Chomsky’s work on child language and explain some of the key terms associated with his ideas: nativism, language acquisition device, universal grammar, critical period and virtuous errors. Ask
students to investigate children who have not been brought up with adult language – such as Genie.

Discuss some of the potential problems/arguments against these ideas:

- Doesn’t language emerge from environment and experience rather than innateness?
- Is language an invented tool or did it simply appear out of nowhere?
- Universal grammar suggests all languages share similar properties. What arguments might be made that they do not? Daniel Everett’s work (available online) on the Pirahã language is useful here.
- That we learn language drawing on general properties of the human mind, rather than an innate universal grammar.

Students could also complete some independent research on Chomsky and nativist approaches, adding to their resource file as they do so.

Piaget’s stages of development

Introduce Piaget’s work and explain key terms such as cognitive development, egocentric speech and object permanence using Table 14C to do so.

Discuss some of the potential problems/arguments against these ideas:

- Many of Piaget’s observations were based on his own three children. What limitations does this have?
- Does Piaget underestimate a child’s intellectual ability?
- How can Piaget’s ideas be fully proven?
- If children develop at different rates and at different ages, then shouldn’t schooling be based on this model too, with mixed age classes?

Students could also complete some independent research on Piaget, adding to their resource file as they do so.

Jerome Bruner and social interactionism

Introduce Bruner’s work and his rejections of Chomsky’s language acquisition device. Explain the key terms relevant here, such as language acquisition support system and scaffolding. Explore some of the key similarities/differences to Piaget’s approach:

Similarities

- Children have a natural curiosity
- Cognitive structures develop over time
- Children are active participants in the learning process

Differences

- Development is a continuous process rather than in stages
- Language development is a cause of cognitive development, rather than a consequence
- The involvement of adults/caregivers is crucial in language development

Students could also complete some independent research on Bruner and social interactionism adding to their resource file as they do so.

Lev Vygotsky and scaffolding

Next, introduce Vygotsky’s work and explain key terms such as more knowledgeable other and zone of proximal development. End with a discussion of the importance of the adult/caregiver in child language development and begin to think about typical features of child directed speech, which will be taught in a later section.

A cognitive linguistic approach

Begin by explaining the cognitive linguistic approach and how this further rejects Chomsky’s ideas on nativism and universal grammar. Introduce the work of Michael Tomasello and Vyvyan Evans, who argue for a usage-based model of language acquisition. An introduction (although, at times, challenging) to cognitive linguistics is available online.

Summarising theoretical approaches

As a class, engage in a debate about the different theoretical approaches to child language development. This could be done in a number of ways: (1) pairs/groups are assigned a theorist/approach and have to draw up a list of the 5 strongest arguments supporting their theory, and then respond to others as they argue for these; (2) statements about child language are displayed on the board and students have a set amount of time to argue for/against these; (3) print snippets of data onto A3 paper and ask students to write different theoretical explanations for this data, in different coloured pens.

Applying theories to data

It is important that students are able to apply theories to data and use the data as a springboard to discuss and engage with theoretical approaches. Complete Activity 9 (Applying theories to data) either individually or as a class. You might also like to assign pairs/groups of students a theorist/approach and have them argue their case as to how ‘well’ their theory fits the data. This activity could also be used with some of the data from the ‘Child Language Data Exchange System’ (CHILDES) website.
Differentiation and extension

Only the key/most influential theorists have been explored here – but the list of people working in the area of child language development is lengthy and offers many more approaches to the subject. Students could explore the work of linguists such as Vyvyan Evans and Daniel Everett, and research at the Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology and Massachusetts Institute of Technology Language Acquisition Lab.

Further reading

A convincing argument for the debunking of the language ‘instinct’, namely that languages exhibit staggering diversity and that we learn language drawing on general cognitive abilities rather than an innate, Chomsky-esque ‘universal grammar’.

An accessible, lively and convincing exploration of the links between language and culture, adopting a firm ‘language as nurture’ approach. Everett’s ideas are largely based on his work with the indigenous Pirahã community of Brazil. Chomsky and co. have engaged in a nasty war of words with Everett.

CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES

In the Student Book
LINK: For more information about Genie, see the article. ‘The Development of Language in Genie: A case of language acquisition beyond the critical period’

In this Teacher’s Resource
LINK: Find the article in The Guardian on Daniel Everett’s work on the Pirahã language
LINK: An (at times, challenging) introduction by Vyvyan Evans to cognitive linguistics is available online
LINK: The ‘Child Language Data Exchange System’ (CHILDES) website
This relates to ‘Language, the Individual and Society’ in the specification for A Level, and is not relevant to AS Level.

A Level exam:

Language, the Individual and Society (40% of A Level)

2.5 hours

A. Text variations and representations (3 questions, 1 on each text (25 marks each) and 1 comparison (20 marks))

B. Child language development (1 question from a choice of 2; from written, spoken or multi-modal language (30 marks))

AIMS AND OUTCOMES

This section explores environmental factors in child language development and some of the typical linguistic characteristics of caregivers. It also examines the role or function of the caregiver in language development and some theoretical work to underline this. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

• understand how environmental factors and child directed speech can affect child language development
• understand some of the linguistic characteristics of child directed speech.

Notes

• Students should be reminded that, just like children, each adult is different and will use language in a different way. Generalisations should be avoided and ideas supported by data.
• Environmental factors and caregivers play a hugely important role in child language development and students should be encouraged to consider the child’s and the caregiver’s language in equal measure.
• Inferences and tentative suggestions must always be made about environmental factors, as opposed to definitive statements.

Suggested route through this section

This section should ideally be taught after the processes and key theories of child language acquisition have been taught. As always, ideas should be supported by data and interpretative answers should be sought, with students being asked to explain the why and the how of their ideas.

Environmental factors

Elicit a list of environmental factors/activities that a child is likely to experience. These might include things such as: ‘morning’, ‘hungry’, ‘only one parent present’, ‘playing’, ‘eating’, ‘at school’.

Create made-up scenarios based on these and suggest ways in which language might be affected. For example, if the scenario is ‘It is evening and the child is ready for bed, and reading a story with his/her mother’ you might suggest that the child’s language is likely to demonstrate focus and attention on the stimulus material (the book); that the child feels relaxed and safe as they are with a known caregiver (the mother); that the activity is part of a wider routine (bedtime story); that the child is tired (night time), and so on.

Explain to students that exam data will always include relevant contextual/environmental information that should be drawn upon in order to make suggestions about child language.

Child directed speech

Complete Activity 10 (My caregivers) and discuss as a class. Then ask ‘how important do you think caregivers are in the language development process?’. Discuss this and relate ideas back to theoretical approaches, especially the ideas from Skinner, Bruner, Vygotsky and scaffolding. Ask students to use technical linguistic terminology when explaining their ideas.

Talk students through some of the typical linguistic characteristics of child directed speech, such as higher/musical pitches, frequency and length of pauses, speed of speech, use of different question types, use of diminutives, nouns in place of pronouns and types of pronouns. Explain the key terms associated with this section – expansion, recasts and mitigated imperatives. Ask students to explain why each feature might be used and the function that they might play in language development.

Complete Activity 11 (Use of CDS) and feed back as a class, annotating the data on the board and encouraging students to use technical linguistic terminology where appropriate.

Parenting magazines and websites provide an interesting source of data when evaluating caregiver speech and its functions. Read a selection of articles, such as ‘9 Ways to help your child’s language development’ (available online) or ‘Baby talk 101: How infant-directed speech helps your baby learn to talk’ (available online).

Discuss as a class: how useful are these types of articles and guides? Is child language development dependent on caregivers adapting and accommodating their speech?
Students could then read some more academic research, such as ‘Talking directly to toddlers strengthens their language skills’ (available online).

**Differentiation and extension**

Lots more data are available on the CHILDES website. Students could investigate languages where child directed speech is said not to be used, such as in Kaluli and Pirahã.

**CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES**

**In this Teacher’s Resource**

- **LINK:** Find and read ‘9 Ways to help your child’s language development’
- **LINK:** Find and read ‘Baby talk 101: How infant-directed speech helps your baby learn to talk’
- **LINK:** Find and read ‘Talking directly to toddlers strengthens their language skills’
- **LINK:** More data are available on the CHILDES website
9 Pragmatics and discourse (14.1.4, 14.1.5)

This relates to ‘Language, the Individual and Society’ in the specification for A Level, and is not relevant to AS Level.

A Level exam:
Language, the Individual and Society (40% of A Level)
2.5 hours

A. Text variations and representations (3 questions, 1 on each text (25 marks each) and 1 comparison (20 marks))

B. Child language development (1 question from a choice of 2; from written, spoken or multi-modal language (30 marks))

AIMS AND OUTCOMES

This section explores ideas surrounding pragmatics, politeness and discourse in child language and child directed speech. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

• understand how and why politeness features are used in child language and child directed speech
• understand some of the typical discourse structures of child language and how utterances correspond to functions.

Notes

• Reminding students of Unit 9.3 (Politeness) might be a useful activity before teaching this section.

Suggested route through this section

The magic word: the importance of politeness

Remind students of the meaning of pragmatics and emphasise the importance of language use in context. Discuss: how do people show politeness to one another in communication? Ask students to complete Activity 12 (Politeness features). Are adults likely to use a different set of politeness features when talking to children? What might the differences be, and why?

Look at a list of utterances spoken by adults to children and analyse them in terms of how they exhibit pragmatics and politeness. Using Brown and Levinson’s politeness model may be a useful way to interpret the data given here.

A further activity here could be to look at children’s books and consider how they ‘teach’ ideas about politeness. What politeness features can be found in the caregiver and child’s language? What kind of events happen that aim to teach children about politeness and societal expectations?

Discourse (14.1.5)

Begin by explaining that politeness is marked by more than just individual utterances and words – the structure of conversations also follow conventions that contribute to politeness. Remind students of Unit 9.2 (Conversational maxims) and discuss situations where a child might find it difficult to follow these maxims.

Introduce the key terms associated with discourse – initiation, response and feedback and look at Table 14E. Students could then write their own examples of possible child language that follows this discourse structure. Discuss why this is a typical structure of conversation – what function does each step have, and how might it contribute to overall linguistic and cognitive development?

Next, explain Halliday’s functions, as outlined in Table 14F and complete Activity 14 (Language functions). Explain that Halliday’s work is part of a wider theory known as systemic functional linguistics (SFL) – a theory of language centered on language function, placing what language does and how it does it at its heart. Students can then read an introduction to SFL online.

Students could then write an essay analysing pragmatics, politeness and discourse in the following data:

The following is a conversation between Jess (2 years, 2 months old) and her Dad. They are reading a book together.

Jess: book
Dad: yes it’s your book (.) do you like that one?
Jess: book
Dad: do you want me to read it?
Jess: yes (.) read
Dad: come and sit here then (.) oh look (.) here are some horses
Jess: horses
Dad: and who is this?
Jess: doggie
Dad: yes a dog (.) a big brown dog
Jess: shop
Dad: shop?
Jess: yeah shop doggie
Dad: oh yes we saw Jim’s dog in the shop didn’t we
Jess: Jim doggie
Dad: is this like Jim’s dog?
Jess: yeah
Dad: a bit (.) and what’s this?
Jess: baa baa
Dad: that’s right (.) a sheep (.) it says baa

**Differentiation and extension**

John Dore’s functions of language are similar to Halliday’s but may be more straightforward for some students – their labels are easier to remember and learn, for a start.

A discussion of temporal, spatial and person deixis would be a useful extension activity exploring pragmatics in conversation.

**CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES**

**In the Student Book**

**LINK:** Read *The Guardian* article ‘Are iPads and tablets bad for young children?’

**In this Teacher’s Resource**

**LINK:** An introduction to SFL online
This relates to ‘Language, the Individual and Society’ in the specification for A Level, and is not relevant to AS Level.

A Level exam:
**Language, the Individual and Society** (40% of A Level)
2.5 hours

A. Text variations and representations (3 questions, 1 on each text (25 marks each) and 1 comparison (20 marks))

B. Child language development (1 question from a choice of 2; from written, spoken or multi-modal language (30 marks))

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This section explores the acquisition of lexis (words) and semantics (meaning). By the end of this section, students should be able to:

- understand how children acquire words and in what order they tend to appear
- understand how children begin to apply meanings and concepts to words.

**Notes**

- As always, students should look to make interpretative analyses based on data.
- Students should take a descriptivist approach when analysing child language, aiming to explore, understand and describe what children do with language – rather than simply pointing out what they have done ‘wrong’.

**Suggested route through this section**

This section should be taught after stages of development and theories about child language development, so that students can apply what they have learnt here. It may be useful to revisit Unit 5 (*Lexis and semantics*) before teaching this section.

**Lexis**

Begin with an explanation of Katherine Nelson’s ‘50 first words’ study, and complete Activity 15 (*First words*). Discuss why concrete nouns such as *ball* and *biscuit* might appear early on in lexical development – are these easier to handle cognitively? Why do abstract concepts such as *love* or *happiness* or stative verbs such as *wish* or *dream* not appear as first words? Revisit the concept of object permanence here and ask students which theories of child language could be used to support Nelson’s findings.

Read the *Daily Mail* article on children’s first words with a critical eye. What problems are there in the way the article is framed, in sentences such as: ‘the 25 “must have” words are part of a much larger list of 310 words that should be in a toddler’s vocabulary and designed to be ticked off in 10 minutes by parents’ and ‘being slow to talk can also be a sign of deeper problems from deafness to autism’? This activity could then lead on to a further piece of discursive writing about parent’s perceptions of child language development, and representations of child language in the media.

Watch the video on lexis, semantics and grammar.

**Semantics**

Explain Eve Clark’s work on semantics and *overextension*. Ask students to imagine a child learns the word *ball*. In their mental dictionary they are beginning to build, *ball* means ‘a spherical object’. So, they logically call other spherical objects *ball* too: *moon*, *plate*, *wheel* and so on. Complete Activity 16 (*Overextension*) and explain the differences between analogical and categorical overextension. Revisit student answers from Activity 16 and decide which type of overextension is more likely, and why. Another relevant piece of research here is Rescorla’s 1980 work, where it was found that 33% of words in 6 children’s first 75 words were overextended.

Explain the concept of *underextension*. Discuss why overextension and underextension might happen:

- Children have limited symbolic ability
- Incomplete semantic features for concepts
- Limited vocabulary
- Retrieval / memory problems
- Phonological errors

Explain the concept of *semantic features*, which is one way of representing semantic properties. Semantic features are a way of expressing the presence or absence of semantic properties by pluses and minuses. For example, the lexical entries for words such as *father*, and *girl* would appear as:

- **father**
  + male
  + human
  - parent
  + young

- **girl**
  + female
  + human
  - parent
  + young

Ask students to complete semantic properties for the following words: *mother*, *widow*, *sister*, *aunt*, *uncle*, *maid*. How does this exercise make you aware of some of the difficulties children face when acquiring semantics?
Explain **homonyms** (e.g. *bear* and *bare*) and how the use of these may result in ambiguity, which occurs when an utterance has more than one meaning. Ask students to explain the potential ambiguous meanings of the following sentences:

*He waited by the bank*

*Is he really that kind?*

*The long drill was boring*

*It takes a good ruler to make a straight line*

*He saw that gas can explode*

Next, discuss how ambiguity is solved – how do we know which meaning of a word is the intended one? What problems might children face when acquiring semantics and faced with ambiguous sentences?

**Differentiation and extension**

A further activity surrounding hyponymy and semantic features could involve the exploration of the **mental lexicon** and **semantic network theory** – how are words and meanings organised in the brain? What might a ‘mental dictionary’ look like? Students could independently research this theory and draw their own semantic networks for given concepts.

**Further reading**


Further information and short class activities on lexis and semantics.
11 Grammar (14.1.7)

This relates to ‘Language, the Individual and Society’ in the specification for A Level, and is not relevant to AS Level.

A Level exam:

**Language, the Individual and Society** (40% of A Level)

2.5 hours

A. Text variations and representations (3 questions, 1 on each text (25 marks each) and 1 comparison (20 marks))

B. Child language development (1 question from a choice of 2; from written, spoken or multi-modal language (30 marks))

**Aims and outcomes**

This section explores the acquisition of grammar, morphology and syntax. By the end of the section, students should be able to:

- understand and analyse how children acquire grammatical, morphological and syntactical rules
- understand and analyse typical grammatical, morphological and syntactical errors that children make.

**Notes**

- Grammar can encompass a broad range of features within children’s speech, and can be one of the more complex aspects of child language development.
- Students should aim to spot patterns and clusters of features within data rather than individual examples, as these will add strength to an analytical and evaluative argument.
- Every child learns at different rates, and although some typical stages and orders of grammatical developments are given here, students should be reminded that these are merely guidelines.

