AS
and A Level
English Language

GETTING STARTED

Teacher Guide

Getting Started: GCE A/AS English Language 2015

Contents

1. Introduction

Our new GCE English Language specification has been created to engage A level learners in the great variety of English in use and to consider critical language debates. Our GCE English Language not only introduces students to how language is used, but also develops their abilities to use and craft language themselves – to cultivate their own distinct creative voice.

The specification and sample assessment materials have been developed in consultation with the teaching community, higher education, learned societies and subject associations. Teachers from a range of schools and colleges – in focus groups, phone interviews, network groups and face-to-face interviews – have provided feedback at each stage and have helped us to shape the specification. English Language academics in UK universities have helped us understand how to build on the strengths of the 2008 A level specification and advised on how progression to undergraduate study could be improved.

This *Getting Started* guide provides an overview of the new AS and A level specifications, to help you get to grips with the changes to content and assessment, and to help you understand what these mean for you and your students.

For more help and support, please visit the Edexcel website, or contact Clare Haviland, our English Subject Advisor. Clare and her team are on hand to provide centres with answers about the content or teaching of the specifications. Contact them at **TeachingEnglish@pearson.com**

2. What's changed?

2.1 How has GCE English Language changed?

Changes to AS and A level qualifications

- From September 2015, A level English Language will be a linear qualification. This means that all examinations must be sat – and coursework submitted – at the end of the two-year course.

- The qualification is available in the summer series only, with the first assessment of AS level in Summer 2016 and of A level in Summer 2017.

- The AS will be a standalone qualification. AS results will not contribute to final A level grades, although students will still be able to enter for both AS and A level within the same subject.

Changes to subject criteria

The subject criteria for AS and A level English Language have been revised. All awarding organisations' specifications for English Language must meet these criteria.

Updated technical vocabulary

Both **AS and A level** English Language specifications must require students to study:

- phonetics, phonology and prosodics: how speech sounds and effects are articulated and analysed

- lexis and semantics: the vocabulary of English, including social and historical variation

- grammar including morphology: the structural patterns and shapes of English at sentence, clause, phrase and word level

- pragmatics: the contextual aspects of language use

- discourse: extended stretches of communication occurring in different genres, modes and contexts.

Minor amendments to the subject content to specify the study of historical, geographical, social and individual varieties of English, as well as aspects of language and identity.

A level English Language specifications must require students to show deeper knowledge and understanding of how the language levels outlined above can be applied to a range of contexts for language use, including:

- historical, geographical, social and individual varieties of English

- aspects of language and identity.

A level English Language specifications must also enable students:

- to show understanding of how the different areas of study connect across their course as a whole.

Changes to Assessment Objectives

The AS and A level English Language Assessment Objectives have also been revised. There are now five Assessment Objectives, with AO4 adding a new aspect of exploring connections. The addition of this new Assessment Objective has led to a decrease in the weighting of AO5 (formerly AO4). The same Assessment Objectives and weighting ranges apply to both AS and A level.

Students must:		% in GCE
AO1	Apply appropriate methods of language analysis, using associated terminology and coherent written expression.	20–30%
AO2	Demonstrate critical understanding of concepts and issues relevant to language use.	20–30%
AO3	Analyse and evaluate how contextual factors and language features are associated with the construction of meaning.	20–30%
AO4	Explore connections across texts, informed by linguistic concepts and methods.	10–15%
AO5	Demonstrate expertise and creativity in the use of English to communicate in different ways. *Note: this Assessment Objective must be targeted with at least one of AO2, AO3 or AO4, either in the same task or in two or more linked tasks.*	10–15%
	Total	**100%**

2.2 Mapping the Edexcel GCE 2008 to GCE 2015

For centres that have been delivering the current Edexcel GCE English Language specification, the tables below map the content of the current specification to the new specification.

