**Paper 2 Knowledge Organsier: Language Diversity and Change**

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| 1. **Language Diversity (Variation)** | 1. **Language Change** |
| Key areas:   1. Gender 2. Regional variation (accents and dialects) 3. Ethnicity 4. Occupation 5. Age 6. Sexuality 7. Social Groups | 1. History of English 2. How change occurs 3. The future of English 4. World English |

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| ***How is it assessed?*** | ***Section A - Diversity and Change*** | ***Section B - Language Discourses*** | |
| * Written exam: 2 hours 30 minutes * Answer 3 questions * 100 marks * 40% of entire A-level | **Q 1 *or* 2 (AO1, AO2)**  **One** question from a **choice of two**:  ***Either:***  an **evaluative essay** on language diversity (30 marks)  ***or****:*  an **evaluative essay** on language change (30 marks)  It could be two questions on change or two questions on diversity! | **Q3 (AO1, AO3, A04)**  Read **two texts** about a **topic linked to the study of diversity and change**.  Write an **analysis of how the texts use language** to present ideas, attitudes and opinions **about the language topic**  (40 marks) | **Q4 (AO2, AO5)**  A **directed writing task (e.g. an opinion article)** linked to the **same topic** and the ideas in the texts (30 marks) |

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| **Key themes** |  |
| **Diversity: key themes** | * Factors of identity and how they impact language use * Code-switching and how audience impacts language use * Changes in society and how they impact language use * The desire to ‘fit in’ and how it can impact language use |
| **Change: key themes** | * Process of standardisation * Migration and movement * Technology * Changes to society and attitudes |
| **World English:**  **Key themes** | * Colonisation * Technology * The future of English |

*Note – if a theory/study appears in another section of the course it will be in brackets at the end of the explanation.*

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| ***Topic*** | ***Theory/Studies/History*** | ***Language Examples/Terminology*** |
| **Gender:**  **Gender:** | **Spoken:**  **Deficit Model**: there is a dichotomy between women’s and men’s language. It suggests that there are features of women’s language that are powerless due to how women have been socialised *(Lakoff - 1975)*  **Dominance model**: The female sex is seen as subordinate and the difference in style of speech is due to the effects of the patriarchy. Men dominate conversations and women use language to seem weaker. *(Spender, 1980s and Coates 2015)*  **Difference model**: men and women belong to different subcultures so they have different styles of communication *(Tannen, 1990s)*  **Dynamic/Diversity model:** society affects language, not gender. So if men and women were socialised equally then there would be no difference. Also a range of factors affects speech including the context of the conversation. (*Cameron, 2000s*)  **Studies:**  **Cheshire (1982)** – both boys and girls used language that conformed to their peer group. Boys were more likely to conform than girls and boys girls were just as likely to use non-standard forms as boys. *(social groups)*  **De Francisco (1991) –** Sounds of silence. Men were more likely to respond to questions with silence or minimal responses. This allowed them to maintain dominance.  **Fishman, P (1980) –** Conversational shitwork. Found that women asked more questions, used attention gestures and initiated topics more than men.  **Goodwin, M (1988) –** observed boys and girls in a playground. Found that girls were more likely to use modal verbs and use ‘let’s’ to turn directives into proposals. Boys played in a clearer hierarchy.  **Holmes, J. (1984) –** 3 types of tag questions. Women are more likely to use affective tag questions to express solidarity.  **Hyde, J (2005) –** Meta-analysis. Found that results in gender studies often show more similarities than differences.  **O’Barr and Atkins (1980) –** Courtroom. Explored male and female speech in lawyers and witnesses. Found that position affected language more than gender. *(occupation)*  **Zimmerman and West (1975) –** Men interrupted women more making them the more dominant gender  **Beattie (1982)** – Criticised Z and W – completed a bigger study that found the differences were marginal.  **Representation:**  **Butler (1990) –** stated that gender is an effect of reiterated acting.  **Spender: Man-Made Language (1980) –** argues that the language we use is androcentric (biased towards men) *(Political Correctness)*  **Miller and Swift: The Handbook of Non-Sexist Language (1981)** – advocated for reforms for language to make it more egalitarian e.g. using ‘them’ instead of ‘him’ when the gender is unknown  **Fought and Eisenhauer (2017)** – explored the use of language in Disney films. They found that in the second wave of Disney (1990s) female characters spoke less. This had changed by the third wave  **Schultz (1975)** – explored semantic deterioration and found that terms for women gained negative connotations over time | **Lakoff’s features of deficit language:**   * Hedges * Tag questions * Super-politeness * Hyper-correct grammar * Lack of humour   **Tannen’s difference model binaries:**  Men:   * Status * Independence * Conflict   Women:   * Support * Intimacy * Compromise   **Cameron’s myths:**   * Women talk more than men * Women are more verbally skilled than men * Men are competitive where women are co-operative   **Features of female language:**   * Conversational shitwork (Pamela Fishman) * Vocal fry * High rise intonation/uptalk * Use of ‘like’   **Features of androcentric language:**   * Diminutive suffixes – *waitress* * Lexical Asymmetry - *Buddy/Sissy,* * Semantic deterioration -  *Bachelor/Spinster* * Marked terms – female doctor |