**Suggested route through this section**

This section should be taught after stages of acquisition and theories of child language have been taught, so that students can make links to these. Grammar is a broad topic and it is recommended that a significant amount of time be spent on this section. It may be useful to revisit Unit 6 (Grammar) before teaching this section.

**Grammar**

Start by asking your students to write a definition of ‘grammar’ – and see how hard they find it! Explain that grammar is a huge topic and incorporates a wide range of linguistic features. This section will concentrate on the acquisition of pronouns, negatives and questions, though other elements that could also be investigated include sentence length, type and function, conjunctions, determiners, clauses, anaphora and mood.

**Morphology**

**Wug test, bound and free morphemes**

Begin with an explanation of morphology and *bound/free morphemes*. Complete Activity 19 (Bound and free morphemes), and introduce the terms *prefix* and *suffix*, with examples. Ask students to break down the following words into their constituent parts, giving each part a label as they do so:

- unbelievable
- unsystematically
- Chomskyites
- dehumanisation

Then, discuss what problems and rules children must solve in the process of morphological development. What kinds of morphemes are likely to appear first/last – and why?

Explain the Wug test, using either models of Wugs or pictures, freely available online. How might Berko’s findings be supported by theories about child language? End with students writing a discursive essay on the following:

*My 3 year old daughter said ‘we holded the baby rabbits’ and I congratulated her on her use of language. Why?*

To consolidate this section, watch Steven Pinker talk about ‘How Children Learn Language’, available online.

**Pronoun acquisition**

Explore some of the problems children might face when acquiring pronouns, and their complexity in terms of person, number, gender and possessive marking. Introduce Ursula Bellugi’s 1971 work on pronoun acquisition, and explain the stages involved in this process. Ask students for ideas as to why the stages appear in this order – how might this be linked to theories about child language? Complete Activity 20 (Pronoun acquisition).

You could also introduce students to *person deixis* here – applying this to the data in Activity 20.

**Negative acquisition**

Introduce Ursula Bellugi’s 1966 work on negative acquisition, which also proposes a series of stages. Explain the stages, using data to support the theory.

- At first, there is a single dependence upon the words ‘no’ and ‘not’ used either singly or in front of other expressions: ‘No want’, ‘No go home’.
• Next, around the age of 3, ‘don’t’ and ‘can’t’ begin to be used. These words, together with ‘no’ and ‘not’, also begin to be placed after the subject and sentence and before the verb: ‘I don’t want it’, ‘Sam can’t play’.

• In the final stage, more negative terms are added, e.g. ‘didn’t’ and ‘isn’t’, plus the capability to attach negatives to auxiliary verbs and the copula verb to be.

Complete Activity 21 (Using negatives) and discuss as a class. Ask students to give their explanations for why they placed each utterance into a stage.

Question formulation
Begin with a discussion around why questions are so useful in a language. What might they enable you to do? Explain that question acquisition is an important step in language development as it allows children to learn more about the world – to discover new knowledge and demonstrate their inquisitive nature. Remind students that children are naturally inquisitive and want to learn about their environment, and questions are an important way of doing this. Introduce Ursula Bellugi’s 1966 work on question acquisition and end with a discussion around wh- questions. How might what, where, why and when differ in their cognitive demands? Which ones are likely to appear first/last, and why?

Syntax
Explore the meaning of syntax and when it emerges in child language development – during the two-word stage. Give students a pair of simple two-word utterances such as ‘daddy go’ and ‘go daddy’ and discuss how syntax can render different meanings in these. Explain Roger Brown’s 1970 research on two-word utterances and the development of thematic roles:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AGENT: performs the verb</th>
<th>He ran</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>THEME: the one/thing that undergoes action</td>
<td>I called her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACTION: the verb</td>
<td>the boy rode the bike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOCATION: where the action takes place</td>
<td>It is raining in Istanbul</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOAL: the place to which an action is directed</td>
<td>Put the bags on the floor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOURCE: the place from which an action originates</td>
<td>I flew from Istanbul to London</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTRUMENT: the means that performs an action</td>
<td>He cut my hair with a razor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPERIENCER: one who perceives something</td>
<td>I heard her singing in the shower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAUSATIVE: a natural force that causes change</td>
<td>The wind damaged my roof</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Apply thematic roles to each of these two word utterances:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>daddy sit</th>
<th>cup table</th>
<th>drive car</th>
<th>big crayon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eat grape</td>
<td>go park</td>
<td>mummy dress</td>
<td>this telephone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mummy come</td>
<td>my teddy</td>
<td>that money</td>
<td>sit chair</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Next, based on this data, ask your students to write grammar rules for the two-word stage. This way of using formal notation to describe grammar is a skill many undergraduate courses in linguistics/English language will use. Use the following notation, where a sentence such as daddy sit would be allowed via the following rule:

S → N V

This translates as: a sentence (S) can consist of (→) a noun (N) followed by a verb (V)

N = Noun
V = Verb
Adj = Adjective
Adv = Adverb
Prep = Preposition
Pr = Pronoun
Det = Determiner
Aux = Auxiliary verb

Write the complete set of rules for the data, and ask students to then think about how grammar rules might be represented in the mind. Do we have a set of concrete rules like this, as suggested by linguists such as Noam Chomsky and Steven Pinker – or is grammar more usage-based and abstract, as suggested by linguists such as Michael Tomasello?

Bringing it all together

Activity
Ask students to produce a short piece of analytical writing about each of the following child language snippets of data, using the knowledge they have learnt in this section and applying theories where relevant and appropriate.
there is car | why not ball
---|---
we hold doggie | car droved in garage
give anna more cookie | put butterfly on the window
teddy floor on he sad | I want drink it out can

**Differentiation and extension**

The Wug test has lots of different strands and many of these are available online. Students could look at these and analyse each one as to which part of grammar is being explicitly investigated.

There are many videos of the Wug test ‘in action’ available online.

Students could take some data from the CHILDES website and apply the knowledge they have learnt in this section.

**Further reading**


Accessible and readable chapter covering some of the content here, and more. The whole book has many bite-sized chapters on a range of issues in linguistics, many of which are relevant to other parts of the A/AS Level course.

‘First Language Acquisition’, University of Pennsylvania, Department of Linguistics. (available online)

Provides a thorough overview of child language development, with information on grammatical development and lots of supporting data.

**CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES**

**In this Teacher’s Resource**

**LINK:** Find and read ‘First Language Acquisition’ from the University of Pennsylvania, Department of Linguistics

**LINK:** Watch Steven Pinker talk about ‘How children learn language’

**LINK:** Students could take some data from the CHILDES
This relates to ‘Language, the Individual and Society’ in the specification for A Level, and is not relevant to AS Level.

A Level exam:
**Language, the Individual and Society** (40% of A Level)
2.5 hours

A. Text variations and representations (3 questions, 1 on each text (25 marks each) and 1 comparison (20 marks))

B. Child language development (1 question from a choice of 2; from written, spoken or multi-modal language (30 marks))

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This section explores the writing development processes in children. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

- understand the writing development process and how it is related to speech and reading development
- understand and be able to analyse some of the typical linguistic characteristics of early writing
- understand some of the key theories and concepts related to writing development, and approaches to teaching grammar and writing.

**Notes**

- As with spoken acquisition, it is important to remember that children develop at different rates and in different ways.
- Writing is a taught process and children are reliant upon adult intervention to learn this successfully.
- Students should be aware of and sensitive to different children’s attitudes/circumstances to writing and education.
- Students should adopt a descriptivist approach when analysing child writing, aiming to describe and analyse data rather than simply pointing out what children have done ‘wrong’.

**Suggested route through this section**

It is suggested that this section is taught after spoken acquisition. As with spoken acquisition, this is a huge field of study and there are many things that could be covered that time will sadly not allow for.

Learning to write

Begin by discussing some key questions surrounding writing acquisition, introducing key terms such as *grapheme*, *phoneme* and *motor skills* where appropriate.

- When does a child actually start to write, and how do they learn?
- Can scribbles and unrecognisable squiggles be classed as writing?
- What problems must children overcome during the writing acquisition process?
- What makes writing difficult?
- What are some of the differences between speech and writing, and how might children use knowledge about spoken language in order to inform their own writing?
- What are your early memories about learning to write?
- Are children who are exposed to a rich reading environment more likely to be successful writers? Why?

End this discussion with an explanation of some of the more important concepts of writing development: oracy, literacy, fine and gross motor skills and directionality.

A practical example that will allow your students to partly empathise with early writers is asking them to write a word in a different writing system to English, in their non-dominant hand. For example, ask them to write ‘writing is hard’ in Arabic:

من الصعب كتابة

As a further demonstration of the difficulties of writing, ask your students which direction they wrote this in – and tell them that the Arabic script is written from right to left!

Complete Activity 26 (*Playing with letters*) and look at Text 14I, discussing the meaning of *emergent writing*. Next, introduce Kroll’s stages of writing development, as outlined in Table 14I. An illuminating exercise at this point would be to collect data from your class that is representative of each of these stages. To what extent do the descriptions and typical linguistic characteristics of each stage match the data? This activity could be replaced/supported by completing Activity 27 (*Investigating writing stages*).

**Attitudes and theories about learning to write (14.2.4)**

Begin by exploring the differences between the creative and rule-based model in learning to write and then investigate a range of Key Stage 1 grammar textbooks. A selection of older and more contemporary books would be especially useful here. Look closely at the following:

- What parts of language are included?
• Is grammar tested in context, or are activities more akin to feature spotting?
• What are your own memories about being taught grammar?
• Do they encourage creative or rule-based learning?

Complete Activity 29 (The importance of creativity in writing), again using your students’ own writing if possible.

Next, ask your students to research approaches to teaching grammar, starting off by reading ‘Secret to knocking grammar for six’, a report of Debra Myhill’s research at the University of Exeter and Dick Hudson and Dan Clayton’s article ‘Give us a golden age of grammar’ about attitudes to grammar (both available online).

In light of this research, look at the Key Stage 2 Spelling, Punctuation and Grammar tests (available online). These tests have been criticised by a number of educational linguists and English teachers for testing knowledge about language out of context.

• Are these tests effective? Why?
• What parts of language are explicitly being tested?
• Are they testing knowledge about language in context, or are students asked to feature spot?
• Can you see any problems or issues with these tests?

Read about The Linguistics Association of Great Britain Education Committee’s work on grammar across the curriculum (available online).

Handwriting and orthography (14.2.6)

Explain the differences between cursive script, print handwriting and casual cursive script, discussing the advantages of each and asking students to try out writing in the different styles. Look at Text 14S in light of this – how does Ruth develop over time and what advantages does she gain in developing her writing like this? Students could then be assigned Activity 37 (My writing) and also asked to bring in some of their own early writing for analysis in a later lesson.

Ask students to discuss how to spell a word that hasn’t been seen or heard before – what tactics and information about language do you use? Elicit the following ideas:

• sound clues – sounding out words to separate phonemes and syllables
• writing it down until it looks ‘right’
• using grammatical knowledge (e.g. adding common inflections and morphemes)
• a dictionary or spell-checker
• predictive text.

And then discuss some of the problems children might face when learning to spell. Elicit the following ideas:

• silent letters
• non-phonetic spellings
• specific language impairments such as dyslexia
• attitudes and environmental factors
• homophones and homonyms
• where word boundaries fall.

Introduce Richard Gentry’s 1987 stages of spelling acquisition, as shown in Table 14J. Next, look at Text 14T and identify any emerging spelling patterns and characteristics that could place the data in Gentry’s stages. If your students have brought any of their own early writing in, this activity could also be done with this data.

Next, explain some of the common errors in early spelling: phonetic spellings, under/overgeneralisations, omissions, insertions, substitutions and transpositions and complete Activity 39 (Spelling patterns). Again, using students’ own data would be an illuminating and interesting activity at this point. Encourage students to think of explanations and interpretations of the spelling errors – rather than simply labelling and feature spotting, students should be able to analyse and evaluate possible reasons for patterns in the data.

Lexical and grammatical development (14.2.7)

As a class, discuss the ways in which lexis and grammar develops in spoken acquisition and explain some of the differences and similarities in writing acquisition. Discuss how lexical and grammatical development is connected to a child’s understanding and experience of the world. Which theories of child language development could be relevant here? Students could then independently research The Psychology of Written Composition by Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987), finding out about the two levels of writing they propose.

Next, distribute copies of the UK National Curriculum for English and Literacy at Key Stage 1. How does this encourage and challenge children to develop lexis and grammar? Complete Activity 41 (Subject-specific vocabulary).

Explain some of the typical characteristics of grammatical development: sentence types, lengths and functions, modification, voice, tense and punctuation. Complete Activity 42 (Lexical choices and grammatical constructions), and return to students’ own data in light of this. End with watching Steven Pinker and Ian McEwan in conversation about ‘good writing’, available online.
Differentiation and extension

Ask your students to bring in examples of their own early writing – they enjoy analysing their own work in this way.

Encourage students to read around specific language impairments such as dyslexia and dyspraxia and how they can affect writing development.

Reading the National Curriculum for literacy development at Key Stages 1 and 2 will provide insight into what early writers are asked to do. Students could also compare the UK National Curriculum with some others from around the world – USA, New Zealand and Australia are particularly interesting examples.

Further reading


A thoughtful take on the modern art of writing, which aims to answer the question: what is the art of good prose?

The Grammar For Writing project at Exeter University is a research-based initiative that suggests teaching grammar in context improves writing ability.

CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES

In this Teacher’s Resource

LINK: Look at the Key Stage 2 Spelling, Punctuation and Grammar tests

LINK: Read about The Linguistics Association of Great Britain Education Committee’s work on grammar across the curriculum

LINK: Find and watch Steven Pinker and Ian McEwan in conversation

LINK: Find and read the report of Debra Myhill’s research at the University of Exeter

LINK: Find and read Dick Hudson and Dan Clayton’s article about attitudes to grammar
13 Learning to read (14.2.2)

This relates to ‘Language, the Individual and Society’ in the specification for A Level, and is not relevant to AS Level.

A Level exam:

**Language, the Individual and Society** (40% of A Level)

2.5 hours

A. Text variations and representations (3 questions, 1 on each text (25 marks each) and 1 comparison (20 marks))

B. Child language development (1 question from a choice of 2; from written, spoken or multi-modal language (30 marks))

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This section explores the reading development processes in children. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

- understand the reading development process and how it is related to spoken and writing development
- understand and be able to analyse some of the typical linguistic characteristics of early reading and the language of children's books
- understand some of the key theories and concepts related to reading development, and approaches to teaching reading.

**Notes**

- As with spoken acquisition, it is important to remember that children develop at different rates and in different ways.
- Reading is a taught process and children are reliant upon adult intervention to learn this successfully.
- Students should be aware of and sensitive to different children’s attitudes/circumstances to reading and education.
- Students should adopt a descriptivist approach when analysing reading development, aiming to describe and analyse data rather than simply pointing out what children have done ‘wrong’.

**Suggested route through this section**

It is suggested that this section is taught after spoken acquisition. As with spoken acquisition, this is a huge field of study and there are many thing that could be covered that time will sadly not allow for.

Learning to read (14.2.1, 14.2.2)

Begin by discussing students’ early memories of learning to read, by completing Activity 22 (My early reading) and then discuss the kinds of problems children might face when learning to read:

- the English alphabet
- grapheme-phoneme correspondences
- silent letters (knife, dumb, plumb, sandwich, hour)
- spelling irregularities (too, true, flew, through)
- vocabulary: applying meaning to unfamiliar words
- text direction
- language impairments (e.g. dyslexia)
- amount of caregiver input
- child attitudes towards reading/education.

Explore some of the things that might make English difficult for early readers. Look at some words that have a direct sound-spelling relationship, in words such as cat, jump and got. Transcribe these words phonetically to show the relationship. But what about words that are not so straightforward, such as light, colonel, yacht, money and pair/pear? Transcribe these words phonetically to show some of the complications involved. Stress that although these are interesting examples, words are not read in isolation but as part of a longer string of words – context and syntax often solves potentially ambiguous pronunciations.

Explore Jeanne Chall's 1983 stages of reading development in Table 14H and introduce two methods of learning to read: **look and say approach** and **phonics**.

Look at some of the advantages/disadvantages with these methods and then ask students to research each in more detail.

The Department for Education video on Year 1 phonics screening (available online) shows a particularly interesting example of how phonics works in action and some of the potential problems. The TES article ‘Imposing synthetic phonics is “almost abuse”’ (available online) also explores some of the issues surrounding this teaching method. Complete Activity 24, perhaps with one half of the class arguing for the phonics approach and the other one arguing for the look and say approach.

Discuss the idea that if English is so difficult, then why not change it? Look at some literature from the English Spelling Society and consider the arguments:

- For hundreds of years, many groups and individuals have advocated spelling reform for English. Spelling reformers seek to make English spelling more consistent and more phonetic, so that spellings match pronunciations better and follow the alphabetic principle.
• The Simplified Spelling Society believes that the spelling of English needs simplifying so children's literacy can improve.
• Most linguists believe changing spellings would be unnecessary, expensive and could harm children's ability to read.