The A level course

Current A2	New A level
Unit 1: Language Today (examination)	**Component 1: Language Variation (examination)**
Exploring how language use varies in context and how language choices reflect the identity of the user.	Exploring how language choices reflect the identity of the user (individual variation) and how language has changed over time (variation over time).
Unit 2: Exploring the Writing Process (coursework)	**Component 2: Child Language (examination)**
Demonstrating skills as writers for reading and listening audiences and commenting on texts produced.	Exploring children's acquisition of spoken language skills and how they learn to write.
Unit 3: Language Diversity and Children's Language Development (examination)	**Component 3: Investigating Language (examination)**

Current A2	New A level
Exploring language diversity over time and in global contexts; children's acquisition of spoken language skills and how they learn to write.	Independent research of a language topic area, selected from pre-released subtopics.
Unit 4: English Language Investigation and Presentation (coursework)	**Component 4: Crafting Language (coursework)**
Independently researching a language topic area.	Demonstrating skills as writers, specialising in a specific genre, and commenting on texts produced.

Component 1 of the new A level course combines elements from the current Unit 1 (language and identity) and Unit 3 (historical variation). The 'language and identity' aspect of this paper supports co-teachability with an AS group being prepared for the AS Component 1.

Component 2 has separated the topic of Child Language, currently assessed in Unit 3, into a distinct paper. This supports co-teachability with an AS group being prepared for the AS Component 2.

Component 3 has taken the current Unit 4 coursework unit and converted it into an examination. Students will need to research a subtopic area and complete an investigation in order to provide supporting evidence for their responses in the examination.

Component 4 is the only coursework unit (as only 20 per cent non-examined assessment is allowed in the new A level qualifications). It has similar content to the current Unit 2, which focuses on writing skills.

The AS course

Current AS	New AS
Unit 1: Language Today (examination)	**Component 1: Language: Context and Identity (examination)**
Exploring how language use varies in context and how language choices reflect the identity of the user.	Exploring how language use varies in context and how language choices reflect the identity of the user.
Unit 2: Exploring the Writing Process (coursework)	**Component 2: Child Language (examination)**
Demonstrating skills as writers for reading and listening audiences and commenting on the texts produced.	Exploring children's acquisition of spoken language skills and how they learn to write, including a creative response.

Component 1 of the new AS has very similar content to the current Unit 1, although the examination design has changed (see Section 4.2 for more assessment information).

Component 2 is very different to the current Unit 2 as coursework is not permitted in AS courses. It has been replaced with the topic of Child Language.

3. A level English Language

3.1 Introduction

The revised A level specification is made up of four components; three are externally assessed components and one is internally assessed.

Component 1	Language Variation	35%	Externally assessed
Component 2	Child Language	20%	Externally assessed
Component 3	Investigating Language	25%	Externally assessed
Coursework	Crafting Language	20%	Internally assessed, externally moderated

For all these components, the focus is on students' ability to analyse the full range of language **frameworks** and **levels**, as appropriate.

What do we mean by 'frameworks' and 'levels'?

Dr Ruth Payne, lecturer in linguistics at Leeds University, offers the following explanation.

The **frameworks** of **discourse** and **pragmatics** relate to over-arching societal and cultural interpretations.

The analysis of **discourse** is rooted in an understanding of ideologies. When analysing language, it is important to consider the intention of the speaker or author, as well as the viewpoint of the audience or reader.

In the study of **pragmatics** there is also a very close link to cultural expectations about such issues as gender or politeness, as well as a much deeper analysis of the effects of different contexts on language production.

These over-arching **frameworks** are realised through the more structural issues found in the hierarchy of **levels**, or aspects of language, where sounds (**phonetics**, **phonology** and **prosodics**), structural patterns at sentence, clause, phrase and word level (**grammar** including **morphology**) and vocabulary (**lexis** and **semantics**) can be explored to discover how they combine and function in different texts.

3.2 Component 1: Language Variation

Content

In this component students will explore the ways in which language varies, depending on the contexts of production and reception. There are two sections to the component:

- **Section A: Individual Variation** focuses on how language choices can reflect and create personal identities
- **Section B: Variation over Time** focuses on language variation in English from c1550 (the beginnings of Early Modern English) to the present day.

