KNOWLEDGE ORGANISERS

Paper 2 – Language diversity and change

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

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

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

35.	Unmarked plurarlity	When a singular form of a noun is used rather than a plural.

		THEORIES
36.	Carmen Llamas (2007)	Created Sense Relation Networks (SRNs). This draws upon the idea that within the mind there exists a network of interconnected words and phrases. Used to explore patterns of lexical variations across regions.
37.	Dixon, Mahoney and Cocks (2002)	Used a 'matched guise' approach to explore the correlation between accent and perceived guilt. Suspects were perceived to be significantly more likely to be guilty when they spoke with the non-standard Birmingham form.
38.	Gerard Van Herk (2012)	The use of covert prestige is 'the linguistic equivalent of street credibility'.
39.	Howard Giles (1973)	Accommodation theory: The idea that people have different levels of formality of language at their disposal, and will converge or diverge their language depending on their situation.
40.	Howard Giles (1975)	Investigated RP and Birmingham accent. The same speaker used two different accents to discuss psychology. The RP 'speaker' was rated higher in terms of competence and intelligence.
41.	Jonathon Harrington (2000)	Tracked changes in the Queens speech over a thirty year period. Certain aspects of her speech have moved towards a more general southern British English variety, rather than RP.
42.	Paul Kerswill (1999)	Studied dialect levelling in Hull, Reading and Milton Keynes. The more people mix in different networks, the more people move in from elsewhere and the more scope there is for social mobility can have an impact on language used.
43.	Peter Trudgill (1974)	Studied the –ng sound at the end of words in Norwich. Found the –g was dropped more widely in lower social classes.
44.	Thomas Pear (1931)	People had different perceptions of a speaker depending on the accent that they had heard them speak with.
45.	William Labov (1960's)	Martha's Vinyard: The locals resisted dialect levelling due to 'summer people', claiming their identity as residents. Divergence was used to mark the change.
46.	William Labov (1966)	Studied the proconononantal /r/ in New York City department stores. Found that the lower middle class were most susceptible to overt prestige.

		CASE STUDIES			
NORWICH			LIVERPOOL		
47.	In words such as 'city' the final sound is pronounced /iː/.		55.	In words such as 'city' the final sound is pronounced /iː/.	
48.	In words such as 'dance' and 'bath' the vowel sound is /ɑː/.		56.	In words such as 'dance' and 'bath' the vowel sound is /æ/.	
49.	[ʊ] and /ʌ/ sounds are both present and distinguish between words like 'put' and 'putt'.		57.	There is no distinction between words like 'put' and 'putt'. Both are pronounced /pʊt/ as there is no /ʌ/ vowel.	
50.	In words such as 'room' the vowel sound is /ʊ/ rather than /uː/.		58.	There is no contrast between pairs of words like 'fair' and 'fir' which are usually pronounced with the vowel sound /eə/.	
WEST MIDLANDS			BRADFORD		
51.	In words such as 'city' the final sound is pronounced /iː/ although sometimes a dipthong is used, such as /eɪ/.		59.	In words such as 'city' the final sound is pronounced /ɪ/.	
52.	In words such as 'dance' and 'bath' the vowel sound is /æ/.		60.	In words such as 'dance' and 'bath' the vowel sound is /æ/.	
53.	There is no distinction between words like 'put' and 'putt'. Both are pronounced /pʊt/.		61.	There is no distinction between words like 'put' and 'putt'. Both are pronounced /pʊt/.	
54.	'One' and 'won' are distinguished as /wɒn/ and /wʊn/.		62.	Words such as 'make' and 'take' are pronounced /mek/ and /tek/.	

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

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

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

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

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

29.	Race	Perceived physical similarities and differences that groups and cultures consider socially significant. You generally cannot choose your race.
30.	Standard English	The form of the English language widely accepted as the correct form of speaking and writing.

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

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

29.	Middle English	11th century	French was the verbal language of the court and administration (due to the Norman invasion), whilst Latin was the written language (due to the Church). English became more prominent due to writers, such as Chaucer, using English to write, rather than French. Dialectal differences remained around the country.
30.	Early Modern English	15th century	Caxton introduced the printing press (1476), contributing to the establishment of a standard English. The SE dialect was used as the basis for this. The popularity of English spread to due English writers and playwrights. James 1 commissioned the Authorised Version of the Bible.
31.	Modern English	18th century	The English language had grown at an incredible rate, with words borrowed from Latin, Greek and further afield; the spread of the British Empire also influenced this. Grammarians began to propose correct ways of speaking and writing.
32.	Present English	20th century	English has continued to develop and the influence of the media, technology and travel has helped to establish English as a global language.

PROCESSES OF CHANGE		
33.	Acronym	First letters are taken for a series of words to create a new term.
34.	Affixation	One or more free morphemes are combined with one of more bound morphemes.
35.	Back formation	A verb is created from an existing noun by removing a suffix.
36.	Blending	A combination of clipping and compounding. Words are abbreviated and joined together to form a new word.
37.	Borrowing	The process of taking a word from another language and inserting it into the lexicon of another.
38.	Clipping	Words are shortened and the shortened form becomes the norm. q
39.	Compounding	Words are combined together to form new words. These can be open, hyphenated or solid.
40.	Conversion or functional shift	A word shifts from one word class to another, usually from a noun to a verb.
41.	Eponym	Names of a person or company are used to define particular objects. Often they are the inventors or distributors of the product.
42.	Initialism	The first letters from a series of words form a new term, but each letter is pronounced.
43.	Loan word	A word that has been borrowed into a lexicon.
44.	Neologism	A completely new word.

THEORIES		
45.	David Crystal (2001)	The way we communicate online is similar to how we communicate in real life. He believes we are now living in a linguistic economy in which now language is more practical than formal, we shorten words for practicality, this has derived from things like text talk
46.	Donald Mackinnon (1996)	Categorises the attitudes people may have to language use: 1. As incorrect or correct; 2. As pleasant or ugly; 3. Socially acceptable or socially unacceptable; 4.Morally acceptable or morally unacceptable; 5.Appropriate in context or inappropriate in context; 6. Useful or useless.
47.	Harvey and Shalom (1997)	Taboo language has become increasingly acceptable in the home, between friends and in informal situations. Over time it becomes more acceptable in society at large.
48.	Jean Aitchinson (1996)	Three metaphors to describe language change; The damp spoon syndrome, the crumbling castle view, and the infectious disease assumption.
49.	Robert Lowth (1762)	A prescriptivist. Introduced the first grammar book for the English Language.
50.	Sapir Whorf Hypothesis	This states that the certain thoughts of an individual in one language cannot be understood by those who live in another language. The way people think is strongly effected by their native languages.
51.	Sharon Goodman (1996)	Explores two aspects of language change: Firstly, she states that that we are living in a time where language has become informalisation, this the idea that language which was used in close personal relationships is now being used in wider sociological context. She also talks about supercharged typographic icon- Letters in the English language act as symbols in modern society with meanings behind them. e.g. x meaning incorrect.

52.	Suzanne Romaine (1998)	External and Internal history of language: Internal: Formation of new words and the influence of dictionaries. Look what happens with no external influences. External: the changing social contexts-how social contexts influence language change.