Children's author Michael Rosen has been heavily involved with the phonics debate and approaches to teaching reading and writing. His blog article ‘Phonics: a summary of my views’ is available online and is useful for this section.

Children's books
Discuss expectations and functions of children’s books, explaining that:
• children's books are written in a way that helps and fosters reading development
• children's books also relate to prominent aspects of a child's life, e.g. school, family, etc.
• some even deal with sensitive issues such as bereavement and divorce
• they also help to develop social skills such as politeness and pragmatics.

Complete Activity 23 (Exploring early reading books) as a class. The findings here can also be used to inform the next activity.

Activity
Split the class into groups and give each group a children's book. Each group should analyse their given book and report back to the class, giving an evaluative summary: how effective do you think this book is in aiding reading development, and why? Prompt students to look out for typical linguistic characteristics and generic conventions, such as:
• sentence complexity
• use of pragmatics
• lexis, semantic fields and unusual vocabulary
• use of rhyme and other phonological devices
• types of characters
• roles and representations of different characters
• moral, social and educational messages/lessons
• use of graphology to support text

Students could then take one of the books they have analysed and write an essay exploring the question: **how are children's books designed to help reading development?**

As a fun follow-up activity, students could design a couple of pages of a children's book, choosing from a number of given scenarios such as ‘a day out at the zoo’ or ‘my first day at school’. Encourage students to be creative in their approach and shape their language self-consciously, applying what they have learnt about the design of children’s books. Students should then write a short linguistic commentary explaining and justifying their own choices.

**Differentiation and extension**
Explore Newcastle University’s homepage on children’s literature and watch Professor Matthew Grenby talk about his work in early children’s books.
Students could research the most popular children's books (look on Amazon's bestseller list) and explain what makes them so successful.

**Further reading**
The ‘phonics debate’ is ongoing and the Internet has numerous articles about this for use in the classroom.

**CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES**
**In the Student Book**
[LINK: Find out more about the Oxford Reading Tree scheme.]

**In this Teacher’s Resource**
[LINK: Find then watch The Department for Education video on Year 1 phonics screening]
[LINK: Find and read the TES article ‘Imposing synthetic phonics is “almost abuse”’]
[LINK: Michael Rosen's article ‘Phonics: a summary of my views’ is available online]
[LINK: Explore Newcastle University’s homepage on children’s literature]
14 Varieties and diversity (15.1)

This relates to ‘Language Diversity and Change’ in the specification for A Level and ‘Language Varieties’ in the specification for AS Level.

AS Level exam:

**Language Varieties** (50% of AS Level) (1.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (1 question from a choice of 2. Analytical essay on text/data from gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc. (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 opinion article based on attitudes to language (40 marks))

A Level exam:

**Language Diversity and Change** (40% of A Level) (2.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc.) OR Language change (1 question from a choice of 2 (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 analytical essay about language attitudes in two texts (40 marks); 1 opinion article about both texts (30 marks))

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This section explores how language and identity are linked, and how they can influence one another. By the end of this unit, students should be able to:

- understand how language and identity are linked and how language can contribute to shaping identity.

**Notes**

- As with Unit 13, students should avoid making pejorative comments about social groups or individuals, and avoid making generalisations about stereotypes.

- Identity is a complex and intricate concept – and language is just one variable that can help to shape it. Students should avoid making conclusive remarks about identity and language, but rather try to explore how language might contribute to identity.

**Suggested route through this section**

This section should be taught at the beginning of the work on language varieties and language diversity, as an introductory set of lessons. Ideas from it could be applied to language change (tested at A Level).

Creating an identity (15.1.1)

Begin by discussing the meaning of ‘identity’. What variables contribute to it? Clothes? Music preferences?

Values? Move on to focusing on language in particular – how does the way you speak and the words you choose to use contribute to an identity? What factors can influence this, and why might it change? Is language use and variation done subconsciously or consciously?

Explain that the language we use – specifically through lexical choices, pronunciation and grammar – is a fundamental part of forming our identity and how other people perceive us. For example, perhaps there is a tendency for younger people to use more slang and taboo terms, and make use of new words influenced by technology – such as ‘emoji’, ‘selfie’ and ‘unlike’. We use language to build our identity and show belonging to social groups in the same way that we might choose to wear certain clothes, eat certain foods or listen to certain music. Introduce the concept of idiolect and complete Activity 2 (Your own identity).

Next, discuss how identity is often shaped through a desire to be different from another individual and/or social group. The key terms convergence, divergence and accommodation could be introduced here. Social groups often aim to be different from others in the way they use language – a 14-year old wants to be different from a 24-year old, and vice-versa. Teachers and students might use language differently to create contrast between each other and create group identity. The result of this variation is that linguistic distinctions between groups increase and become more marked. Difference helps us to understand how society works. A person’s language gives us a clue to their social type and character, which in turn gives us a clue about how to plan and deliver our own language.

Introduce William Labov’s work on the dialects of Martha’s Vineyard and his main findings. Explaining what life is like on the island will be useful and is important to understand the sociophonetic change – traditionally dependent upon fishing and farming but now dependent upon tourism; multiple social groups (farmers, fishermen, American Indian descent, Portuguese descent, tourists). Explain how Labov investigated change in how people pronounced the vowels in words like price and mouth (traditional island pronunciations sounded more like ‘proyce’ and ‘mowth’, found amongst fishermen, families of English descent and 31–45-year olds). Graphs showing Labov’s data will also be useful to show here. Most importantly however, discuss the reasons for his findings:

*There is no industry on Martha’s Vineyard … for a time commercial fishing in the local waters buoyed up the economy, but the run of fish is no longer what it used to be.* (296)
**Increasing dependence on the summer trade acts** as a threat to [the Vineyarders] personal independence. (297)

**Farming and dairying have declined sharply** because of the ferry rate, which raises the cost of fertilizer but lowers the profit of milk. (296)

**Summer people, who have earned big money in big cities, are buying up the island.** (297)

Discuss how formation of identity may be done through distancing oneself from others – can your class think of times/examples where they or others have experienced this? Labov’s 1966 work on pronunciation of [r] in New York City and Trudgill’s 1974 work on [n] in Norwich are also relevant studies to introduce and discuss here.

**Activity**

A questionnaire was devised by Carmen Llamas as part of her research into accent and identity in Middlesbrough (available online). Students could be asked the following: answer the questions yourself; think about how the questions could be adapted to investigate identity in your community.

**Performance of identity**

Erving Goffman’s *performance of identity* theory (1959) could be introduced here, which is a theoretical framework that could be used throughout this Unit:

- People interact with each other through a type of performance. Goffman draws the parallel between an individual’s everyday activities and performance as presented to an audience. He uses the term ‘performance’ to refer to activities of an individual before a set of observers. Thus, everyone everywhere is playing a ‘role’. Eventually, the conception of role becomes second nature and is infused into an individual’s personality and identity.

- Performance can be linked to the setting an interaction is carried out in.

- Performance depends on a number of forms of communication: non-verbal, dress-codes and linguistic choices.

Goffman’s model could then be applied to a range of linguistic data, such as a set of tweets by a public figure. What kind of identity is the language user creating and how is this achieved through their linguistic choices?

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**Differentiation and extension**

Students could conduct a research study in their own school or college based on the methodologies found in the Labov and Trudgill studies. Ask students to investigate one particular aspect of language – for example the use and frequency of *like* as a filler, pronunciation of word-final [ŋ] or [æː] vs. [æ] use.

One approach to the study of language use and identity is interactional sociolinguistics, an approach that, to a large extent, is based on the work of linguistic anthropologist John Gumperz. Students could research his work, looking specifically at contextualisation cues, contextual presuppositions and cooperative agents.

**Further reading**


A short and accessible article about how language diversity is often a result of identity. Written specifically for A Level English Language students.


Goffman’s original work that explores the presentation of self and interactions as a subject of sociological study.


A popular first year undergraduate textbook, covering a range of sociolinguistic areas such as language diversity, variation, contact and attitudes.

**Labov, W.** (1972) *Sociolinguistic Patterns.* University of Pennsylvania Press.

A systematic introduction to sociolinguistics and the study of language in its social setting.
CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES

In the Student Book

LINK: Read the article ‘Your Teen’s Search For Identity’

LINK: Read William Labov’s paper ‘The social stratification of [r] in New York City department stores’.

In this Teacher’s Resource

LINK: A questionnaire devised by Carmen Llamas as part of her research into accent and identity in Middlesbrough
This relates to ‘Language Diversity and Change’ in the specification for A Level and ‘Language Varieties’ in the specification for AS Level.

AS Level exam:
Language Varieties (50% of AS Level) (1.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (1 question from a choice of 2. Analytical essay on text/data from gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc. (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 opinion article based on attitudes to language (40 marks))

A Level exam:
Language Diversity and Change (40% of A Level) (2.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc.) OR Language change (1 question from a choice of 2 (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 analytical essay about language attitudes in two texts (40 marks); 1 opinion article about both texts (30 marks))

AIMS AND OUTCOMES

This section explores regional dialects through their origins, and how dialects may vary between each other, by looking at a number of case studies. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

• understand what dialects are and some of the difficulties in classifying them
• understand some of the typical linguistic characteristics of dialects by examining a number of case studies.

Notes

• As with all work on language, your own students provide a valuable resource here and they should draw on their own experiences when exploring dialect.
• Ensure that a descriptivist approach is adopted from the very beginning of studying dialects. Students should aim to describe and celebrate the linguistic diversity of the UK, rather than taking a prescriptivist approach and seeing one form ‘better’ or ‘worse’ than other.
• The Internet provides a rich resource for comment, article and personal opinion on dialects and language varieties.

Suggested route through this section

What are dialects and where do they come from?

Begin by exploring the meaning of dialect and language and some of the problems with the definitions of these terms. If a language is the complete system of words and grammar, then a dialect is a variety of that system. Even though people speak the same language, they all speak it in different ways, using different words for different things and putting those words together in different ways. This variety is often created and shaped by geography, hence the reference to regional dialect. A language then, is often thought of as a ‘set of mutually intelligible regional dialects’.

Next, explore the meaning of Standard English: some people argue that the ‘standard’ variety of a language is the one used by the government, the media and other such ‘official’ language outlets. Regional dialects diverge from the standard in terms of certain words and grammatical constructions. Often regional dialects are thought of as low in status and prestige when compared to the standard. So in certain contexts, Standard English has a level of high prestige that other regional dialects do not.

Look at Table 15B and some of the origins of chosen dialects. Here could be a good opportunity to research the origins of some other dialects not included here: cockney, South West, Lancashire and Glaswegian, for example. Or, students could also begin to research some typical linguistic characteristics (lexis is a good starting point) of different dialects. This will lead nicely onto the next section.

End by watching the video on accents to consolidate understanding of dialects.

Language variation in dialects

A good way to introduce this section could be by displaying images and words of objects/people/events that are known to have regional variation – bread bun, dad, gran, drunk, attractive and asking students to think of alternative words for these. Can they be associated with particular regions of the country?

Read the section on cockney rhyming slang in the Student Book and complete Activity 3 (Can you work it out) and Activity 4 (Cockney rhyming slang).

Explain that as well as variation in lexis, regional dialects also have variation in grammar, morphology and syntax. For example, certain Northern dialects replace was with were as in sorry I were late, whereas in Southern dialects was is favoured instead – you was late. In the Bristol dialect we see a variation in morphology – adding an
ending onto some singular forms – such as in I likes. In Lancashire you might hear people vary their syntax, using a double subject construction in an utterance such as I’m always hungry me. Complete Activity 7 (Reflecting on your own dialect).

Researching regional dialect
Start by asking students why dialect study is interesting and important, and explain that there was a surge of interest in England in the 1950s, by linguists such as Wilfred J. Halliday, Martin Arnold, Stanley Ellis and Harold Orton. Explain the Survey of English Dialects, which ran from 1951–1960 and recorded data from 313 places in England. The British Library has 287 items available for exploration online. You could also look at some of the maps showing isoglosses (distributions of linguistic forms on maps).

Direct groups of students towards researching a particular regional dialect from the British Isles. The ‘Sounds Familiar?’ website from the British Library is a good place to start: an interactive and comprehensive catalogue of dialect and accent data, featuring audio recordings, transcripts and linguistic information. Students should structure their investigation using clear language levels – lexis, grammar, morphology, syntax and phonology. Dialect maps and isoglosses would be an informative way of showing data. The UCL Survey of English Usage resources website may also be useful here.

Differentiation and extension
Students could begin to explore attitudes to regional dialects and variation, though this will be looked at further in a following section.

Further reading
A comprehensive review of social and regional varieties of English.
This relates to ‘Language Diversity and Change’ in the specification for A Level and ‘Language Varieties’ in the specification for AS Level.

AS Level exam:
**Language Varieties** *(50% of AS Level) (1.5 hours)*

A. Language diversity (1 question from a choice of 2. Analytical essay on text/data from gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc. (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 opinion article based on attitudes to language (40 marks))

A Level exam:
**Language Diversity and Change** *(40% of A Level) (2.5 hours)*

A. Language diversity (gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc.) OR Language change (1 question from a choice of 2 (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 analytical essay about language attitudes in two texts (40 marks); 1 opinion article about both texts (30 marks))

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This section explores accents and phonological variation across the UK, including Received Pronunciation and regional accents. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

- understand what an accent is and why they exist
- understand some of the phonological characteristics of different accents.

**Notes**

- As with all work on language, your own students provide a valuable resource here and they should draw on their own experiences when exploring accent.
- Ensure that a descriptivist approach is adopted from the very beginning of studying accents. Students should aim to describe and celebrate the linguistic diversity of the UK, rather than taking a prescriptivist approach and seeing one form as ‘better’ or ‘worse’ than another.

**Suggested route through this section**

**Accents and where they come from**

Begin by exploring the definition of accent and how it differs to dialect. Ask your students whether they have an accent – and then tell the ones that say they don’t that they do! Explain that accent is typically associated with geography (though people living in the same area will still speak with different accents), and that varieties of accents are a good thing – they help to create diversity and identity through language. There are many accents in the UK and these are always changing, as part of the wider system of language change. Give an example of how phonology might vary across different accents – in words such as *bath*: [a:] in southern English varieties or [æ] for northern varieties. Here might be a good opportunity to show students some isoglosses of certain forms, such as rhotic areas, where people pronounce [r] in words like car. You could even ask your students to draw where they think the line will be, on a blank map – this could lead to some interesting discussions concerning the north–south divide and the different ways in which it might be done.

Next, ask your students where they think accents come from – and why might they change? Of course, there are many different reasons, but often tracing back the first generation of speakers of a particular language brought up in a new place will yield some answers. The first children to grow up in a new place are very important. The children who grow up together are a ‘peer group’. They want to speak the same as each other to express their group identity. The accent they develop as they go through their childhood will become the basis for the accents of the new place. If people move to a new place in groups (as English speakers did to America, Australia and New Zealand) that group usually brings several different accents with them. The children will draw on the mixture of accents they hear and create their own accent out of what they hear. So, the modern accents of Australia are more similar to London accents of English than to any other accent from England – this is probably because the founder generation (in the eighteenth century) had a large component drawn from the poor of London, who were transported to Australia as convicts. The accents of New Zealand are similar to Australian accents because a large proportion of the early English-speaking settlers of New Zealand came from Australia. People move around the world for various reasons – taking their accent with them.

**Received Pronunciation (15.4.1)**

Explain the definition of RP – a non-localised accent that often has connotations of high social status of its users. You could play your students some recordings of RP speakers (available through the ‘BBC Voices’ website) and discuss: what kind of identity is associated with this accent, and why? This could then lead on to a
discussion about the place of RP in today’s society. Is it still indicative of wealth, status and power – or is that somewhat misleading? Next, explain the BBC’s 2008 decision to use more regional accents across its network. Ask your class why the BBC might have decided to do this, and then read the original article ‘BBC chief calls for more regional accents’ in *The Telegraph*. Complete Activity 8 (*Attitudes to accents*).

Regional accents (15.4.2)

It would be an impossible task to study every single regional accent of the UK, but arming your students with a toolkit would be a useful activity. With a copy of the phonetic alphabet to hand, study Table 15D and ask your students to spot patterns – what kind of phonological variance can they see? Is it across vowels and consonants? Word initial, medial or final position? In cities or in larger regions? Can they apply any knowledge from their own accents to these patterns?

Next, your students could apply this toolkit and patterns to an accent not found in Table 15D – Yorkshire, Lancashire or Bristol, for example. They will need access to spoken recordings of accents, which can be found on the ‘BBC Voices’ and/or ‘Sounds Familiar?’ websites. This research investigation could then be written up, which provides a further opportunity for students to use and apply the phonetic alphabet in their analytical writing.