Section A: Individual Variation

When teaching this section, a useful point of entry might be to explore students' own attitudes to language and attitudes that they have encountered about their own language use. This invariably elicits a range of (often quite heated!) views about the language of individuals and social groups that can be used as the basis for an increasingly systematic exploration of concepts about language variation, identity, and the nature of academic (**descriptive**) language study in contrast to the more instrumental (often **prescriptive**) teaching they will have encountered through their prior education.

You should prepare your students so that in the examination they are able to analyse texts (which may include transcripts of speech) from a descriptive perspective, while recognising that issues of identity that are crucial to the study of individual variation often draw on powerful prescriptive attitudes and value judgements that language users ascribe both to their own usage and that of others.

Descriptivism versus prescriptivism

The difference between descriptive and prescriptive attitudes to language is clearly and accessibly explained in the first of Jean Aitchison's 1996 BBC Reith Lectures, which can be listened to at www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/p00gx2dt. Because the focus of the lectures was on language change, it also provides an excellent link with Section B. (The transcript of the lecture can be downloaded from http://downloads.bbc.co.uk/rmhttp/radio4/transcripts/1996_reith1.pdf)

Aitchison's lecture introduces a description of three different 'prescriptivist' attitudes that students usually find memorable and easy to grasp, and which provide clear links to concepts of social identity:

- the 'damp spoon' syndrome (distaste for language use that is perceived as 'lazy')

- the 'crumbling castle' view (the idea that there was a 'perfect state' of language that is now in decay)

- the 'infectious disease' assumption (the idea that 'bad' language can be caught from others and needs to be protected against).

As John Edwards (in *Language and Identity: An Introduction*, CUP, 2009) has observed, even though from a linguistic point of view all dialects can be seen as equally valid, the reality is that people persistently think of difference in terms of deficiency and superiority, as expressed by the prevalence of terms such as 'proper English' and judgements such as 'it doesn't make sense' about forms that are both common and perfectly understandable, such as double negatives. Consequently, it is important for students to begin to identify how variation within and between individuals is often both a product of social attitudes in the groups to which they belong, and a way of shaping their relationships within those groups, and towards groups to which they do not belong.

What is identity?

An influential theoretical model is Giddens' theory of structuration (Giddens, A., 1984, *The Constitution of Society: Outline of the Theory of Structuration*) which emphasises that, as individuals, we both shape and are given shape by social structures. This 'reciprocal' dimension – and an awareness of the complex interaction between social structures such as power relations, ethnicity, religion, gender and so on – is important for students to remember when analysing data to ensure that they do not on the one hand simply assume that any distinctive features they identify are an inevitable product of social factors, or on the other that they are purely idiosyncratic (or 'idiolectal') features. Rather, they should be encouraged to think of them as a product of the individual actively constructing and

presenting an identity in a particular discourse context, under the influence of (but not necessarily constrained by) existing social norms.

Prestige (overt and covert) and solidarity

Individuals will use language forms that give them (or that they believe will give them) prestige in the groups they want to identify with.

Overt prestige refers to varieties that are explicitly accorded high status (for example the privileging of Standard English through the education system and the media etc and the development of 'politically correct' forms of language to replace terms that have become perceived as prejudiced).

Covert prestige refers to varieties which, even though they may be perceived by even its own users to be less prestigious or even 'bad' English, are nevertheless used to build a sense of social solidarity and to be seen as part of an 'in group'. Key early studies in this area are those of William Labov in New York and Martha's Vineyard and Peter Trudgill in Norwich.

Students can be encouraged to explore language forms used in their own social groups and communities, and to explore their social significance.

Accommodation (convergence and divergence)

The perception of prestige leads language users to adapt their language to those they are communicating with. This theory, associated with Howard Giles (see *Contexts of Accommodation: Developments in Applied Sociolinguistics*, Cambridge University Press, 1991), suggests that speakers or writers shift their language use to be more similar to people they want to impress or be associated with (convergence) and to emphasise difference from those they want to disassociate from. Thus language is a vital element in creating and negotiating social relations.

George Bernard Shaw's dictum 'It is impossible for an Englishman to open his mouth without making some other Englishman hate or despise him' might be an interesting starting point for discussion of this concept, not least because of the assumptions about gender, nationality and class that underlie it.