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| **Age:** | **Theory:**  **Eckert (1998)** – Considered age in 3 ways:  *Chronological age* - number of years since birth ( the traditional way of perceiving age)  *Biological age* - physical maturity. People will develop at different rates  *Social age* - life events such as marriage and parenthood. This affects the way we perceive aging (e.g. we might think a 19 year old parent as more mature that a 19 year old student)  **Kerswill (2008)** – sociolinguistic maturation. This refers to the age at which a speaker becomes less susceptible to the influence of different languages on their own usage.  **Ives (2014) –** asked students if they thought they spoke differently to adults and children and 100% said they did. *(ethnicity)*  **Strenstrom (2002) –** found key features of teen language  **Eckert (2003) –** explored why teens used slang. She said that is was to establish a connection to the youth culture and to be different from other generations.  **DeKlerk (2005)** – also looked at why teens use language differently and found that it was to establish group and personal identities and to challenge linguistic norms  **Odato (2012)** – explored the use of like. Found that children used it to copy older children.  **Cheshire** – age grading: a change of behaviour with age that repeats itself in each generation. It characterises the language considered appropriate to and typical of different stages in the life span. For example, some British teenagers in the 1980s used wicked for ‘good’; this usage seems to have stopped, however, as they have grown older and abandoned in-group slang words. This, then, is an **age-exclusive feature**, used only during the teenage years. Our version might be “sick” | **Stenstrom’s features of teen language:**   * Irregular turn-taking * Overlaps * Indistinct articulation * Word shortenings * Teasing and name-calling * Verbal duelling * Slang * Taboo * Language Mixing (language from other cultures). * E.g. *Blud, dench, beef* |

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| **Ethnicity:** | **History:**  British Empire spreads English across the globe. Many countries that used to be part of the Empire have continued to use English even after gaining independence.  **Pidgin**: a language that develops so speakers of different languages can communicate  **Creole:** When a pidgin is used as a main language and has native speakers  **Studies:**  **Sue Fox (2007)** – identified the dialect used in cities as MLE. She found that it was used by established and new residents. It was also used by white and non-white speakers from a wide range of backgrounds (Anglo-Saxon, Ghanaian, Pakistani etc)  **Kerswill and Cheshire (2004)** – looked at two age groups in different parts of London. They found similar features were used by many of the younger speakers. They found evidence of language from Caribbean creoles, ex-colonial Englishes, Cockney, RP and American English  **Ives (2014)** – recorded teenagers from London and Bradford. Found that in the Bradford school students code-switched regularly between English and Punjabi. In the London school MLE slang was found in all the students’ speech. *(age)*  **Edwards (1986)** – recorded young Jamaican students and scored how much patois they used in speech. Found that they code-switched out of it when speaking to a white researcher.  **Sharma and Sankaran (2011)** – explored code-switching in men from Asian communities. Found that code switching occurred differently depending on age.  **Pitts (2012)** – Argued that MLE exists because people feel excluded from the dominant white culture, including working class white speakers. | **Features of MLE found by Kerswill and Cheshire:**   * Indefinite pronoun*: man dem,* * An end to h-dropping * *Why…. for?* question frame * Vocabulary*: bare, beef* * *Innit* as tag question   **Key features of Black English:**   * Dentals – *den* * Third person singular present tense verbs - *John swim fast* * Plurals - *six car* * Lexical Variation (Caribbean Creole) *Peelhead, brassface, bloodclart,* |