**Differentiation and extension**

There are numerous isoglosses of phonological variation to be found on the Internet.

A Level students could investigate phonological change over time, including the sources of accents and changing attitudes towards them.

**CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES**

**In this Teacher’s Resource**

**LINK:** ‘Sounds Familiar?’ is an interactive and comprehensive catalogue of UK dialects and accents

**LINK:** The ‘BBC Voices’ website is a resource bank for the accents and dialects of the UK

**LINK:** Find and read ‘BBC chief calls for more regional accents’ in *The Telegraph*
This relates to ‘Language Diversity and Change’ in the specification for A Level and ‘Language Varieties’ in the specification for AS Level.

AS Level exam:

Language Varieties (50% of AS Level) (1.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (1 question from a choice of 2. Analytical essay on text/data from gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc. (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 opinion article based on attitudes to language (40 marks))

A Level exam:

Language Diversity and Change (40% of A Level) (2.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc.) OR Language change (1 question from a choice of 2 (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 analytical essay about language attitudes in two texts (40 marks); 1 opinion article about both texts (30 marks))

AIMS AND OUTCOMES

This section explores attitudes to language diversity, including what those attitudes can be and why they might exist. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

- understand some of the different attitudes to language diversity and why they might exist
- take part in a subjective perception test on attitudes to accents, and analyse the findings.

Notes

- Again, students should be aware that there is no ‘right’ or ‘wrong’ way of using language, and that different attitudes are just the same and equally acceptable.
- Encourage your students to be critical and evaluative when it comes to different attitudes – they should be aware that everyone has the right to their own opinion, but also be able to question others and justify their own opinions.
- Attitudes to regional variation is a fascinating topic that will get your students thinking and debating about their own, and others’ views of language. Data is easy to come by – web forums, newspapers, magazines and personal experiences are all rich and valuable sources of interesting linguistic material.

Suggested route through this section

Linguists have long been interested in the way people are able to make judgements about people simply from their accent. Different studies have tested this by playing to a sample group recordings of several different speakers reading the same passage and asking group members to rate each speakers’ intelligence, background, respectability, honesty and occupation, just based on what they hear. A nice way to begin this section is by carrying out a similar experiment (known as a subjective reaction test) in your classroom.

Activity

You will need:

- Audio recordings of different accents speaking the same passage. This data is freely available at the ‘International Dialects of English Archive’ website.
- A handout that students complete as they listen to the recordings, which asks them to rate each speech sample on a number of different scales: ‘correctness’, ‘pleasantness’, ‘trustworthiness’ and ‘friendliness’ (adapted from Montgomery, 2007)

The handout should contain (something like) the following rubric:

You will hear a number of voices reading the same passage. On the basis of your reaction to the voice alone, please give each voice sample a score out of 10 for ‘correctness’, ‘pleasantness’, ‘trustworthiness’ and ‘friendliness’. When you’ve done this, try to guess where you think the speaker is from and write your answer in the final column.

Please answer honestly. There are no right or wrong answers to this test!

- The handout should have a numerical scale (from 0–10) for each subjective measurement you are asking your students to make.

After the test, ask your class to collate the results and show them through graphs. What patterns emerged, and why? How did the class judge their own accent? How might this differ to a class from a different part of the country carrying out the same experiment?

To consolidate and link to theory, introduce work by Smith (1989) who carried out a similar test with school children in East London. He found that there were clear

17 Attitudes to dialect (15.4.4, 15.4.5)
correlations between children's attitudes towards speakers who use their own accent, cockney, and those who use an RP accent. Most children had negative attitudes towards the speakers of their own accents and more positive ones towards RP speakers – rating the cockney speakers as being less friendly, less intelligent, less hard-working and less honest.

In summary:

• everyone usually rates a standard accent as ‘competent’, ‘intelligent’, ‘ambitious’, ‘confident’ and ‘correct’
• people usually rate (most) non-standard accents as ‘socially attractive’, ‘friendly’, ‘honest’, ‘attractive’, and ‘having a sense of humour’
• remember these are subjective judgements made on just one variable of language, and do not reflect the overall character of the speakers.

Next, discuss where these opinions come from. Do we judge the sound itself, or the associations that sound carries? For example, are accents from big cities associated with crime, urban sprawls, industrialisation and unemployment? Are accents from rural areas associated with friendliness, community and social bonds?

Read Text 15E (Attitudes towards accents) and The Telegraph article on the unpopularity of the Birmingham accent, available online.

A final, fun activity could involve your class rating each other as non-standard > standard, and placing people in a line. Students must be able to justify (with use of accurate terminology and avoidance of stereotyping) why they have made these choices.

Differentiation and extension

There are lots of opinion polls, articles and forum discussion about accents on the Internet – a rich and valuable source of data!

Students could investigate the BBC children’s TV programme Rastamouse (in which a Jamaican-English patois speaking puppet mouse and his friends solve local crimes), and the ‘fuss’ it caused amongst some people. Why did certain newspapers and members of the public react so strongly to this appearing on our TV screens?

Further reading


CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES

In the Student Book

LINK: Read the BBC poll on the unpopularity of Welsh accents
LINK: Read The Telegraph’s article on the unpopularity of the Brummie accent
LINK: Read the Bloomberg article explaining the Sitel study

In this Teacher’s Resource

LINK: The ‘International Dialects of English Archive’ website
This relates to ‘Language Diversity and Change’ in the specification for A Level and ‘Language Varieties’ in the specification for AS Level.

### AS Level exam:

**Language Varieties** (50% of AS Level) (1.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (1 question from a choice of 2. Analytical essay on text/data from gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc. (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 opinion article based on attitudes to language (40 marks))

### A Level exam:

**Language Diversity and Change** (40% of A Level) (2.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc.) OR Language change (1 question from a choice of 2 (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 analytical essay about language attitudes in two texts (40 marks); 1 opinion article about both texts (30 marks))

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**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This section explores age as a social variable and how it might be related to language use and perception. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

- understand how and why age and language might affect one another, in terms of usage and perception.

**Notes**

- As with all sociolinguistic study, students must adopt an objective, descriptivist approach and attitude.
- They should understand that age is just one variable (of many) that can affect language, and should always be considered in line with other variables during any linguistic analysis.

**Suggested route through this section**

This section could be taught as a series of lessons on different social variables – age, gender, occupation and sexuality. Although these are the variables given in these resources, it is by no means a finite list!

**Perceptions of language and age**

Begin with a broad discussion around language and age: does your age affect the way you use language? Do we perceive and treat different ages differently, based on their language? What might be some of the typical linguistic characteristics of different age groups – and why? This could be completed as part of, or in addition to, Activity 9 (Types of language).

Whatever your student responses may be, it is likely that they will agree that age affects language in one way or another. However, it is much more important to understand why this is the case, which is explored in the next part of this section.

**Language and teenagers**

Distribute copies of ‘Adolescent language’ by Penelope Eckert and ask students to identify the linguistic characteristics the author associates with this social group:

- use of *like* and *okay*
- rising intonation
- multiple negation.

Discuss as a class – is this accurate? What other things could classify teenage language?

Remind your students of the conclusion to Eckert’s paper: ‘adolescents do not all talk alike; on the contrary, differences among adolescents are probably far greater than speech differences among the members of any other age group’ and discuss why this might be the case – you could link it back to ideas learned in Section 15.1.1 (Language and identity). Next, introduce the findings from Anna-Brita Stenström’s work, in which she found the following were associated with teenage language:

- irregular turn-taking
- overlaps
- indistinct articulation
- word shortenings
- teasing and name calling
- verbal duelling
- slang
- taboo
- language mixing (or code-switching).

The research by Eckert and Stenström could be further investigated by a class research task. Ask your students to record (with permission) a number of teenage conversations and then analyse the results. Were the class findings in line with the published work? In what ways were they similar and/or different – and why?

**Attitudes to teenage language**

The next activity should involve students engaging with public attitudes towards language and age – specifically the language of teenagers. Begin by reading the *Daily Mail* article (see Text 15F) and complete Activity 11 (Reflecting on and evaluating the article).
Students could then write an open letter to the Daily Mail defending their use of language. This would be excellent preparation for A Level students, specifically for the Power of persuasion section.

Next, watch Professor David Crystal talking about texting and language (available online) and discuss. Are his ideas ‘compatible’ with your students own use of language in text messages? Complete Activity 12 (Using the language of texting in more formal writing).

End with a discussion that should underpin the linguistic analysis work carried out during this section – what influences teen language? Ask your class to ‘rate’ the following factors (or they could come up with the list themselves) on how much influence they think they have over teenage language use:

• your peers and the need to feel part of a group and part of ‘youth culture’
• formation of identity
• technology
• adults – either copying adult speech or diverging from adult speech
• the media and the press
• new means of communication
• music
• street art and graffiti.

End with students reading Text 15G and a consolidation discussion, drawing on Vivian de Klerk’s (2005) conclusions about language and teenagers:

• young people have the freedom to ‘challenge linguistic norms’
• they ‘seek to establish new identities’
• the patterns of speech previously modelled on the speech of adults are ‘slowly eroded by the patterns of speech’ by their peer group
• they need to be seen as ‘modern … cool, fashionable [and] up-to-date’
• they need to establish themselves as ‘different’
• they need to belong to a group whose ‘habits … are different from their parents, other adults and other young people’ distinguishing themselves as members of a distinctive social group.

Differentiation and extension

As well as their own attitudes towards teenage language, it would be interesting to elicit the views of different age groups. Your class could ask older or younger informants what they think typifies teenage language use, and what their attitudes towards this form and style are.

CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES

In the Student Book

VIDEO: Age and Language

LINK: Read the full paper ‘Adolescent language’ by Penelope Eckert

In this Teacher’s Resource

LINK: Watch Professor David Crystal talking about texting and language
This relates to ‘Language Diversity and Change’ in the specification for A Level and ‘Language Varieties’ in the specification for AS Level.

AS Level exam:

**Language Varieties** (50% of AS Level) (1.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (1 question from a choice of 2. Analytical essay on text/data from gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc. (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 opinion article based on attitudes to language (40 marks))

A Level exam:

**Language Diversity and Change** (40% of A Level) (2.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc.) OR Language change (1 question from a choice of 2 (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 analytical essay about language attitudes in two texts (40 marks); 1 opinion article about both texts (30 marks))

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This section explores gender as a social variable and how it might be related to language use and perception. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

- understand how and why gender and language might affect one another, in terms of usage and perception.

**Notes**

- Students should be careful not to ‘rely’ solely on some of the older theories of language and gender.
- Students should write objectively about language and gender, always aiming to explore why language might be affected by gender. They should be aware that gender is just one (of many!) social variables that might affect language, and avoid making sweeping, general statements that suggest language usage and perceptions are solely determined by gender.
- They should adopt a critical approach when applying theories to data, aiming to challenge and weigh up a range of theories, rather than simply taking a 'one size fits all' approach.

**Suggested route through this section**

**Gender representation**

Remember there are two ‘strands’ when studying language and gender:

- How do men and women use language?
- How are men and women represented through language (and other semiotic resources)?

Remind students of some of the content explored in Unit 13 (gender representation: 13.6.2, 13.6.3). Baker (2014: 73) defines representation as: ‘the creation of a mental image of something using signifying practices and symbolic systems (i.e. through language). Stress that gender representation is constantly changing and stereotypes of gender are constantly challenged. This could be underlined by some images/text of where these changes and challenges are evident: the ‘my mum works on this site; please drive carefully’ road sign, for example. Students could then read more about the Swedish toymaker’s gender-neutral toys and watch the video on language and gender.

End with a discussion on gender marking in the English language – and how the English language appears to be androcentric (having an in-built bias towards men). Many of these discussions could be used in preparation for A level students’ work on language change.

- Stanley (1973) found that there are a higher number of terms for promiscuous females than males (students could research/discuss what some of these terms are).
- Terms for women often undergo semantic derogation (pejoration) whilst terms for men tend to retain original meanings or gain respect (amelioration) – compare master with mistress; king with queen and earl with dame. Terms for females often have negative sexual connotations.
- The 1911 edition of Roget’s thesaurus listed womanly along with weakness, feebleness, debility and impotence. Manly was listed with courage, moral fibre, resolution and heroism. Students could then explore contemporary synonyms for womanly and manly.
- Words such as mankind and human are used to refer to both genders.

Finally, explain that in many languages across the world, gender differences are significantly larger than in English. Japanese sentences, for example, sometimes end with mini-words that change a statement into a question, or make a sentence more emphatic. Some of these mini-words are only used by men, others by women. Indeed, dialogue in a Japanese novel can omit the gender pronoun he or she to show who is talking. In the Pirahã
language of Brazil, women use a smaller set of speech sounds than men – no ‘s’ sound, for example.

**Theoretical approaches**

Begin by reading Text 15H as an introduction to sociolinguistic research on language and gender. You could also listen to Deborah Cameron speaking on BBC Radio 4’s *Woman’s Hour*, in 2007, about language and gender (available online).

Students should then split into small groups and investigate some of the more well-known and influential research on language and gender. Their findings could be presented in a number of ways (presentations, fact-files, essays, etc.) but should include the following:

- context of research: time, location, methodologies
- main findings, giving examples from language
- main challenges and arguments against the work
- what it suggests about gender representation.

The following is a list of suggested researchers and studies, but is by no means finite – work on language and gender is very much alive and students are encouraged to investigate contemporary research. The work should then be shared amongst the class.

- Robin Lakoff (1975) *Language and a Woman’s Place*
- Don Zimmerman and Candace West (1975) Interruptions study
- William O’Barr and Bowman Atkins (1980) Courtroom study
- Jenny Cheshire (1982) Reading study
- Deborah Tannen (1992) *You Just Don’t Understand*
- Deborah Cameron (1998) *The Myth of Mars and Venus*
- Christine Christie (2000) *Gender and Language: Towards a Feminist Pragmatics*

**Analysing language and gender**

To finish work on language and gender, bring everything together by analysing a short extract of language, looking at gender representation in the media.

**Activity**

Taken from an analysis by Giovanelli (2015) the following extracts are from a 2014 *Daily Mail* headline and story about the Joanna Dennehy case:

*Selfies of a female serial killer on the run: Woman who stabbed three men in the heart pictured with a terrifying knife while dodging police with her alleged accomplice*

*So what turned an angelic little girl from a good home into a bloodthirsty and sadistic serial killer who now only shows remorse for those she FAILED to murder?*

*I feared Joanna Dennehy would come for my family next, says ex-lover of ‘gentle giant’ who was under the serial killer’s spell*

Ask your students to analyse the language in the extracts, looking for the following in particular, and anything else of interest:

- modification and description given to males and females
- agency of males and females – who is doing what, to whom?
- verb processes involves and associated with males and females
- sensationalism and hyperbole
- metaphor.

Also ask students to apply any of the theories they have investigated to this data.

**Differentiation and extension**

Students could research gender representation in a number of different sources, to add to the work they have done in this section. A good starting point might be gender representation in fiction (children’s books, Mills and Boon novels, for example) and gender representation in gender-orientated magazines (*Men’s Health*, *Cosmopolitan*, for example)

**Further reading**


Giovanelli, M. (2015) ‘Language and gender’. *Emagazine*. There are also a host of research papers, articles and opinion pieces on language and gender to be found on the Internet, for example:

CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES

In the Student Book
LINK: Read more about the Swedish toymaker’s gender neutral toys

VIDEO: Language and Gender.

In this Teacher’s Resource
LINK: Deborah Cameron speaking on BBC Radio 4’s Woman’s Hour

LINK: Find and read the article from The Guardian, ‘Is it time we agreed on a gender-neutral singular pronoun?’
This relates to ‘Language Diversity and Change’ in the specification for A Level and ‘Language Varieties’ in the specification for AS Level.

AS Level exam:

**Language Varieties** (50% of AS Level) (1.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (1 question from a choice of 2. Analytical essay on text/data from gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc. (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 opinion article based on attitudes to language (40 marks))

A Level exam:

**Language Diversity and Change** (40% of A Level) (2.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc.) OR Language change (1 question from a choice of 2 (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 analytical essay about language attitudes in two texts (40 marks); 1 opinion article about both texts (30 marks))

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This section explores occupation as a social variable and how it might be related to language use and perception. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

- understand how and why occupation and language might affect one another, in terms of usage and perception.

**Notes**

- It would be rather fruitless to explore every single occupation and how it might affect language use – a much more pertinent activity is to think why might occupation affect language.

- Again, occupation is just one social variable that could potentially have an effect on language. Students should be aware of this and avoid making sweeping statements that suggests language use and perception is solely the result of occupation. Instead, explore how occupation can be thought of as one variable that contributes to overall identity, which in turn, has an effect on language use.