What kind of language variation is seen in individuals?

The concepts above provide useful theoretical frameworks to begin accounting for variation in individuals' language use. So what social structures are most likely to account for the variation students will encounter, and what forms of variation should they be looking out for?

Geographical variation, ethnicity and nationality

Obvious links can be made with Component 3 here by looking both at regional and global varieties of English. Accent and dialect features often form a very strong dimension of people's sense of identity, and exploring distinctive local features and how they are perceived by the speakers themselves compared with outsiders can be a very engaging way into this topic. Although accent features obviously cannot be observed directly in an exam, the data types for this unit could include a transcript of speech with significant pronunciation features indicated using IPA notation, while writers will sometimes use modified spelling deliberately, or misspelling inadvertently, to indicate significant accent features.

Lexical variation is a particularly prominent aspect of regional variation, and exploration of regional lexical variations in matters such as affectionate terms of address ('love', 'duck', 'hinny', 'lover' etc) can provide a stimulating point of entry.

Nationality and ethnicity are obviously related to geographical variation, but in an increasingly globalised world the 'physical' dimension of geography is often separated to some extent from the contribution that ethnicity makes to identity. An example might be the rise of 'Jafaican': Caribbean influenced language forms used among (mainly young) speakers in (mainly) urban areas of England regardless of ethnic background.

Social stratification: class, education and occupation

There is an obvious link here to the language and power topic for Component 3, as well as crossover with aspects of geographical variation as seen in the well-known social/regional 'pyramid' model (which shows variations such as regional accents and dialect forms become increasingly less marked the higher up the social scale you are –see, for example, John Wells' *Accents of English* (1982)).

Grammatical variation is particularly strongly marked in 'class' terms, with stigmatised forms such as double negatives and non-standard verb/participle forms ('The lad done well') often provoking strong negative reactions among students. It can be illuminating for them to explore forms which they themselves are unlikely to use but that might be seen by others as a marker of education or status. Examples include use of the pronoun 'whom', and the choice of 'I' or 'me' in compound subjects ('Dave and me went to the pub' versus 'Dave and I ...'), and the tendency to 'hypercorrect' such forms when 'upwardly converging' ('Sue came to the pub with Dave and I').

Generational and age variation

There is a link to be made here with the child language acquisition and historical variation topics. The language of one generation is acquired from the parents' generation but it is constructed, not merely 'copied', from them. Awareness of how the acquisition of language-making rules and processes allows individuals and groups to invent new forms can help in identifying and explaining variations over time.

A distinction can be made between features that characterise a particular generation (for example the use of 'wireless' for 'radio', which is likely to be used only by someone born in the 1970s or before but is likely to be used by them throughout their life) and those which are distinctive markers of a particular age group (which are likely to be abandoned when the individual is no longer in that age bracket). Students are often acutely sensitive to these shifts and are able to talk about language use that was common in their peer group even when they were only two or three years younger, but which they would no longer use. Common examples include terms of approbation ('cool', 'ace', 'safe', 'lush' etc). The linguist Jenny Cheshire has done some interesting work in this field and has made a useful paper available online at
http://webspace.qmul.ac.uk/jlcheshire/sociolingx%20and%20age.pdf

Gender identity

Care must be taken to ensure that outdated and simplistic models of gendered language are not presented as competing theories of equal validity. Nevertheless, a carefully handled broad outline of the development of language and gender theory will be useful, as earlier studies often reflected stereotypes and attitudes that are still widely held.

> **Language and gender theories**
>
> **Deficit model**
>
> Women are disadvantaged as language users, presenting themselves as lacking in authority (key theorist: Robin Lakoff).
>
> **Dominance model**
>
> Different language patterns are a result of male social dominance (key theorists: Zimmerman and West, Dale Spender).
>
> **Difference model**
>
> Boys and girls are brought up as two distinct cultural groups and therefore exhibit different language patterns (key theorist: Deborah Tannen).
>
> **Discursive model**
>
> Gender is constructed through language within a cultural framework (key theorist: Deborah Cameron).