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| **Accent, Dialect and Social Class** | **Theory:**  **Rosewarne (1984)**: Identified the variety of language called **Estuary English.** Stated that it was a modified regional speech that was a mixture of non-regional and local south-eastern English. On a continuum with RP at one end and London speech at the other, Estuary English would be in the middle.  **Milroy (1987)**: **Social Network Theory** (Belfast):Explored how dense social networks affected the amount of non-standard forms *(see social groups)*  **Labov (1963)**: **Martha’s Vineyard** a small island that has a permanent population of 6000 but gets 40,000 tourists visit each year. Labov discovered that the younger population of the island were subconsciously strengthening their accents to sound more like the fishermen and thus establish themselves as an independent and superior social group.  **Labov (1972): Department Store (New York).** Looked at how the preconsonantal (r) sounded in words like bare and beer. He spoke to sales assistants from 3 department stores in New York. He found that the assistants from the most prestigious store were more likely to use the prestigious form.  **Trudgill (1974)**: **Norwich**. Looked at the use of ‘n’ instead of ‘ng’ in words like ‘walking’ across the classes. The non-standard forms were more likely to be used in the lower classes.  **Petyt (1985)**: **Bradford**. Looked at ‘h’ dropping across the classes. Found that working class speakers were more likely to drop the ‘h’ and as people moved up the classes they leaned towards the RP accent.  **Dialect Levelling:**  **Kerswill (2014):** Dialect levelling. Found that with greater social mobility people’s social networks change which leads to dialect levelling. Kerswill did find that some non-standard forms have survived dialect levelling e.g. plural marking (you knows it) and multiple negation.  **Foulkes and Docherty (1999):** focused on how the phonological variant ‘f’ or ‘v’ has spread. Found that it followed a path from London to Scotland. The reasons for this were geographical/social mobility and regional accents becoming less prominent  **Attitudes towards accents:**  **Giles (1970s)**: Communication Accommodation Theory – developed the ideas of divergence and convergence.  Also conducted the **Capital Punishment Study** where 4 groups listened arguments against capital punishment and one group read the text. Each oral presentation was read in a different accent. The students who heard the RP speaker were most impressed by the argument  **Dixon, Mahoney and Cocks(2002)**: attitudes to accent. They got volunteers to listen to dialogue between the police and a suspect. Some listened to a Standard English speaker and others listened to someone with a Birmingham accent. Found that people were more likely to think they were guilty if they had the Birmingham accent.  **Case study: Liverpool**  **Watson (2008):** Accent was popular in the 1960s due to the Beatles however economic decline in Liverpool affected how it was perceived and it became less prominent. However, when compared with 1970s the Scouse accent is actually getting stronger (e.g. dropped ‘t’ at the end of words was common but now has spread to longer words)  **Hamer (1999)**: Liverpool English. Certain non-standard forms (e.g. to rob) were widespread in Liverpool but have also spread to other parts in north. He also found elements of Estuary English in Liverpudlian speakers. | Key terms:   * **Accent** – distinctive way of pronouncing a language especially one associated with a particular area, country or social class * **Dialect** – a regional or social variety of a language distinguished by pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary * **Received Pronunciation** – accent associated with upper class speakers, sometimes known as ‘BBC English’ * **Standard English** – form of English considered to be ‘correct’ * **Non-standard English** – ant use of language that is different from standard (not wrong) * **Convergence** – move our speech closer to that of another person * **Divergence** – when your style of speech moves away from others * **Mutual convergence** – when both people in a conversation converge towards each other * **Overt prestige** – form of status valued and shared by mainstream society * **Covert prestige** – dialect forms attached to deviant groups * **Dialect levelling** – gradual loss of differences between distinct dialects and accents * **Code- switching** – altering our language depending on who we are with * **Koine** – a language produced when two existing dialects come into contact with each other. E.g. Liverpool English (NW England and newly arrived Irish workers)   **Features of Estuary English:**   * Tag questions, glottal stops (non-vocalised ‘t’) e.g. Ga(t)wick airport, vocalised ‘l’ e.g. pronouncing fill’ as ‘fiw’   **Lexical variations in regional accents:**   * *Cob/Bap/Breadcake/Bun*   **Grammatical variations in regional accents:**   * *It were, two mile, I come home*   **Phonological Variation in regional accents:**   * *Short/Long a sounds – bath, grass* |