**Suggested route through this section**

Language, occupation, lexis and register

Begin by completing Activity 15 (*Your own experiences*) and discuss as a class. Explore how occupations may have their own specialist lexis, including acronyms and jargon. Give some examples of these (and ask students to contribute their own, too) from a school context: AFL, CPD, NEET, SLT, headteacher, registration, and so on. Students could refer to the school website or other such literature when doing this. You might explore some grammatical change, here too: how noun phrases such as *learning objective* and *Office for Standards in Education* become acronyms (LO and OFSTED) and sometimes are used as verbs (‘we were OFSTEd last year’). Read the textbook section on mining lexis, including Text 15J.

Students could then research a particular occupation/sector and explore the associated lexis and register. Footballers, lawyers, musicians and scientists will yield some interesting results! Share the findings and end with a discussion on why occupations tend to have their own specialist lexis and register. Was it for the same reason across all occupations, or do different occupations have different reasons and functions for using specialist lexis?

To bring this section to a close, give your students a job advertisement (such as an advertisement for a teaching position, found on the TES jobs website) and ask them to write a discursive essay based around the question *how does occupation affect language?*

**Accommodation**

Next, explore the meanings of *convergence* and *divergence* and Howard Giles’ 1973 work on Accommodation Theory – the idea that speakers will try and make their language resemble, and be more in line with, that of their audience to improve communication. In contrast, some speakers may attempt to use language to distance and distinguish themselves from others.

Explore convergence by looking at Text 15K and completing Activity 16 (*Converging*) as a class. This could be followed up by students transcribing a sports commentary, and analysing how the commentator(s) converge their language to meet the shared expectations of the audience.

Explore divergence by reading Text 15L and completing Activity 17 (*Using an appropriate occupational register*). This could then be followed up by taking a real letter from a school to parents and comparing the differences.

Once again, end with a discussion of why accommodation might happen – is it to show identity? Assert power? Maintain authority? Through an assumption of shared knowledge?
Differentiation and extension

Students could collect a range of data from their parents’ workplaces and apply the knowledge they have learnt in this section to it. Does it show evidence of occupational lexis and register? Does it show evidence of convergence and/or divergence? Why might this be?

Further reading

Andrew Moore’s notes on language and occupation, available online.

CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES

In this Teacher’s Resource

LINK: Find and read Andrew Moore’s notes on language and occupation
This relates to ‘Language Diversity and Change’ in the specification for A Level and ‘Language Varieties’ in the specification for AS Level.

**AS Level exam:**
**Language Varieties** (50% of AS Level) (1.5 hours)

- **A.** Language diversity (1 question from a choice of 2. Analytical essay on text/data from gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc. (30 marks))

- **B.** Language discourses (1 opinion article based on attitudes to language (40 marks))

**A Level exam:**
**Language Diversity and Change** (40% of A Level) (2.5 hours)

- **A.** Language diversity (gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc.) OR Language change (1 question from a choice of 2 (30 marks))

- **B.** Language discourses (1 analytical essay about language attitudes in two texts (40 marks); 1 opinion article about both texts (30 marks))

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This section explores sexuality as a social variable and how it might be related to language use and perception. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

- understand how and why sexuality and language might affect one another, in terms of usage and perception
- explore some of the ways sexuality might affect language
- investigate Polari and ‘lavender linguistics’.

**Notes**

- Students should be aware that sexuality is just one social variable that might affect language use and perception. They should not ‘rely’ on it as a sole variable in terms of understand language, but see as a wider factor in the building and representation of identities.
- Research and interest surrounding language and sexuality is relatively new; but representations of sexuality (in the media and literature) are easy to come across and would provide useful sources of data for comparison, especially to A level students studying language change.

**Suggested route through this section**

**Lavender linguistics**

Introduce what lavender linguistics is: the study of language used by the gay, lesbian, bisexual and transgender society. Discuss how sexuality could affect language in forming, shaping and maintaining identity, either to converge towards or diverge away from other social groups.

**Gender-neutral pronoun**

Explore examples of gender neutral pronouns in language, including those suggested for English, such as ze and then. It would be also useful to look how gender neutral pronouns are marked in other languages, such as Swedish and Persian. Swedish is a particularly interesting case due to the recent introduction of gender-neutral pronouns into its language. Complete Activity 18 (Exploring identity) and discuss as a class, how pronouns are linked to identity and how language is one variable that contributes to this.

A comprehensive summary of gender neutral pronouns can be found online.

**Polari**

Polari can be classed as a language variety, a sociolect, or an anti-language. In 2010, it gained endangered language status. Read about Polari in Text 15M and completing Activity 19 (Polari), again discussing how language is linked to identity. Look at some Polari words and sentences (taken from Paul Baker’s website at Lancaster University), and see if you can ‘trace’ or understand some of the sources. Are there any Polari words that have been borrowed into English?

Discuss why Polari was used, and why it is now an endangered language:

*There are numerous reasons: as a form of protection and secrecy – it excluded outsiders who wouldn’t be able to tell what you were talking about, and allowed gay people to conceal their sexuality. It could be used to talk about other people while they were present, and was particularly useful when cruising with friends. However, it could also be used as a form of attack, to insult or humiliate others. It was a form of humour and camp performance, and also a way of initiating people into the gay or theatre subculture. It allowed its users to construct a view of reality based upon their own values, or to give names to things that mainstream culture hadn’t recognised (such as certain forms of gay sex). (Baker ‘Polari: The lost language of gay men’, available online)*
You could also watch Paul Baker talking about Polari online.

**Differentiation and extension**

Polari is primarily associated with the language of gay men. Students could investigate whether gay women might use a particular language/dialect, and what some of these forms are.

**Further reading**


**CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES**

**In this Teacher’s Resource**

**LINK:** A comprehensive summary of gender neutral pronouns

**LINK:** Paul Baker’s site at Lancaster University

**LINK:** Paul Baker talking about Polari

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
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<tr>
<td><em>ajax</em></td>
<td>next to</td>
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<tr>
<td><em>bevvy</em></td>
<td>drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>bitch</em></td>
<td>catty gay man or to complain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>blow</em>(job)</td>
<td>to give oral sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>bona</em></td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>comp</em></td>
<td>effeminate, outrageous etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>cod</em></td>
<td>awful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>cottage</em></td>
<td>public toilet used for sex</td>
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<tr>
<td><em>dish</em></td>
<td>anus/bum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>dolly</em></td>
<td>pretty</td>
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<tr>
<td><em>drag</em></td>
<td>clothing (usually the sort you’re not expected to wear)</td>
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<tr>
<td><em>eek</em></td>
<td>face</td>
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<td><em>feely</em></td>
<td>young</td>
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<td><em>lally</em></td>
<td>leg</td>
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<td><em>lattie</em></td>
<td>house</td>
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<tr>
<td><em>naff</em></td>
<td>awful, tasteless</td>
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<tr>
<td><em>nanti</em></td>
<td>none, no, nothing, don’t, beware</td>
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<tr>
<td><em>omi</em></td>
<td>man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>omi-palone</em></td>
<td>gay man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>palone</em></td>
<td>woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Polari</em></td>
<td>to talk, or the gay language itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>riah</em></td>
<td>hair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>send up</em></td>
<td>to make fun of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>TBH</em></td>
<td>to be had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>The Dilly</em></td>
<td>Piccadilly Circus, a popular hang-out for male prostitutes in London</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>trade</em></td>
<td>a gay sex partner, often one who doesn’t consider himself to be gay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>vada</em></td>
<td>to look</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ajax - next to  
bevvy - drink  
bitch - catty gay man or to complain  
blow(job) - to give oral sex  
bona - good  
comp - effeminate, outrageous etc.  
cod - awful  
cottage - public toilet used for sex  
dish - anus/bum  
dolly - pretty  
drag - clothing (usually the sort you're not expected to wear)  
eek - face  
feely - young  
lally - leg  
lattie - house  
naff - awful, tasteless  
nanti - none, no, nothing, don't, beware  
omi - man  
omi-palone - gay man  
palone - woman  
Polari - to talk, or the gay language itself  
riah - hair  
send up - to make fun of  
TBH - to be had  
The Dilly - Piccadilly Circus, a popular hang-out for male prostitutes in London  
trade - a gay sex partner, often one who doesn’t consider himself to be gay  
vada - to look
This relates to ‘Language Diversity and Change’ in the specification for A Level. It is not assessed at AS Level.

A Level exam:
**Language Diversity and Change** (40% of A Level) (2.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc.) OR Language change (1 question from a choice of 2 (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 analytical essay about language attitudes in two texts (40 marks); 1 opinion article about both texts (30 marks))

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**
This section explores the origins of English and English throughout history. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

- understand where English ‘came from’ and how it emerged as a language, and to appreciate its rich and varied history
- understand some of the principles of diachronic language change and how English has changed as a language over time.

**Notes**
- The history of English is clearly an enormous topic and simply cannot be covered in all of its wonderfully rich detail at A Level.
- Language change is a part of historical change, and in order to truly understand and appreciate the reasons for language change, students should show awareness of English history.
- Students should be aware that language is a rich, dynamic and ever-changing process. Change happens for a reason and, as linguists, students should aim to understand those reasons.

**Suggested route through this section**

The origins of English
Begin by watching *History of English* by the Open University (available online) about the origins of English. Ask students to make notes as they watch and then discuss the most salient points:

- Where did English come from?
- Which languages have influenced and shaped English over time?
- What kind of words did different languages/groups bring to English?

- What major historical events had an impact on English?
- What are some of the ways that the English language has changed?

Next, read Figure 16A and draw out the fact that English is a *hybrid* or *scavenger* language, made up of many different other languages. In preparation for the section on lexical change, students could begin to create a corpus of words that have been borrowed into English from other languages: French, Latin, Greek, Turkish, Spanish, to name a few.

Show your students some text from the different historical eras, and discuss them, with students beginning to pick apart distinguishing linguistic characteristics of each era. This should be done systematically through the language levels appropriate to this data: lexis, semantics, grammar, syntax and graphology.

**Old English (from the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*)**
Her (…) Ælfred cyning (…) gefeahht wið ealne here, and hine
*Here Alfred king fought against whole army and it*

**Middle English (from Chaucer’s *Canterbury Tales*)**
A yong man whilom called Melibeus mighty and riche bigat vp on his wif, þt called was Prudence a dochter, which þt called was Sophie

**Early Modern English (from Shakespeare’s *The Merchant of Venice*)**
LORENZO
Nay, we will slink away in supper-time, Disguise us at my lodging and return, All in an hour.

GRATIANO
We have not made good preparation.

SALARINO
We have not spoke us yet of torchbearers.

SALANIO
‘Tis vile, unless it may be quaintly order’d, And better in my mind not undertook.

**Modern English (a letter from Jonathan Swift about the ‘decline’ of English)**
MY LORD, I do here, in the Name of all the Learned and Polite Persōns of the Nation, complain to your LORDSHIP, as First Minīster, the our Language is extremely imperfect;
Present-day English

Find and pick apart contemporary song lyrics.

This could also see the beginnings of a class wallchart, which is added to over the course of this unit. Taking the major historical eras given in Figure 16A (Old English, Middle English, Early Modern English, Modern English and Present-day English), start to create a historical timeline that includes:

- significant historical events such as invasions, wars and colonisation that helped to shape and change the language
- technological developments that have impacted on English (such as the invention of the printing press)
- cultural shifts and changes, such as Shakespeare’s writing
- a range of new words, spellings and forms.

Differentiation and extension

Students could investigate one of the major historical eras in more detail, focusing on societal changes and how these might have shaped English.

Students could think about the future of English: can we predict what English will look and sound like in 100 years’ time?

Further reading


CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES

In this Teacher’s Resource

LINK: History of English video by the Open University

LINK: ‘British Library Timeline of the English Language’: an interactive timeline of the evolution of the English language and literature, from the eleventh century to the present day
This relates to ‘Language Diversity and Change’ in the specification for A Level. It is not assessed at AS Level.

A Level exam:
**Language Diversity and Change** (40% of A Level) (2.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc.) OR Language change (1 question from a choice of 2 (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 analytical essay about language attitudes in two texts (40 marks); 1 opinion article about both texts (30 marks))

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**
This section explores the process of lexical change, as part of a series of sections on language change. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

- understand some of the processes of lexical change and the associated terminology
- understand some of the reasons lexical change happens.

**Notes**
- Lexical change is the most conspicuous and frequent type of language change: new words arrive into English at a rapid rate, and we may well notice the first time we hear these new forms.
- Students should adopt a descriptivist approach when studying language change, aiming to explore *why* change happens.

**Suggested route through this section**

**Lexical change**
Begin by asking your class to list ‘new words’ they think have entered the English language in recent years. Write these on the board and explore some of them in further detail. Where did they come from? Who uses them? What might be the reason they entered the language? Are they related to any other words? End by explaining some of the ways lexical change happens:

- external factors: we borrow ‘loan’ words from other languages
- internal factors: we adapt existing words by modifying them (e.g. blending, compounding, etc.)
- we also create entirely new words, neologisms or coinage, but this is less frequent than external or internal lexical expansion.

End by watching the video on lexical change on Cambridge Elevate, which serves as an introduction to the next part of this section.

**Processes of lexical change**
Complete Activity 2 (*Neologisms and why they are created*), using Table 16A as a guide. Add to this data and do the same activity with a wider range of neologisms, using the Cambridge Dictionaries Online blog as a source.

There are a number of follow-up activities that could support work on lexical change:

1. Using an etymological dictionary (one that provides sources of English words), identify the language from which each of the following words are taken, and the year if possible:
   - commando, ambulance, diaper, parachute, umbrella, yoghurt, penguin, bamboo, curry, calendar, kangaroo, whisky, flamingo, celery, tea

2. Explain the origin and formation of the following words, commenting on any unusual features and patterns:
   - eco-friendly, nosebleed, astronaut, software, cardigan, vandal, magenta

3. Choose two passages of around 100 words from different sources – a science textbook and a broadsheet newspaper, for example. Find the origin of each word and quantify the data. What conclusions can you draw about the similarities and differences of each passage? Give reasons for your answers.

**Differentiation and extension**
Students could begin to explore the concept of calque or loan translations, which is a new word or phrase constructed by taking a foreign word or phrase as a model and translating it morpheme-by-morpheme.
Further reading


**CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES**

**In the Student Book**

**VIDEO:** Lexical Change

**VIDEO:** Lexical Change and Attitudes to Lexical Change

**LINK:** Visit Cambridge Dictionaries Online

**In this Teacher’s Resource**

**LINK:** ‘About Words’: a blog from Cambridge Dictionaries Online, including documentation of new words in the English language
24 Semantic change (16.4)

This relates to ‘Language Diversity and Change’ in the specification for A Level. It is not assessed at AS Level.

A Level exam:

**Language Diversity and Change** (40% of A Level) (2.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc.) OR Language change (1 question from a choice of 2 (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 analytical essay about language attitudes in two texts (40 marks); 1 opinion article about both texts (30 marks))

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This section explores some of the processes involved in semantic change and why they might happen. By the end of this unit, students should be able to:

- understand what semantic change is and some of the processes involved
- understand why semantic change might happen
- begin to explore some of the attitudes surrounding semantic change.

**Notes**

- Semantic change is just as common as other types of change. English words have been changing their meanings for centuries, and words are still changing their meanings today.
- Students should adopt a descriptivist approach when studying language change, aiming to explore why change happens.

**Suggested route through this section**

**Neosemy (16.4.1)**

Start by discussing some of the reasons words might change or adapt their meanings, by giving a couple of examples, such as *text* and *wireless*. Complete Activity 5 (*Shifting meanings*) that looks at words that have undergone neosemy and begin to draw out some of the processes involved. Discuss what the reasons might be for these words changing or adapting their meaning.

Next, explain the typical processes of neosemy – generalisation/broadening, specialising/narrowing, amelioration, pejoration, weakening/bleaching, metaphor, euphemism and polysemy.

Determine what kind of neosemy is at work in the following examples:

- **crafty** – strong, powerful, mighty → skillful, dexterous, clever
- **dead or injured civilians** → collateral damage
- **journey** – a day → the distance travelled in one day → the distance travelled from a specified place to another; an ongoing course of travelling
- **corpse** – the body of a human or animal; a (living) person → the dead body of a human or animal
- **arrive** – to come to shore or into port; to land → to come to the end of a journey at a destination
- **ministry of war** → ministry of defence

To end the part of this section, watch the video on semantic change, available on Cambridge Elevate.

**Why do words change meaning? (16.4.3)**

The first is **external factors** – shifts in culture, technology or society, which influence the meaning of a word. Words such as ‘bug’, ‘wall’, ‘text’, ‘crash’ and ‘virus’ have all undergone semantic change as a result of technology, for example.

**Internal factors** is a second reason for semantic change, which is driven by factors inside the language itself. New meanings of a word are often due to similarities – such as *progress* meaning literally to ‘take a step forward’ and metaphorically to suggest ‘a movement towards improvement’.

This knowledge could then be applied to the words in the activity above and Activity 5 (*Shifting meanings*).