A research update for teachers by Professor Deborah Cameron has been published by the English and Media Centre, including commentaries on suggested further reading – see www.englishandmedia.co.uk/emag/debcamemag.pdf

Section B: Variation Over Time

Although texts in the exam will be drawn from Early Modern English (EMnE), c1550 onwards, it may be valuable to use some texts from before this (as early as Chaucer and Caxton) to give students some sense of the development of English leading up to EMnE.

When teaching this component, you will want to explore examples of **diachronic** change across the language frameworks and levels, which Anthony Heald, GCE English Language consultant, outlines below.

Graphology and phonology

- Consider how regional variation is often synchronic evidence of the spread (or halting) of a diachronic change, for example the north/south divide over the /ʌ/ versus /ʊ/ phonemic distinction.

- Explore currently changing pronunciation, for example by doing a survey of words subject to yod-dropping or coalescence (eg mature = ma-tyoor /tj/, ma-chyoor /tʃj/ or ma-choor /tʃ/), or by using Professor John Wells' pronunciation survey from 1998.

- A brief overview of the Great Vowel Shift can be used to explain some of the complex phoneme/grapheme correspondences in modern spelling. (Work on phonics/literacy development from Component 2: Child Language can be used as the starting point here.)

- Printing constraints and traditions are also relevant to graphological issues that students are likely to encounter in older texts, such as textual density (cost of paper/mechanics of moveable type) and now-obsolete forms such as 'yt' for 'that' with relic of letter 'þ' (thorn), use of long 's' 'ſ' and i/j u/v distinction.

Lexis/semantics

- Connections can be made with Component 2: Child Language as tendencies in child language acquisition (CLA) (eg **overextension** and **regularisation**) are intrinsic tendencies in language change. These can increasingly persist over time and thus spread throughout the language (eg a child saying 'gived' instead of 'given' is similar to the change from 'holpen' to 'helped'). Over time this becomes increasingly widespread, resulting in what is regarded as 'standard' or 'correct' changing over time.

- **Borrowing**: explore major sources of lexicon now regarded as clearly English: Old English 'core', Norman French, Latin and Greek influence of Renaissance. Consider how time assimilates vocabulary until it is regarded as 'native', providing (near) synonyms with different levels of formality or used in differing contexts (eg kingly/royal/regal).

- **Neologism**: look at key intrinsic processes, eg **compounding**, **derivation** **blending**, **acronyms** and **initialism**. Explore external socio-cultural processes driving change, such as changing technology, colonialism and trade.

- Look at processes such as **broadening**, **narrowing**, **amelioration**, **pejoration** and **conversion**. There is plenty of opportunity here to begin with examples from students' own language, with engagement and amusement to be had from what their teacher uses and 'thinks' is current usage, eg terms of approbation: hip, groovy, cool, sound, wicked, safe, sick.

Grammar/syntax

- Explore grammatical change. Again, there is plenty of opportunity for link to Component 2: Child Language here, as many of the features likely to have differing forms are also those that are most noticeable when looking at children's language, ie **question formation**, **negation**, **inflection of verbs**, **use of auxiliaries/modal verbs** and **pronoun use**.

Discourse

- The sense of a text seeming to us 'old fashioned' is less because of the presence of lexical and grammatical forms that are obsolete and more because of changes in what is regarded as appropriate style, governed by contextual factors such as education, genre and social roles.

- It is often easy to identify a text as coming from an earlier period without there being any major differences at the levels of phonology and graphology, lexis and semantics, syntax and grammar. Here, the difference often lies at the level of discourse and pragmatics, issues such as contextual factors, writer/reader relationship, the functions of the text, perceptions of the text type, intended meaning and the requirements of mode.

Assessment

Component 1: Language Variation	***Paper code: 9EN0/01**	
Written examination consisting of **two** sections. **Section A: Individual Variation** **One** question on two unseen 21st-century linked texts/data. Students produce an extended comparative response (AO1, AO2, AO3, AO4 assessed). **Section B: Variation Over Time** **One** question on two thematically linked unseen texts/data, from two different periods. Students produce an extended comparative response (AO1, AO2, AO3, AO4 assessed). - First assessment: May/June 2017. - The assessment is 2 hours 15 minutes. - The assessment consists of two questions – one per section. - The assessment consists of 60 marks – 30 marks per section.		35% of the total qualification

3.3 Component 2: Child Language

Content

Our research told us that the 'child language' topic really engages students, whilst being a fantastic topic through which to explore the full range of language levels.