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| **Occupation** | **Theory:**  **Giles (1973): Accommodation theory.** Looked at three occupations (doctors, police, pharmacists). Each group diverged/converged depending on their audience *(see Accent and Dialect)*  **Swales (2011):** Communities of Practice. Defined groups as having specific interests and goals that use specialist lexis.  **Drew and Heritage (1993): Inferential frameworks.** There are hierarchies of power that mark how language is used and that knowledge is built up over time so meanings are implicit  **Koester (2004): Phatic talk.** Found that phatic talk (small talk) is devoid of content but it supports social relationships. Said this was needed in occupational settings to show solidarity.  **Crystal:** Explored use of initialisms and found they were used to allow people to work efficiently.  **Baxter (2011): Double Voice Discourse.** Found women were 4 times more likely than men to be self-depreciating and apologetic. Said that women were outnumbered in business contexts so they wanted to avoid conflict. *(could also be used in gender).*  **Anicich (2020):** looked at jargon use and found that the workers that have the least authority/experience used the most amount of jargon.  **O’Barr and Atkins (1980): Courtroom**. Explored male and female speech in lawyers and witnesses. Found that position affected language more than gender. *(gender)*  **Hultgren (2016):** Call centres. Looked at politeness strategies in call centres. Found the most common approach of creating a relationship was using the customer’s name.  **Fairclough:** explored the different types of power – instrumental and influential.  **Brown and Levinson:** explored politeness strategies. Stated that social distance + power distance + degree of imposition = the weight of face threat to be compensated. So powerful participants may use politeness strategies to ensure productive workplace. | Key terms:   * **Jargon**: words and phrases used by an occupational group that are difficult for others to understand. *E.g. blue sky thinking* * **Restricted Occupational Lexis**: words that are exclusive to an occupation but not part of general vocabulary e.g. *Habeas Corpus* in law * **Shared occupational usage:** words that have general functions but have a particular meaning in an occupational usage *e.g. party – in law*   **Politeness strategies:**   * Positive Face –attentive to needs of others e.g. (Are we a little chilly? Shall I close the window for us?) * Negative Face – indirect/ non-confrontational e.g. (I’m sorry but I’m cold, I’m going to close the window) * Bald on-record –no desire to maintain face e.g. (‘Close the window!’) |

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| **Sexuality:** | **Key moments in LGBT history**:  1967 – Homosexuality decriminalised  1972 – First PRIDE march in London  1988 – Clause 28 enacted  2014 - First gay marriage takes place  **Theories/Studies:**  **Kiesling (2002)** – explored language of all male fraternities. Found that they construct hegemonic masculinity by viewing gay men and women as weak.  **Gaudio (1994)** – studied the speech patterns of gay and straight men. He asked volunteers to see if they could identify their sexuality from their voice and he found they could. All participants were white, male university students.  **Pierrehumbert (2004)** – Found a difference in the acoustic characteristics of vowel production in lesbian and bisexual women.  **Podesva (2007)** – recorded openly gay men in 3 different settings and looked at the use of falsetto. He found they code-switched depending on the group they were with.  **Lakoff (1975)** – suggested that gay men adopt the same powerless position as women in society. *(gender)*  **Koch (2008)** – Argued that there cannot be a ‘homosexual language’ as there isn’t a monolithic gay experience  **Leap (2008)** –there are different and competing influences on gay talk and the picture is far more dynamic than studies suggest. | Key terminology:   * Hegemonic masculinity * Heteronormative * LGBTQ+ * Anti-language   Halliday’s features of an anti-language:   * Usually formed by changing existing words * Tends to use existing grammar * Meanings are inaccessible to non-users * Users see it as a fundamental part of their identity * Usually most apparent in spoken conversation   **Polari terms:**   * Lily Law – the police * Fungus – an old man |