**Differentiation and extension**

Ask students to explore the Google Ngram Viewer – a (free) online tool for viewing language change data.

**Further reading**


**CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES**

*In the Student Book*

**VIDEO:** Semantic Change

*In this Teacher’s Resources*

**LINK:** The Google Ngram Viewer
This relates to ‘Language Diversity and Change’ in the specification for A Level. It is not assessed at AS Level.

A Level exam:

**Language Diversity and Change** (40% of A Level) (2.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc.) OR Language change (1 question from a choice of 2 (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 analytical essay about language attitudes in two texts (40 marks); 1 opinion article about both texts (30 marks))

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This section explores orthographical change and ideas surrounding English spelling reform. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

- understand why English spelling is often labelled as ‘illogical’
- understand some of the processes and reasons of orthographical change
- engage with the debate surrounding spelling reform and be able to critically evaluate different arguments

**Notes**

- It is important to remember English has a writing system based on the Roman alphabet that was brought to Anglo-Saxon England in the sixth century.
- Modern-day English spelling is a reflection of historical linguistic change, and is an amalgamation of different traditions: Anglo-Saxon, French and Classical spelling patterns are all used, creating an essentially phonetic system but with some phonemes represented by letter patterns as well as single letters.
- Students should adopt a descriptivist approach when studying language change, aiming to explore why change happens.

**Suggested route through this section**

**An English spelling system (16.5.2)**

Aim to dispel the ‘myth’ that English spelling is irregular, chaotic and unpredictable – a view that is largely based on examples such as *through* the rough cough and hiccough plough me through, I ought to cross the lough. Descriptive studies show that spelling irregularities are the exception, not the rule – such as Hanna et al. (1971), who suggested around 84% of English words (from a corpus of 17,000) were spelled according to regular patterns.

Explore some of the historical factors that have shaped the way English spelling looks today:

- The Anglo-Saxon alphabet, an alphabet of 27 letters was used to represent a phonological system of 40 phonemes. This meant that many phonemes had to be represented by patterns and combinations of letters.
- After the Norman conquest, French scribes reworked a great deal of English, such as *qu* for *cw* (as in *queen*), *gh* for *h* (as in *night*) and *c* before *e* or *i* in words such as *circle* or *cell*.
- Many early printers working at printing presses were foreign, and used spelling patterns from their native languages to spell English words.
- English orthography did not keep pace with the Great Vowel Shift, a phonological change that happened from the mid fourteenth century to the mid-eighteenth century, causing variance in vowel spellings in words such as *name*, *sweet*, *ride*, *way* and *house*. Letters that were originally pronounced became silent, such as the [k] of *knight* and *know* and [e] in *stone*, *love*, etc.
- Reflecting Greek or Latin spelling became fashionable in the sixteenth century, e.g. the *g* added in *reign* and the *b* in *debt*.
- Many new loan words from languages such as French, Latin, Greek and Spanish entered the language in the early seventeenth century, bringing forms such as *-que*, *-zz-* and *-ll-*. Complete Activity 8 (Spelling patterns) and read the ideas on this activity.

Finally, watch the Open University’s video Shakespeare: Original Pronunciation (available online). Look in particular at the examples of where orthography has remained the same, but pronunciation has changed, such as in Sonnet 116. In Shakespeare’s time, *proved* and *loved* would have rhymed, with the vowel as [u] rather than the long vowel [uː] in today’s English.

**Spelling reform (16.5.3)**

As outlined above, English has moved further and further away from its Anglo-Saxon relatively phonetic spelling system. George Bernard Shaw once claimed that *fish* could be spelled *ghoti* – the *gh* to represent [f], *o* to represent [ɪ] and *ti* to represent [ʃ]. Linguists have commented that the example does not work, as *gh* does not appear at the beginning of a syllable to represent [f] and *ti* does not appear at the end of a syllable to represent [ʃ]. Nevertheless, the *ghoti* example is often cited as an argument for spelling reform.
Explain the concept of spelling reform and the two main views:

- Those who believe that the current alphabet should be enlarged so that those sounds that are not adequately reflected can be ascribed a corresponding letter.
- Those who believe that the existing alphabet should be retained, but some of the more tricky problems should be addressed:
  - For example, until the eighteenth century, there was still some concern over whether i and j should be separate letters (in much of Europe j is pronounced as [j], so are both these letters necessary if they have similar functions?)
  - Is there any useful need for the letters c, q and x? If these letters cannot be seen as distinct from k or sh/ch they should be refined or removed.

Allow students to explore the website of the English Spelling Society, whose aims are:

- raising awareness and promoting research on the economic and social costs of English spelling
- providing resources on the development of English spelling and of the movement to update it
- seeking to open minds to the possibility of an eventual update of English spelling in the interests of improved literacy.

After students have explored the website, discuss the aims of the English Spelling Society. This could take the form of a debate (with one half of the class arguing for spelling reform, and another against). You might like to consider such questions:

- Is spelling reform an extreme form of prescriptivism, in which people try to prescribe rules of language onto society?
- Who should define the new spelling rules and how would they be introduced into society?
- What implications would spelling reform have on education and the teaching of writing in schools?
- Who would pay for spelling reform (rewriting of dictionaries, teaching resources, literature, etc.)?
- Would spelling reform have a positive impact on specific language impairments such as dyslexia?
- How do literacy rates in societies that use a language with a phonetic spelling system compare to English?
- Isn’t spelling a reflection of meaning rather than just the spoken word alone?

End with students writing an essay on the history of English orthography.

**Differentiation and extension**

Benjamin Franklin’s Phonetic Alphabet (available online) is another proposed system of spelling reform, which could be investigated by students.

**Further reading**


Linstead, S. (2014) ‘English spellings don’t match the sounds they are supposed to represent.’ *The Guardian*. (available online)

Article on spelling reform by Stephen Linstead, the chair of the English Spelling Society – so expect a heavy bias.

BBC News (2007) ‘Should we simplify spelling?’ (available online)

A more objective BBC article on spelling reform.

*The Economist* (2010) ‘Wy can’t we get it rite?’ (available online)

And another one from *The Economist*, focusing on a case study from German.
This relates to ‘Language Diversity and Change’ in the specification for A Level. It is not assessed at AS Level.

A Level exam:
Language Diversity and Change (40% of A Level) (2.5 hours)

A. Language diversity (gender, occupation, accent, dialect etc.) OR Language change (1 question from a choice of 2 (30 marks))

B. Language discourses (1 analytical essay about language attitudes in two texts (40 marks); 1 opinion article about both texts (30 marks))

AIMS AND OUTCOMES
This section explores grammatical change over time. By the end of this section, students should be able to:
• understand some of the processes of grammatical change
• understand why grammatical change happens and how it fits into a wider system of language change.

Notes
• English has undergone extensive morphological and syntactical changes over time, many of them influenced by phonological change – when speech changes, writing begins to reflect that.
• Grammatical change tends to be less obvious than change in lexis and spelling, but this is generally because the rate of change is slower.
• Students should adopt a descriptivist approach when studying language change, aiming to explore why change happens.

Suggested route through this section
The nature of grammatical change
Begin by exploring some more recent changes in grammar that have largely been a result of technological changes:
I googled it  Text me when you get home  WTF

Explain that grammatical change tends to be a slower process than other levels of change, and discuss why this might be. Complete Activity 11 (Grammatical errors?) which gives some examples of grammatical change over time, and read the ideas on this activity

Morphological change
Introduce the concept of analogy, which is the most noticeable way in which grammatical change happens. This could be done by taking nonsense words and asking students to apply various morphological rules to change their form, such as:
If ziff, zo and zox are all English nouns, what do you suppose their plurals are?
If fetch is a verb, what do you suppose the past tense and the present continuous tense are?

In this process of grammatical change, irregular grammatical patterns (such as irregular verbs and nouns) are changed to match the regular patterns. A famous example is the verb system of Old English; several irregular verbs were changed in this way during this era. For example, irregular helpen (help) had healp as a past tense form and holpen as a past participle, but by the fourteenth century had taken on the regular past tense rule of the -ed morpheme, to become helped. During the early Middle English period, over 40 verbs changed in this way – walk, climb, step and burn to name a few. The changes began in speech, as most grammatical change does, and then began to be reflected in writing. So why does English still retain some irregular verbs, such as hit and sat? The printing press and standardisation slowed grammatical change down as writing become more widespread and ‘bolted down’ language.

Of course, analogical processes are still alive and well, and can often be heard in child language. A child may say something like we holded the baby rabbits simply (and logically) because they are applying the regular -ed past tense morpheme to an irregular verb.

Syntactic change
Present-day English has a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) word order, but this has not always been the case, and this is one of the main ways in which present-day English has changed in its syntax. Old English had a much freer word order, being an SVO, VSO, OSV, VOS and SOV language. This meant that structures such as the following would have been common:
Se man þone keening sloh

Complete the following exercises (adapted from Fromkin et al. (2013) and from a puzzle from the 2015 UK Linguistics Olympiad).

Activity
Here are some sentences from Old English, Middle English and early Modern English, showing some changes in syntax. Underline the parts of each sentence that differ from present day English, rewriting the sentence and explaining the changes.

Example: It not belongs to you (Shakespeare, Henry IV)
Present day English: *It does not belong to you*

Explanation: English used to simply have a *not* before the verb to mark negation. Today the word *do* must appear before the negative.

1. It nothing pleased his master
2. He hath said that we would lift them whom that him please
3. I have a brother is condemned to die
4. I bade them take away you
5. I wish you was still more a Tartar
6. Christ slept and his apostles
7. Me was told

**Activity**

Here are some Old English sentences (where the letter ‘þ’ is pronounced like our ‘th’ and ‘æ’ is like our ‘a’) and their modern translations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Old English</th>
<th>Modern English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>wit lufodon þæt mægden</td>
<td>we two loved the girl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>þæt mægden unc lufode</td>
<td>the girl loved us two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ge lufodon þone cyning</td>
<td>you all loved the king</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>se cyning inc lufode</td>
<td>the king loved you two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>þæt mægden we lufodon</td>
<td>we all loved the girl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we inc lufodon</td>
<td>we all loved you two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wit eow lufodon</td>
<td>we two loved you all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unc lufode se æþeling</td>
<td>the prince loved us two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>þæt cild ge lufodon</td>
<td>you all loved the child</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Complete the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Old English</th>
<th>Modern English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. se cyning eow lufode</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. ge lufodon þæt mægden</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. wit inc lufodon</td>
<td>the prince loved the child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>the child loved the prince</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>we all loved the child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>the child loved you two</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The problem could then be used for a number of discussion points:

1. **Pronouns:** We tend to think of pronouns as being relatively ‘stable’ in language, but this example shows that English speakers used to make use of dual pronouns (i.e. forms that distinguish ‘we two’ from ‘we all’ and ‘you two’ from ‘you all’, which is no longer a feature of the language). This could be extended to talk about changes in other aspects of the pronominal system (e.g. thou vs. ye), including innovations in non-standard dialects (y’all, youse etc.)

2. **Case:** Notice that ‘the king’ is *se cyning* when it is used as subject (e.g. *The king loved …*) but *þone cyning* as object (e.g. … loved the king). This is an example of ‘case’, where *se* marks the nominative case, used for the subject, and *þone* the accusative case, used for the object.

3. **Word order:** The case distinctions in point 2 meant that most subjects and objects could be recognised from their form (e.g. *se* versus *þone*), whereas in Modern English we use word order to distinguish subjects and objects (e.g. *John loves Mary* means something different from *Mary loves John*). Consequently, word order is less crucial in Old English for distinguishing subjects and objects, and is much more free. For instance, *unc lufode se æþeling* is literally ‘us-two loved the prince’.

**Differentiation and extension**

It is impossible to give a full account of morphological and syntactical changes in English here, but students could investigate more about the case system of Old English, in particular. Those with knowledge of other languages that have a case system (such as Latin or German) will enjoy this!

**Further reading**


This relates to ‘Language Diversity and Change’ in the specification for A Level. It is not assessed at AS Level.

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**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This section explores standardisation (what it is; why and how it happened) and attitudes to language change. By the end of this section, students should be able to:

- understand what standardisation is and why and how it happened
- understand some of the different attitudes to language change and be able to critically engage with these
- write an opinion article about attitudes to language change.

**Notes**

- Standardisation is a gradual process – it did not happen overnight.
- Students should adopt a descriptivist approach when studying language change, aiming to explore why change happens.

**Suggested route through this section**

**Standardisation**

Standardisation is a gradual process, and in the case of English, it began as early as the fourteenth century. English is a hybrid language, made up of different dialects and this resulted in a language that was highly inconsistent. The need to establish a standard became important if English was to be taken seriously as a national language. Read the four-stage process to standardisation as proposed by Haugen (1996) in Figure 16I and discuss the following questions:

- What language variety is usually selected for standardisation and why?
- Is standardisation an example of bottom-up or top-down language planning?

- What problems might those in charge of standardisation face, and why?
- What were some of the most significant events in the standardisation of English?
- Could it be argued that English is still undergoing a process of standardisation? How?
- Standard English remains something of an ideal: ‘no spoken language can ever be fully standardised’ (Milroy and Milroy, 1985). How do you respond to this?

**Attitudes towards language change (16.7.1)**

Begin by looking at the following examples and ‘rating’ them on a scale of acceptability.

*Your so crazy*
*There’s towels in the cupboard*
*You need to really focus*
*Who’s is that?*
*I didn’t do nothing*

Discuss why students made the choices they did and draw out the grammatical ‘errors’ found in each. Move on to discussing why people have attitudes towards language, and what those attitudes generally consist of. Reintroduce the terms **prescriptivist** and **descriptivist**, and complete Activity 14 (**Prescriptivism or descriptivism**). Discuss as class.

Next, introduce Jean Aitchison’s set of metaphors used to describe attitudes to language change: the ‘damp spoon syndrome’, the ‘crumbling castle’ and the ‘infectious disease’. This theoretical model could then be explored through looking at language data. Find some examples of attitudes to language, such as on Twitter. Searching for terms such as **slang**, **grammar**, **correct** and **incorrect** and **language** yields a large corpus of data that can be analysed using Aitchison’s model.

Finally, read some material from well known prescriptivists:

- Lynne Truss with her ‘zero tolerance’ approach to punctuation
- John Humphrys, who believes that English is becoming ‘obese’
- Prince Charles, stating that Americans ‘make words that shouldn’t be’ and are therefore ruining the English language.

In preparation for Question 2 on the **Language discourses** exam, students could then write an opinion article responding to prescriptivist attitudes. Students should be encouraged to use language data, such as the material from Twitter, in their answers.
Differentiation and extension

Students could talk to different people about their own attitudes to language change, using quantitative and/or qualitative research methods. They could compare the views of two different age groups, and conduct a discourse analysis of their language.

Dr Johnson’s House in Holborn, London, is still standing today and is now open to the public as a museum and research library. The museum offer tours and specialist A Level English Language workshops on the work of Johnson and standardisation in general.

Further reading


A collection of short essays exploring some language myths, many of which are relevant to A Level English Language – such as ‘the meaning of words should not be allowed to change’, ‘bad grammar is slovenly’ and ‘English spelling is catastrophic’.

CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES

In this Teacher’s Resource

LINK: Dr Johnson’s House museum
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AIMS AND OUTCOMES

This section explores World Englishes, looking at how English has spread across the world and understanding some of the reasons for this. A model of English diversity is suggested as a theoretical framework, and some examples of how English has influenced other languages and cultures. It also introduces the idea of English as a ‘language killer’, and the concept of language endangerment and death. By the end of this section, students will be able to:

• understand what World Englishes are and some of their typical linguistic characteristics
• understand why English has spread as a global language
• understand some of the issues and problems with the spread of English.

Notes

• It would be a fruitless exercise to try and list all of the ways in which English has affected other cultures and languages, as this is clearly an enormous and ever-changing issue.
• Instead, students should focus on the reasons for English spreading as a global language.
• Students should be aware of language endangerment and death and how English is, sadly, contributing to this.

Suggested route through this section


Begin by listing some statistics related to English as a global language and the world’s linguistic diversity:

• there are around 7,000 known living languages and a population of around 7 billion
• language numbers are decreasing; population numbers are increasing
• most widely spoken languages (data from ‘Ethnologue’ website)
  1. Chinese (2,000 million speakers; Mandarin accounts for 848 million)
  2. Spanish (399 million)
  3. English (335 million)
  4. Hindi (260 million)
  5. Arabic (242 million)
  6. Portuguese (203 million)
  7. Bengali (189 million)
  8. Russian (166 million)
  10. Lahnda (89 million; Punjabi accounts for 63 million)
• English is the official language (essentially the language of the government, law, media and education) in 67 sovereign states and 27 non-sovereign entities, the majority of which are former territories of the British Empire
• English is a second or third language in a countless number of countries
• some people think that around 90% of the languages spoken today may be lost by the end of the century – the rise of English is sadly contributing to this.