Some of the language feature-based aspects of Component 2: Child Language may be covered in other areas of the specification, so students will need to adapt this knowledge for this component.

Students should be introduced to relevant developmental, functional and structural theories associated with the development of language. Students should be familiar with a range of theories including the earlier debates of behaviourism, innateness versus nativism, cognitive and interactive theories, and functional approaches. For written language, this should include current methods of teaching literacy.

Some key aspects that students should be familiar with are:

● stages of language acquisition (eg holographic, two word, telegraphic)

● overextension, underextension, overgeneralisation

● substitution, deletion

● child-directed speech (CDS), caretaker language, motherese

● stages of writing.

In teaching this component, you will want to explore features of child language across the language frameworks and levels. In the following text, Craig Newton, Principal Examiner, outlines some areas of child language that you might want to explore with your students.

Graphology

● How visual presentation can shape meanings or link to wider context, and how children may develop knowledge of different graphological structures, eg lists or websites

● Terms associated with the components of written language such as **grapheme**, **digraph** and **capital letter** to describe relevant spelling patterns.

Orthography

● This is relevant only to written language and will require knowledge of phonology in order to discuss the dependence on, or independence from, phonology in a child's spelling. Key terms such as **phoneme**, **grapheme** and **digraph** will be needed. Students should be aware of how contextual factors such as regional accent may affect early spelling, and should be made aware of current literacy teaching methods.

Morphology

● Knowledge of the inflectional morphemes used to change the function of a word to help describe issues such as over generalisation, regularisation and 'virtuous errors' where children may produce novel forms.

● Knowledge of derivational morphology can help the student comment on the child's ability to form different word classes from existing words in his/her vocabulary.

● Key terms such as **derivational morpheme**, **inflectional morpheme**, **blending** and **clipping**.

Lexis and semantics

- The process of word learning in English, including the speed of learning and the types of words acquired.
- Terminology used to express and describe lexical meaning and relationships, such as **synonyms**, **antonyms**, **hyponyms**, **homonyms** and **homophones**, can be linked to lexical development and context.
- The distinction between **standard/non-standard**, **dialect**, **colloquial**, **collocation** and **slang**, and the ability to link their use to development and/or contextual factors such as the influence of the environment.
- Word class terminology to enable students to describe their findings accurately.

Phonology

- The IPA and terminology associated with manner and place of articulation of sounds in order to enable students to accurately describe and analyse features of phonology which may be related to development or contextual factors.
- The development of speech sounds from the earliest stages of babbling through to standardisation, including an awareness of how context (such as **regional accent**) can affect the significant features and development of a child's phonology.
- Common features of phonology found in most speakers such as **elision**, **reduction** and **substitution**.
- The development and understanding of prosodic features.

Grammar

- Ability to analyse and describe the grammatical structures used, comparing these to Standard English forms without adopting a **deficit** approach, and to create links to developmental/structural or functional theories of development.
- Awareness of the influence of contextual factors on the grammar of English and the ability to describe, analyse and comment on how children at various stages of the development process are able to use various grammatical structures to meet their needs in spoken or written language.
- **Word**: knowledge of the lexical and functional word classes of **Standard English**, including terminology associated with different forms of **pronoun** (eg person/subject/object/possessive/reflexive), **adjective** (comparative and superlative) and types, functions and forms of **verb** (eg lexical/auxiliary/ modal/past/present/past and present participle).
- **Phrase**: awareness of the structure of phrases. There should be clear focus on degrees of complexity in pre- and post-modified noun phrases as well as tense and aspect and negatives in verb phrases.
- **Clause**: the different levels of structure found in Standard English, including how contextual factors or developmental stage may affect the structures used. The ability to identify the functions of different parts of a clause, including awareness of the optional and movable role of adverbial elements, can help illustrate discussions on how a child has adapted language for a particular context or developmental stage.
- **Sentence**: the distinction between main and subordinate clauses, including the relative clause, and various sentence structures; knowledge of the form and function of **declarative**, **interrogative**, **imperative** and **exclamatory** sentence types; **active** and **passive** structures.