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| **Social Groups** | **Theory**  **Thornborrow (2004)** – Theorised that identity is something that we constantly build and is multi-faceted. Each factor of your identity impacts your language use.  **Milroy (1987)** – Social networks. Milroy explored the language use of working class communities in Belfast. She found that there was a higher use of non-standard forms in the dense social networks. The young female speakers from the densest network (Clonard – a catholic area) were found to be linguistically homogenous. *(accent and dialect)*  **Powney** – familects. The concept that we have specific language we use in family groups. Relexicalisation, malapropsims, children’s coinings etc  **Eckert (2000)** – The Jocks and Burnouts study. Eckert identified two groups in a high school – the jocks and the burnouts. Jocks were involved in school life but burnouts weren’t. The jocks were more likely to speak in a socially prestigious way whereas the burnouts used more exaggerated pronunciations associated with their urban accents. *(accent and dialect)*  **Bucholtz (2001)** – The Whiteness of Nerds. She looked at the language of ‘nerds’ in an American high school. She found that they used ‘hyper-white’ language and rejected black slang. | **Terminology:**   * Closed networks * Open networks * Multiplex connections   **Familect examples:**   * *Hoofer-doofer, buttons*   **Social group examples:**   * Gamers: *Fragged, Noob* |

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| **Change** | **History of Change:**  **Old English 400-1150:**  5th Century – Britain is invaded by 3 Germanic tribes – the Jutes, the Saxons and the Angles. Before this the inhabitants of Britain spoke a variety of different Celtic languages.  449AD – Old English brought by the Anglo-Saxons  787AD – Vikings  King Alfred attempts to standardise literature to the West Saxon dialect in the 9th Century.  Key text: Beowulf  **Middle English 1150-1450:**  1066 – William I invaded Britain and establishes French as the language of the court  1204 – John I ended the war with France  1384 – John Wyclif illegally translate the bible into English  Key text: The Canterbury Tales  **Early Modern English 1450 – 1700:**  1476 – Caxton introduces the printing press. He chooses the East Midlands dialect  1564-1616 – Shakespeare is the first user of 1700 words  1611 – King James Bible is published in English and used in churches across the country  1400-1700 – The Great Vowel Shift. Spellings begin to be standardised and pronunciation of vowels differ from this.  **Late Modern English 1700- present day:**  16th-17th Centuries – attempts at linguistic purism occur across Europe  Inkhorn Controversy – the debate about whether we should use Latin borrowings or keep ‘native’ terms  1755 – Samuel Johnson finishes the dictionary after 8 years  1879 – Work begins on the OED  1928 – The OED is completed  Grammar textbooks and the dictionary help to standardise English  **Key quotes:**  “Poets that Lasting Marble seek/Must carve in Latin or in Greek/We write in Sand” - Edmund Waller (1634)  David Crystal says that “linguistic ‘survival of the fittest’…remains a lexicological puzzle”  **Modern Language Change:**  1870 – School becomes compulsory  1922 – BBC begins broadcasting on the radio  1970s – American TV shows gain popularity  1990 – World Wide Web created  2005 – Facebook/Youtube launched  **Types of change:**  **Lexical Change:** how words are created and changed.  **Semantic Change: when the meaning of words change**  Change from above: change from those in dominant positions  Change from below: driven by users of language to suit needs  External change: pressure from external factors (e.g. politics)  Internal change: when aspects of language contribute to change  **Phonological Change: when the sounds of words change**  Great Vowel Shift (1400-1700)  Dialect Levelling (see accent and dialect)  Vocal fry and uptalk  **Grammatical Change: when the syntax and grammar of language changes**  Outdated rules e.g. splitting the infinitive  Standardising plurals  **Orthographical Change: when spellings change**  Spelling reforms in USA and UK  Noah Webster’s American dictionary in 1828  **Attitudes to change:**  Prescriptivist:  Like rules that identify ‘correct’ language usage  Disapprove of uses of language that breaks the rules  Descriptivists  Seek to describe how language is actually used  Do not label specific uses of language as ‘correct’ or ‘incorrect’  **What is happening to language:**  **Progress** – languages *improve* over time; steadily becoming more accurate and efficient  **Decay** –suggested that English was experiencing a *slow and inevitable decline*  **Neither** – language is changing and such change is inevitable  **Theorists:**  **Aitchison 1996** – crumbling castle, damp spoon and the infectious disease. Shows views of prescriptivists and explains how they are wrong.  **MacKinnon 1996** – formed a model of binary opposties of how you can look at language (e.g. language is correct/ugly)  **Robert Lane Greene** – sticklerism. The tendency to correct the language of others to signal education and intelligence  **Milroy** – the tradition of complaining about language  **Goodman 1996** – we are living in an increased time of informalisation (see Fairclough)  **David Crystal** – Language change is out of our control  **Gretchen McCulloch** – the internet is changing our language faster and in more interesting ways than ever before  **John Humphreys** – technology and the younger generations are ruining language by not caring about the nuances of it  **Lynn Truss** – Eats, Shoots and Leaves. Concerned with the lack of care people take with grammar and punctuation  **Theory for how and why change occurs:**  **Ease of Articulation**: language changes because we make things easier to say  **Neatening**: Language changes so it is neater and more regular  Informalisation: Language changes as we, as a society become more informal (Fairclough)  **Standardisation**: language changes through standardisation  **Lexical Gaps**: Language changes because we have gaps in our lexis that need filling. It also follows pre-existing structures and new terms fall into the structures.  **Random Fluctuation**: language changes with no clear reason or pattern (Hockett, Plotkin)  **Substratum Theory**: English changes as different language forms come into contact with English. For example: new migrants learn English and their imperfections are passed down the generations (Labov)  **Functional Theory**: language changes because words are only present for as long as we need them.  **S-curve Theory**: language forms get spread through contacts with others. It also shows how some terms will never be used by everyone  **Wave theory**: Language change spreads like a ripple. Speakers furthest away from the initial change geographically and socially are affected the least. (Bailey)  **Political Correctness:**  **Determinism**: Language determines thought. So restricting offensive terms will reduce prejudice.  **Reflectionism**: Language reflects thought. So restricting offensive terms will have no impact as prejudiced thoughts will still exist.  **Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis**: the concept of linguistic relativity. States that the language you speak influences the way you think so speakers of different languages view the world differently.  Strong linguistic relativity: language precedes thought  Weak linguistic relativity: language influences thought but does not control it.  **Supporters of PC:**  **Spender (1980)** Believes that language reform is needed to shift androcentric nature of language *(see gender – also Miller and Swift and Spender)*  **Critics of PC:**  **Cameron (1995)** States that in the mouths of sexists, language will always be sexist  **Hitchens (1999)** Political Correctness is an intolerant system of thought control  **Key Concepts:**  **Euphamism Treadmill (Pinker):**  The idea that PC words will always gain a negative meaning and need to be replaced.  **Semantic Reclamation (Galinsky):** when terms are reclaimed by groups as a sign of pride and self-acceptance. These terms however can still remain offensive in the mouths of others. | **Old English examples:**  Swefn – dream  Neata – Cattle  **Viking examples:**  -by and –thorpe for places  **Differences between Old English and Modern English:**  No single spelling system  Dialect differences  **Middle English Examples:**  Wif – wife  Syngynge – singing  **French examples:**  Pork (from porc)  Mansion (from maison)  **Early Modern Examples:**  Eggys (Northern dialect)  Eyren (Southern dialect)  **Shakespeare:**  Torture, Luggage  **King James Bible:**  A wolf in sheep’s clothing  **Late modern examples:**  **Inkhorn terms that stayed:**  Demonstrate/Dismiss  **Inkhorn terms that were lost:**  Expede (to get)  **‘Native’ terms that were lost:**  Starlore (astronomy)  **Examples of rules from grammar textbooks:**  No split infinitives (to go boldly)  No double negatives  **Modern Change due to technology:**  Phonetic spelling: shud/luv  Emojis: ☺  Initialisms: BTW, LOL  **Lexical Change**  Borrowing - *Alligator (Spanish for The Lizard)*  Neologism - *Muggle (From Harry Potter)*  Back formation - *To beg (from beggar)*  **Semantic Change examples**  Narrowing - *Wife (not all women)*  Broadening - *Holiday (not just a holy day)*  Pejoration - *Cowboy (now used for builders)*  Amelioration - *Pretty (formerly sly or cunning)*  **Phonological Change**  Spread of the glottal stop from Estuary English (*bu’er*)  **Grammatical Change**  Split infinitive: to boldly go  Regularisation of plurals – *shoen – shoes*  **Orthographical change:**  Analyse vs analyze  **Quotes for attitudes to change:**  “Language change is as natural as breathing.” – David Crystal  “The internet is making our language change faster and in more interesting ways than ever before.” – Gretchen McCulloch  “They are destroying it: pillaging our punctuation; savaging our sentences; raping our vocabulary.” – John Humphreys  “Proper punctuation is both the sign and the cause of clear thinking.” – Lynn Truss  Language is "something that is not always consistent or perfect, but progressing and perfectible - in one word, human"  -Otto Jesperson  **Theory examples:**  Ease of Articulation: handbag – hambag  Neatening: plurals ending in ‘s’  Informalisation: slang  Standardisation: Caxton  Lexical Gaps: pip, pop, pup, pap/ to text  Random Fluctuation: pwned/drive - drove  Substratum Theory: caw-fee  Functional Theory: boombox  S-curve theory: bae  Wave theory: breadcake  **Euphamism Treadmill example:**  Special (can be used pejoratively)  **Semantic reclamation example:**  Queer (can be used as an identity label |