Discuss why English is a global language. What has happened in history and technology that has led to this? What does it take for a language to become global?

It is important to stress that a language becomes global not because of the number of speakers, but who those speakers are. Latin became a global language because of the rise of the Roman Empire and its subsequent power. English became global because, in the early nineteenth century, Britain was the world’s leading industrial and trading country. By the end of the century, the population of the USA was larger than any country in Western Europe, and its economy was the fastest growing in the world. British political imperialism had catapulted English around the world.

These factors propelled English into the spotlight, increasing its number of speakers, yes, but more importantly – increasing its status. To be a fluent speaker of English was a passport to wealth, education, jobs and prosperity.
Introduce some key terms relevant here, such as monolingualism, bilingualism, L1 and L2 and look at the map of English as a global language (Figure 16L). Watch the video on World Englishes.

End the discussion by watching David Crystal talk about English as a global language (available online).

Next, introduce Kachru’s 1992 ‘three circles’ model in Figure 16M. Explore some of the disadvantages of this model: it does not address the diversity of Englishes within the circles, or the proficiency of English usage within the outer and expanding circles. It also does not take into account the grey area that exists between the inner and outer circles, or between outer and expanding circles.

**Activity**

End with a quick quiz:

1. What do we mean by L1 and L2 when we talk about English Language speakers?
2. Who came up with the circles model of World Englishes in the early 1990s?
3. Name 3 countries in the inner circle.
4. Name 3 countries in the outer circle.
5. Name 3 countries in the expanding circle.
6. List 3 reasons for English being a global language.
7. What does ‘diaspora’ mean?
8. What potential criticisms are there of the circles model?

**English around the world**

As stated in the notes, it would be a fruitless – and impossible – exercise to try and list all of the varieties of English around the world. Instead, explain some important concepts when discussing English as a global language before students carry out a research task:

- Bilingual speakers will often ‘jump’ or code-switch between their different languages.
- People who wish to communicate but have no common language try to hold makeshift conversation – with lexis from one language, and grammar from another. This can create pidgins, which may well turn into creoles over time, when the pidgin is taken up and spoken by a new generation.
- English as a lingua franca (ELF) refers to English being used as a common language among speakers who come from different linguistic backgrounds (see Figure 16N for more detail on ELF).

Ask students to research a few select varieties and begin to understand some of the ways English is used. They should use the language levels when doing this and be systematic in their analysis, using language data and technical terminology where appropriate, plus theoretical frameworks such as the three-circles model:

- American English
- Canadian English
- Chinese English
- Indian English

The ‘Electronic World Atlas of Varieties of English’ (available online) has a huge database that could be a good starting point.

**Language endangerment and death**

Language endangerment and death is a sad topic, and many blame the spread of English throughout the world on the dying out of many languages. The classification of ‘endangered’, ‘dying’ and ‘extinct’ can be complex, but the main two variables are whether children are brought up speaking a language and whether revitalisation processes are in place. It is suggested that around 22% of the world’s 7,102 known living languages are ‘endangered’ and 13% are ‘dying’. At the current rate, about 6 languages die a year. Revitalisation efforts can work – the Welsh language serves as a good example – but linguists are working against the clock in the fight to document and preserve an increasing number of threatened languages.

Different languages code the same message in very different ways, and when a language dies, a culture dies. We lose a way of seeing, describing and enjoying the world. As English gradually creeps in around the globe as the language of mass communications and the symbol of progress, minority regional languages are finding it increasingly difficult to, literally, retain their voice.

Students could explore the Hans Rausing Endangered Languages Project (available online) and its work on documenting and revitalising endangered languages.

End this section with students completing the exam question from the sample assessment material:

*Evaluate the idea that the English language is changing and breaking up into many different Englishes.*

Plan an answer as a class and refer to the assessment objectives as you do so.
Further reading


CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES

In the Student Book

VIDEO: World Englishes and Models of World English Diversity.

In this Teacher’s Resource

LINK: ‘Ethnologue Languages of the World’ website

LINK: David Crystal talking about English as a global language


LINK: The Hans Rausing Endangered Languages Project
29 Language investigation (17.1, 17.2, 17.3)

This relates to ‘Language in Action’ in the specification for A Level. It is a piece of non-exam assessment, and is not relevant for AS Level.

A Level non-exam assessment:
Language in Action
A. Language investigation (2000 words) (15% of A level)
B. Original writing (750 words) and commentary (750 words) (5% of A level)

AIMS AND OUTCOMES
This section explores what a language investigation is, gives some guidance on choosing an area to investigate, and examines some different approaches to the project. By the end of this section, students will be able to:
• understand the requirements for the language investigation assessment
• understand what makes a suitable topic and how to go about choosing one
• explore some different ways of approaching the investigation.

Notes
• Students should remember they are not writing an essay and the investigation should be structured as an informative report.
• The investigation is an exercise in enquiry-based learning, and students should aim to explore their own interests and move beyond the specification if appropriate. Students should not be restricted in their choices of topics.
• The assessment is designed to allow students to engage independently with language concepts and theories, allowing them to experience the challenges and rewards of enquiry-based research stimulated by their learning across the whole A Level course.

Suggested route through this section
What is a language investigation? (17.1)
Introduce the language investigation requirements, expectations and assessment objectives:

AO1: Apply appropriate methods of language analysis, using associated terminology and coherent written expression
AO2: Demonstrate critical understanding of concepts and issues relevant to language use
AO3: Analyse and evaluate how contextual features are associated with the construction of meaning.

You may like to give your students a timescale to work with, including major steps such as:
• deciding and agreeing on a topic with your teacher
• designing a methodology
• beginning the data collection process
• sourcing and reading relevant literature for a theoretical framework
• annotating and analysing the data
• designing an overall systematic structure, sections governed by language methods or concepts
• writing individual sections
• preparing the references, bibliography and appendices
• submitting the draft
• submitting the final version.

If available, you could share some previous language investigations from your school, or use the sample teacher standardising materials, available through e-AQA. Discuss what makes these good investigations, building on the list of requirements and using the assessment objectives as a guide.

Choosing an area to investigate (17.2)
Remind students that their choice of topic is not confined to the specification content, but could be a good starting point. One of the most important things they should consider is whether they are going to enjoy exploring, investigating, researching and analysing a certain topic over a sustained period of time. Most good investigations stem from a personal interest. Give students a list of topics studied and ask them to begin thinking about which ones they have found the most interesting or would like to explore further:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>language and power</th>
<th>child language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>language and gender</td>
<td>language change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>language and occupation</td>
<td>attitudes to language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>language and age</td>
<td>current language issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>language and sexuality</td>
<td>language in the media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>texts in context</td>
<td>language diversity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>language variation</td>
<td>global English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accents and dialects</td>
<td>language and culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>representations</td>
<td>language and mode</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Explain how students could take one of these topics but look at it from a different angle, for example studying language development in a bilingual child. Students could take the list of topics and, working in groups, come up with five questions they would like to explore further for each topic. Next, ask students to complete Activity
Choosing your topic, which should begin to draw out some personal interests and how these could be further pursued in a language investigation.

Students should be reminded of the relative brevity of their investigation (2000 words), and that smaller, focused topics always tend to yield more successful investigations. Researching ‘grammatical acquisition in child language’, for example, is clearly a far too broad topic. However, this could be refined to ‘morphological acquisition’, which could be further refined to ‘plural acquisition in the two-word stage’.

By the end of this section, students should ideally have a topic in mind. The following questions should be asked of the topic:

- Does it have a clear language focus?
- Where and how am I going to get the data?
- Why have I chosen this topic?
- What kind of theory and concepts could be applicable?

If students can answer all of these with confidence, then it looks like their topic choice is a good one.

What approach could you take? (17.3)

Introduce and explore some of the different approaches to the language investigation:

- a genre-based investigation
- a function/use-based investigation
- an attitudes-based investigation
- a user-based investigation
- a theory-based investigation.

Use Table 17A to draw out the distinctions and characteristics of these different approaches and read Text 17B, which uses a function/use-based approach. Discuss how the language works in this text, and relevant theoretical interpretations.

Finally, ask students to decide with which approach their own idea fits best, or which approach they would like to take. Read section 17.3.2 (Choosing a title) and ask them to draw up a list of potential titles for their own investigation. They should have at least one question, one statement and one with explicit reference to a theory.

Further reading


Clear and helpful guide to choosing a research topic, with over 350 suggested project ideas.


Differentiation and extension

Some students may find it easier to stick fairly closely to the content covered in the specification.

For a challenge, some students should use the specification as a springboard to investigate new content.
A Level non-exam assessment:

Language in Action

A. Language investigation (2000 words) (15% of A level)
B. Original writing (750 words) and commentary (750 words) (5% of A level)

AIMS AND OUTCOMES

This section explores the data collection process. Three types of data collection are covered: (1) spoken language; (2) views, opinions and attitudes; and (3) written, multimodal or list-format. By the end of this section, students will be able to:

- understand the data collection process for acquiring different types of data
- understand some of the challenges involved and ethical considerations
- understand the importance of this stage of the investigation.

Notes

- Collecting data is one of the most important steps in the investigation and significant time should be taken to do it carefully and thoroughly – insufficient or problematic data is likely to cause problems later on in the analysis stage.
- Students should not be worried if the data they collect does not seem to fit in with what they expected. This is an investigation into real language use – and as long as the data collection process and methodology is valid, the data will have something worthwhile to say about it.

Suggested route through this section

Data collection and variables

Read Section 17.4 (Data collection) and then ask your class to think about their data collection process. Students should think about the practicalities of this – is the data easily available? If not, from where can it be sourced? Are they relying on participants and do they need to arrange times where these can conduct in their investigation? Do they have access to written material they require? Will they need to transcribe speech at any point?

Explain variables to your class – the elements of language they are trying to investigate. Gender, for example, is one element of language that could be investigated, and so could be thought of as a variable. Language use and perceptions are a result of multiple variables – a good investigation will either consider all of these, or design a methodology that accounts for this. Ask students to list the variables they are investigating.

Students should also be aware of extraneous variables – those that they don’t wish to investigate but could potentially have an impact on your data. So, in an investigation about language and gender – you’d want all of your participants to be of roughly the same age. If the participants were of varying ages, then how would you know whether it’s the gender variable or the age variable that is influencing your data? This is called controlling for variables. Ask your students to think about how they will this in their methodology design.

End by watching the video on data collection.

Collecting spoken language data (17.4.1)

Key points:

- can be time consuming
- don’t transcribe more than you need
- often elicits excellent data
- make sure to follow the correct conventions.

Read the section on transcribing speech and make sure that students are aware of the required conventions, such as showing prosody, micropauses, smooth speaker switch and use of the phonetic alphabet.

Complete Activity 3 (Practise transcribing). Students may need a copy of the phonetic alphabet to do this and, indeed, should be encouraged to use it. Next, read the BAAL Recommendations on Good Practice in Applied Linguistics.

Finish by reading the information on the observer’s paradox and complete Activity 4 (Investigating observer’s paradox). Students could then have a go at transcribing some of their own data, if they have already collected some.

Collecting data on views, opinions and attitudes about language (17.4.2)

Key points:

- variety of data collection methods
- careful planning of questions is vital
- can yield truthful and honest data
- open questions are likely to yield more informative and detailed responses.

Read the section on collecting data on views, opinions and attitudes about language and make sure students
understand the relevant key terms here: questionnaires, one-to-one interviews, group interviews, random sampling and judgemental sampling. Ask students to think about their own approach, and then look at Table 17B. Explore the different question types (open questions, closed questions, leading questions, Likert scale, Semantic Differential scale) and ask students to draw up some examples of these that could be used/avoided in their own investigation.

This could then lead on to students completing Activity 5 (Practise gathering views, opinions and attitudes) and beginning to construct their own methodology. It is a useful exercise for students to conduct a trial run of this type of data collection, to identify any problems with their approach that need to be addressed.

Collecting written, multimodal or list-format data (17.4.3)
Key points:
- data already in existence
- be careful of extraneous variables that you cannot control for
- make sure you can be certain of the context of the written data.

Ask students to read the section on collecting written, multimodal or list-format data. Encourage students to think carefully and widely about their data sources – not just relying on the Internet, for example. They should read the BAAL Recommendations on Good Practice in Applied Linguistics, and could then begin exploring some data sources. It is crucial that students keep a copy of the context of data – where is it from, who said/wrote it, when was it said/written, and so on.

**Differentiation and extension**

Written data is often thought of as ‘easier’ to acquire as it is already in existence, and those students who struggle with research may wish to use this approach

**Further reading**


Clear and helpful guide to data collection, with over 350 suggested project ideas.


CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES

In the Student Book

VIDEO: Data Collection

LINK: Read the BAAL Recommendations on Good Practice in Applied Linguistics

LINK: See the ranking scales used on Survey Monkey
31 Data selection (17.5)

This relates to ‘Language in Action’ in the specification for A Level. It is a piece of non-exam assessment, and is not relevant for AS Level.

A Level non-exam assessment:

**Language in Action**

A. Language investigation (2000 words) (15% of A level)
B. Original writing (750 words) and commentary (750 words) (5% of A level)

**AIMS AND OUTCOMES**

This section explores the data selection process. By the end of this section, students will be able to:

- understand how to select data for analysis
- consider the importance of variables
- understand why this is an important process of the investigation.

**Notes**

- Again, it is well worth students spending a significant amount of time on this part of the process – the data they select will clearly have impact at later points in the investigation.

**Suggested route through this section**

**Explaining your data selection (17.5.1)**

Reintroduce the meaning of variables, asking students to revisit their own methodologies in light of this. Read Section 17.5.1 and complete Activity 6 (Evaluating data collection and selection). Students could also rewrite a selection of these texts, improving them and then explaining the changes they made and why. They could even begin to write this section for their own investigation.

**Selecting texts to compare (17.5.2)**

Many investigations will use a number of texts, and therefore require some level of comparison. Discuss what problems this could lead to, if the data collection and selection process has not been carried out carefully. How can students control for variables by careful data collection and selection?

Complete Activity 7 (Drawing conclusions from comparative data), which serves as an introduction to comparing texts within a dataset. Students could then write a condensed version of an investigation (in bullet points) that uses these data – to begin to understand the structural conventions and requirements for this work.

Finally, look at Table 17C and discuss why each example would be a valid data collection and selection approach. Which variables are controlled for, and how? Students should then revisit their own investigations and ensure their data selection is valid.

**Further reading**


Clear and helpful guide to data selection, with over 350 suggested project ideas.

32 Writing your investigation (17.6)

This relates to ‘Language in Action’ in the specification for A Level. It is a piece of non-exam assessment, and is not relevant for AS Level.

A Level non-exam assessment:

Language in Action

A. Language investigation (2000 words) (15% of A level)
B. Original writing (750 words) and commentary (750 words) (5% of A level)

AIMS AND OUTCOMES

This section explores the writing process with the language investigation. By the end of this section, students will be able to:

• understand the structural requirements and conventions for the investigation
• understand how to write in an academic register
• understand how to reference properly and construct a bibliography.

Notes

• Students should write their investigation systematically, section by section.
• The investigation should be written in the past tense.
• The analysis section should form the bulk of the investigation. As a rough guide, you might like to suggest the following word counts for each section: introduction (150); methodology (150); analysis (1,500); conclusion (200).

Suggested route through this section

Introduction (17.6.1)

Key messages:

• keep it concise
• discuss the reasons for your language investigation focus
• explain why it may be an important topic, linking it to theory if appropriate
• briefly explain what you hope to achieve.

Read 17.6.1 and ask students to have a go at writing their own introduction, adhering to the required academic register.

The Methodology (17.6.2)

Key messages:

• avoid a descriptive approach – don’t just explain how you collected and selected your data
• briefly explain and justify which approach you took, and how you accounted for any extraneous variables.

Analysis (17.6.3)

Key messages:

• the analysis section should be broken into subsections, with each section given a clear heading and focus
• consider all of the assessment objectives (AO1, AO2 and AO3)
• don’t just describe the data and write in an impressionistic way – analyse and evaluate, giving reasons and interpretations of why the data looks the way it does
• use patterns and clusters of data as evidence, rather than just individual examples. This will add weight and strength to your arguments
• keep your title or research question in mind, making sure your analysis is relevant to this
• weave in and integrate AO2 and let the theory ‘drive’ the data. Don’t force or shoehorn in theories that don’t seem relevant, and aim to challenge and critically engage with theories where appropriate
• analyse and evaluate contextual factors in light of the data. Be tentative in your interpretation of context (might, may, suggest, possibly).

Read 17.6.3 and ask students to have a go at writing their own analysis, adhering to the required academic register. Students should write their analysis part section by section.

Conclusion (17.6.4)

Key messages:

• refer back to the introduction and explain how you have addressed/answered your research statement/question
• provide a summary of your findings
• don’t worry if your expectations weren’t met – this can be a good thing and often shows more results
• be tentative and don’t assume that your investigation has provided ultimate answers – instead, suggest how you or others might take the research further.