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| *Topic* | *Theory/Studies/History* | *Language Examples/Terminology* |
| World English | **History**:  **16th-18th Century:**  English starts to spread across the globe due to colonisation.  America – 1584, Australia – 1770, Africa – 1820  In India, Thomas Macaulay introduced an English educational system (1835)  **19th Century:**  Britain the leading industrial trading nation  British Empire grows to cover nearly a third of the Earth’s surface. The English Language is used as a symbol of political unity.  **20th Century:**  First radio station broadcasts in English  Even though some countries gain independence from Britain they continue using English  American culture is popularised and the USA continues to rises as a superpower.  **21st Century:**  English is the official language of the UN and is used widely in most major international political gatherings.  You can organise these events into the 3 categories:  Geo-historical factors  Socio-cultural factors  Economic factors  **Models of English:**  **Kachru (1992) – The 3 circles model**  **The Inner Circle**: the regions that use English as the primary language e.g. The UK. Estimated number: 380 million speakers  **The Outer Circle**: English is not the native tongue but serves as a lingua franca. E.g. India, Nigeria. Estimated number: 300 million speakers  **The Expanding Circle**: English plays no governmental or historical role but is used for international communication. E.g. China, Russia. Estimated number: up to 1 billion.    **McArthur’s circle of World Standard English (1987)**  In the centre there is an idealised ‘world standard English’. The next circle shows regional standards of English. The outer layer shows localised varieites of English that are emerging. Some argue this is outdated and that the creole languages in the outer circle do not belong there.  **Strevens’ Spread of English model (1980)**  This shows how American English and British English have split and every other variety of English is a descendant of one of these languages.  **Schneider’s dynamic model of postcolonial Englishes (2003)**  Shows a uniform process that each new English goes through. This process is motivated by the relationship between the language and the region’s indigenous population.  **The Future of Global English**  **David Crystal –** language of identity needs to be maintained but access to global languages is essential  **Phillipson** – Linguistic Imperialism – argues that local languages could lose prestige and die out if we don’t prevent it  **Graddol** – Believes that the rise of English is ‘stoppable’. He thinks that within the next century English will hold a less global position  **McArthur** – English will fragment into a family of languages and we will move away from a monolithic concept of English.  **Ostler** – Believes that English will die out the same way Latin and Persian did. He believes that it might take hundreds of years but English has reached its peak.  **Saraceni** – Believes that the UK and USA need to give up their ‘tyrannical reign’ over English and allow it to become de-anglicised.  **English as a Lingua Franca (Jenkins):**  Used by speakers of different languages to communicate  Alternative to English as a Foreign Language. “Blending in” is not seen as important – just about communication.  Influenced by local varieties of English as well as BrE and AmE.  Accommodation and code-switching are celebrated and seen as useful.  While speakers may be strong speakers of English, they adapt their language to a simpler form or code. | **Positives for global languages:**   * The need for a lingua franca to allow for communication * People will be more mobile, both electronically and physically   **Negatives for global languages:**   * It could create an elite monolingual linguistic class * It could affect local languages * Native speakers will be able to manipulate the language to their own advantage   **Quotes for the future of English:**  “There is an inevitable consequence that the language will become open to the winds of linguistic change in totally unpredictable ways.” David Crystal  “The current global wave of English may lose momentum” – Graddol  **Common Feature of ELF:**   * Confusion of who and which * Omission of definite articles * Use of tag questions such as “isn’t?” or “no?”   **Examples from different Englishes:**  **Lexical Variation -** *Washroom (Canadian), Bathroom (British), Restroom (American)*  **Grammatical Variation** - *I’m loving it (Indian English)*  *I wrote you (American English)*  **Phonological Variation -** *Indian English – syllable-timed, British English – stress-timed; Canadian English – aboot.*  **Spelling** –  *Colour (British and Canadian English) Color (American English). Criticise (British English). Criticize (American and Canadian English)* |