Referencing (17.6.5)

Read section 17.6.5 and ask students to check their own references in the text. They should build their bibliography as they write their investigation.
There are many full guides to using the Harvard referencing system online – the guide by Anglia Ruskin University is particularly useful.

**Further reading**


Clear and helpful guide to writing a research investigation, with over 350 suggested project ideas.


Helps students to develop confidence, technique and clarity in academic writing.
This relates to ‘Language in Action’ in the specification for A Level. It is a piece of non-exam assessment, and is not relevant for AS Level.

A Level non-exam assessment:

Language in Action
A. Language investigation (2000 words) (15% of A level)
B. Original writing (750 words) and commentary (750 words) (5% of A level)

AIMS AND OUTCOMES
This section explores the original writing process – what the coursework requirements are and the importance of context (purpose, audience and genre). By the end of this section, students will be able to:

• understand the requirements of the original writing assessment
• understand the importance of context
• understand how their writing can be adapted to suit a particular purpose, audience and genre.

Notes

• Students are given a choice of three different text types for their writing – persuasion, storytelling or information.
• They can create a text that would be written, spoken or a blend of the two.
• All 5 of the assessment objectives are tested for this unit.

Suggested route through this section

Understanding the requirements
Begin by telling students of the requirements for this unit:

• 1 piece of original writing, of 750 words
• 1 commentary analysing and justifying their language choices, of 750 words
• choose from 3 different text purposes: the power of persuasion, the power of storytelling or the power of information
• assesses all five of the assessment objectives. The writing itself is testing very different skills from the commentary that accompanies it:
  • AO1: 5 marks AO2: 5 marks AO3: 5 marks AO4: 5 marks AO5: 30 marks.

Next, give students a copy of the relevant pages from the AQA A Level specification, including the mark scheme for this unit. Discuss what ‘good writing’ and ‘a successful writer’ mean, and point students towards the following:

• communicate efficiently and effectively
• write coherently for different audiences and purposes
• communicate convincingly in a range of different genres and styles
• understand the ways in which words can produce different effects
• read widely around their chosen purpose – all good writing begins with reading, and is a crucial part of this process.

Next, watch the video The writing process.

The importance of context
Ask students to read 18.1.1 (The importance of purpose) and look at Table 18A. Work through each text example and decide on what the sub-purpose might be, and why. They could also start thinking about what the language might look like, and why it would be shaped this way.

In groups, they could then draw up 5 more possible texts that would suit each purpose. Encourage them to think creatively, and to think of texts that would demonstrate increasing ambition and challenge. Next, read 18.1.2 (The importance of audience) and do the same – what kind of audience might be expected for each text, and how might this affect language? This should lead nicely onto Activity 1 (Audience and lexical choices).

Finally, ask students to read 18.1.4 (Spoken texts) and 18.1.5 (Multimedia texts). They could then take some time to draw up a list of 5 possible texts they would like to create for this assessment.

Activity: dice game
To get students writing, create 3 sets of dice, with the following sides:

Die 1: persuasion, storytelling, information
Die 2: primary school children, teenagers, a full-time parent, retired people
Die 3: speech, radio drama script, blog, letter, broadsheet article, short story
Die 4: healthy eating, money, travelling the world, cultural diversity, unusual pets

Students roll each of the dice and must then create a short piece of writing with their given variables. For example, they might roll the dice and be prompted to write ‘a blog, aimed at primary school children, persuading them about the benefits of healthy eating’.
Die 2, 3 and 4 are easily adaptable – even better, ask your students to come up with the lists and play the game based on their suggestions.

**Differentiation and extension**

You could get students analysing and justifying their own language choices right from the very beginning of this process, for every piece of original writing they create. As well as excellent practice for the commentary, it also gets students thinking self-consciously about their use of language.

**Further reading**

Students should read a range of texts related to their chosen context.

**CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES**

*In the Student Book*

*VIDEO: The Writing Process*
This relates to ‘Language in Action’ in the specification for A Level. It is a piece of non-exam assessment, and is not relevant for AS Level.

A Level non-exam assessment:

Language in Action

A. Language investigation (2000 words) (15% of A level)
B. Original writing (750 words) and commentary (750 words) (5% of A level)

AIMS AND OUTCOMES

This section explores the power of persuasion. By the end of this section, students will be able to:

- understand some of the linguistic characteristics associated with persuasive writing, and why these might be used when writing for this purpose
- understand the writing process, from drafting to completion
- collect and reflect on appropriate style models.

Notes

- Students are given a choice of three different text types for their writing – persuasion, storytelling or information.
- They can create a text that would be written, spoken or a blend of the two.
- All 5 of the assessment objectives are tested for this unit.

Suggested route through this section

Planning and structuring

Begin by drawing up a list of as many types of text that have a persuasive purpose. These might include things such as:

newspaper editorials  a political campaign leaflet
a political campaign video  a personal statement  script

Explore some of the differences between these, in terms of text producer and audience, written/spoken mode, and expected language conventions, and complete Activity 4 (Everyday persuasion). This should encourage students to think about their own piece of writing and who they are writing for.

Next, ask students to read 18.3.1 (Planning your writing), which outlines the steps they will need to take in order to produce their writing. This could be supported with dates and deadlines, depending on the schedule of this assessment.

Rhetorical, phonological and grammatical devices

Many students will remember using and analysing rhetorical devices from GCSE and earlier, so begin with a recap on what is meant by a rhetorical device. Ask students to think of as many of these as they can, giving an example for each as they do, and thinking about the possible effect and why it might be used in persuasive writing. Complete Activity 5 (Identifying rhetorical devices) and Activity 6 (Using phonological devices).

This could then move on to looking at Text 18C in a bit more detail. Draw out the use of phonological devices here, perhaps introducing terms such as plosive alliteration, such as in brightest beacon. Students could also begin to think about other language levels such as lexis, looking in particular at the verb processes involved (shatter, dent, targeted, keep, shining).

Next, ask students to read 18.3.4 (Grammatical features), exploring the use of rhetorical questions, sentence moods, syntax and sentence complexity. This could then lead on to Activity 7 (Writing an editorial). Students should then source their own text that has a persuasive element, and analyse it in similar terms – looking at rhetorical, phonological and grammatical devices, and how they are used to persuade the intended audience.

They could also practise some writing here, taking the context of the text they have found and re-writing a short section of it, explaining what they have done and why.

Putting it into practice

By now your students should have decided on the style, audience and genre for their persuasive piece. Before they begin planning, they should source a range of style models and dissect them, as explained in 18.2 (The style model). As outlined in 18.6 (The drafting process), students should plan their writing carefully and make self-conscious, reflective choices on their language.

Differentiation and extension

Students should be encouraged to use persuasive writing as a chance to discuss a wider social, moral or philosophical argument. For example, an editorial persuading readers to explore new parts of the world could be used as a springboard to discuss the representation of lesser-known places by the media, and how the media shapes and influences the way we think about the world.

Further reading

Students should continue to read a range of persuasive writing, to help inform their own work.
This relates to ‘Language in Action’ in the specification for A Level. It is a piece of non-exam assessment, and is not relevant for AS Level.

A Level non-exam assessment:

Language in Action

A. Language investigation (2000 words) (15% of A level)
B. Original writing (750 words) and commentary (750 words) (5% of A level)

AIMS AND OUTCOMES

This section explores the power of storytelling. By the end of this section, students will be able to:

• understand some of the linguistic characteristics associated with story writing, and why these might be used when writing for this purpose
• understand the writing process, from drafting to completion
• collect and reflect on appropriate style models.

Notes

• Students are given a choice of three different text types for their writing – persuasion, storytelling or information.
• They can create a text that would be written, spoken or a blend of the two.
• All 5 of the assessment objectives are tested for this unit.

Suggested route through this section

Planning and structuring

Begin by drawing up a list of as many types of text as possible that have a storytelling purpose, and explore how this can be a difficult genre to define. These might include things such as:

detective and crime fiction
biographies and autobiographies
diaries
travel writing
dramatic monologues.

Explore some of the differences between these, in terms of text producer and audience, written/spoken mode, and expected language conventions, and complete Activity 8 (Understanding genre conventions). This should encourage students to think about their own piece of writing and who they are writing for. They could even take very short samples of each of these and compare their predictions against the real version.

Storytelling devices

As a starter activity (and to get students producing writing), read 18.4.1 (Writing with precision and control) and complete Activity 9 (Writing a short short story), which will get students thinking carefully about the importance and power of individual word choices. This is good practice for their assessment, which has a word limit of 750 words. They could read other examples of short short stories (or ‘microfiction’), and in particular, David Gaffney’s blog on the genre, which includes six top tips for writing in this style (available online). See the further reading section for more suggestions.

Next, read 18.4.3 (Devices to build up suspense), and look at how the devices are used in a short story. Again, the sources suggested in the further reading may be useful here.

Putting it into practice

By now your students should have decided on the style, audience and genre for their storytelling piece. Before they begin planning, they should source a range of style models and dissect them, as explained in 18.2 (The style model). As outlined in 18.6 (The drafting process), students should plan their writing carefully and make self-conscious, reflective choices on their language. Encourage your students to be playful and have fun with language – they should see it like putty that they can mould to suit their own needs.

If students are struggling for ideas, then the following activity ideas may be useful.

Activity: memory recall

Give students a piece of A3 paper and ask them to imagine a place from their childhood – their back garden, for example. Ask them to ‘reconstruct’ the place in their visual memory, and then draw it on the paper (the quality of the drawing doesn’t matter!). Then, they should slowly build up other memories associated with this – an object in the garden; a path to the woods or a field; the details of the house; an event or a character – and so on. As they remember and reconstruct their memory, they should add to the paper. By the end of the exercise, they will have created a text-world that they can then place themselves or another character inside.

Activity: story generator

Give students a blank piece of paper and ask them to copy the story generator table onto it.
Ask the class to close their eyes and think of a setting – place and time. They should take some time over this, and you might like to prompt them with questions: What can I see? What’s under my feet? What can I smell? What am I wearing? Make sure they have a concrete idea of a location and time before moving on.

Next, ask them to fill in Column 1: What can you see? with six ideas. These should all be actions – e.g. ‘a boy texting under a table’; ‘a bus waiting for an unusually long time’; ‘a man opening a briefcase’; ‘a dog crying’ and so on.

Then move on to Column 2: What’s the mood(s)?, which should be filled in with individual words or short phrases – ‘sombre’; ‘celebratory’; ‘confusion’; ‘a sense of change’, and so on.

Column 3 What questions would you ask? should aim to find out more about the scene or event – ‘why are the lights flickering?’; ‘why has my watch stopped?’; ‘how much money is in my wallet?’ and so on.

The next column Who’s there? might not require 6 answers, but should aim to explore the other characters in the environment, possibly beginning to include some descriptive detail about them.

The final column, Themes and ideas, again, may not require 6 answers but should aim to include some sense of what the story is about – ‘adventure’; ‘love’; ‘friendship’; ‘hope’; ‘new beginnings’; ‘change’; ‘endings’; ‘family’, and so on.

When this is done, your students will (hopefully) have a piece of paper filled with ideas, which may or not form the basis of their original writing assessment. They should then take this and write the story plot in 10 points, all of which should be brief. For example:

1. A man wakes up on a boat.
2. All he can see is ocean, in every direction, for miles around.
3. He checks his pockets – they are empty.

**Differentiation and extension**

Encourage students not to try and fit too much into a short story – it should begin in the action and doesn’t have to come to a conclusion.

Editing is key – every word must count. Students could tighten their writing by cutting or substituting two words in every sentence.

**Further reading**

Students should continue to read a range of story writing, to help inform their own work.

The following are collections of 100 short stories in 100 words:


**CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES**

In this Teacher’s Resource

LINK: David Gaffney’s blog on ‘microfiction’
This relates to ‘Language in Action’ in the specification for A Level. It is a piece of non-exam assessment, and is not relevant for AS Level.

A Level non-exam assessment:

Language in Action

A.  Language investigation (2000 words) (15% of A level)
B.  Original writing (750 words) and commentary (750 words) (5% of A level)

AIMS AND OUTCOMES

This section explores the power of information. By the end of this section, students will be able to:

• understand some of the linguistic characteristics associated with informative writing, and why these might be used when writing for this purpose
• understand the writing process, from drafting to completion
• collect and reflect on appropriate style models.

Notes

• Students are given a choice of three different text types for their writing – persuasion, storytelling or information.
• They can create a text that would be written, spoken or a blend of the two.
• All 5 of the assessment objectives are tested for this unit.

Suggested route through this section

Planning and structuring

Begin by drawing up a list of as many types of text that have an informative purpose. These might include things such as:

press releases
newspaper stories
magazine articles
teach writing
visitor information leaflets.

Explore some of the differences between these, in terms of text producer and audience, written/spoken mode, dual purposes and expected language conventions, and complete Activity 12 (Analysing information texts). This should encourage students to think about their own piece of writing and who they are writing for.

Travel writing (18.5.2)

Travel writing is an interesting genre to explore as it often has a dual purpose, usually of entertaining and persuading. Ask students to read Section 18.5.2 and complete Activity 13 (Travel writing). This could be followed up with a writing activity of their own, in which they describe a place by exploring a wider part of its culture – music, food, language or architecture could be good starting points. You might like to give students images to help them visualise the place. After this, look at some published travel writing from a source such as Lonely Planet or Rough Guide publishers. Students could compare their own writing to the ‘real’ version – and then edit their work in light of this.

If students are pursuing the travel writing option, they should research the place they are writing about. What language is spoken? What traditions and stereotypes are associated with the place, and will the writing adhere to these? How would you describe the place in 3 words? What is the most popular first name and surname? What is a typical food and drink?

Putting it into practice

By now your students should have decided on the style, audience and genre for their informative piece. Before they begin planning, they should source a range of style models and dissect them, as explained in 18.2 (The style model). As outlined in 18.6 (The drafting process), students should plan their writing carefully and make self-conscious, reflective choices on their language.

Differentiation and extension

Students could write a ‘travel nightmare’, which might go against the expected conventions of travel writing, in which places are typically ‘sold’ to its audience. Bill Bryon’s travel writing often contains examples of this style.

Further reading

Students should continue to read a range of travel writing, to help inform their own work.
37 Enriching (19–24)

Designed specifically for A Level students but with content that AS Level students will also find useful, these units support your work on the specification and extend your thinking beyond the topics covered in the Developing units in Part 2. These Enriching units contain extension activities on Developing unit topics, as well as ideas for extended independent study, details of wider reading that you will find useful and summaries of recent and relevant research from higher education. The Enriching units also feature short articles exclusively written for this series by leading academics and professionals, with follow-up questions that offer an expert insight into certain aspects of the subject.

AIMS AND OUTCOMES

• to become familiar with the content of the enriching section
• to understand how the enriching section could be used as extension materials.

Notes

• Although these units are designed specifically for A Level students, they are useful for extension activities for AS Level students.
• The activities, further reading and Cambridge Elevate resources provide excellent sources of learning content.

Enriching

Most of the enriching activities are designed for independent study, rather than teacher-led lessons. These could be done as group work and fed back as presentations – for example, different groups could investigate the different suggestions in Unit 19’s Activity 4 (Exploring representations) and share their ideas with the class.

For language development, students could conduct a mini-investigation by seeking access to a local primary school and gathering data in real contexts, on speech, reading and writing. It would be interesting to examine how children talk about their own reading and writing, to understand their views and experiences of it. They could also design an experiment that investigates a specific part of language acquisition – see Jean Berko’s ‘wug test’ for inspiration on how this might be done.

Language diversity is an ever changing topic, and students could acquire spoken data using the English Intonation in the British Isles corpus (available online). They could also undertake a survey gathering people’s attitudes and opinions to accent and dialect.

Students interested in Old or Middle English can find a variety of texts online. Many of these come with modern-day ‘translations’ and provide an excellent source for analysing diachronic language change. They could also investigate a particular genre – e.g. children’s books – and see how and why they have changed.

There are many activities surrounding English as a global language – including the study of language endangerment and death. The revitalisation of Welsh, Basque and Catalan are particularly interesting case studies and there is a wealth of literature available online. Students should also be encouraged to critically engage with the spread of English and its impact upon other languages – should time and money be spent on doing this? What benefits does it have to native speakers of dying languages, and whose duty/right is it?

CAMBRIDGE ELEVATE RESOURCES

In this Teacher’s Resource

LINK: ‘Child Language Data Exchange System’: a huge corpus of child language data, including bilingual language acquisition
LINK: ‘Omniglot’: the online encyclopedia of writing systems and languages
LINK: ‘Ethnologue’: detailed information on all of the world’s 7,000 living languages
LINK: ‘English Intonation in the British Isles’: recordings of nine urban dialects of English

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