Discourse

- Knowledge of features of overall text structure, in both spoken and written language. The concept of 'whole text in context' includes structures larger than a sentence, eg conversation analysis and textual cohesion.

- For spoken language, ability to analyse, discuss and exemplify the child's development of conversational skills, not forgetting to discuss any relevant issues seen in the child's conversational partner. Key areas such as **adjacency pairs**, **turn-taking**, **overlapping**, **pauses**, **non-fluency features**, **topic shifts**, **terms of address** etc should be explored.

- For both written and spoken language, issues such as **lexical cohesion**, **repetition**, **grammatical cohesion**, **pronoun referencing**, **implied (constructed or assumed) narrator/narratee**, **cataphoric/anaphoric references** etc.

Pragmatics

- Knowledge of relevant pragmatic theories and concepts to explore and analyse the child's use and understanding of implied meaning, using terms such as such as **presupposition** (assumptions) and **inference** to explain the ways meanings may be implied.

Assessment

Component 2: Child Language	*Paper code: 9EN0/02

Written examination. Students answer **one** question based on a set of unseen data – *either* spoken *or* written. Students produce an extended response (AO1, AO2, AO3 assessed). - First assessment: May/June 2017. - The assessment is 1 hour. - The assessment consists of one question. - The assessment consists of 45 marks.	20% of the total qualification

3.4 Component 3: Investigating Language

Content

With the reduction in coursework, we have created this innovative approach to investigation through an examination format. We have listened to higher education, who told us that investigation and research skills are vital for any students wishing to further their language studies at undergraduate level.

This component arose out of the coursework-based Unit 4: Language Investigation and Presentation from the 2008 GCE specification. The skills developed in this component are similar to that unit: the ability to ask questions about language, to find appropriate data to answer the question, to analyse the data and to draw conclusions. However, topic choice will be limited to the five topics listed in the specification.

Main topics

● **Global English**: this topic will explore aspects of varieties of global English. They include those from outside the UK, such as the Republic of Ireland, the Americas and the Caribbean, the Pacific and Australasia, Africa, south and south-east Asia.

● **Language and Gender Identity**: this topic will explore social attitudes and how the forms and conventions of written, spoken and multimodal language can construct or reflect gender and sexual identities.

● **Language and Journalism**: this topic will explore the many varieties of print and online journalism. Students will have opportunities to explore the influence of contextual factors, how language is crafted to meet the expectations of different audiences and purposes, and to consider notions of bias, subjectivity and objectivity.

● **Language and Power**: this topic will explore how the way language is used in society can create and enforce power relationships. Students will explore aspects such as instrumental and influential power, political discourse, discourses in unequal power relationships, persuasion, language and prestige, politeness and power relationships.

● **Regional Language Variation**: this topic will explore English that varies regionally within the UK. Students will explore the historical aspects of regional variation, how and why language varies regionally, attitudes to regional variation, and variation within regional varieties.

In this component students will:

● select a research focus from one of the above five topic areas

● develop their research and investigation skills

● undertake a focused investigation

● apply their knowledge of language levels and key language concepts developed throughout the whole course

● develop their personal language specialism.

A subtopic will be pre-released in the January before the examination. The pre-released subtopic will provide a steer for the students' research and investigations to enable them to prepare for the external assessment.

Before the subtopics are released, teachers should focus on developing their students' research and investigative skills. There are opportunities to do this throughout the course, through small-scale investigations about child language or research into the language of a particular historical period. Another approach could be to introduce students to each of the five main topic areas so that they are able to make an informed decision when selecting their preferred subtopic for investigation.

Research and investigation

Students should carry out a focused investigation, ensuring that they have researched the following aspects of their chosen subtopic, as appropriate:

- the origins/development
- the main features
- different varieties
- changing attitudes
- the influence of social/historical/cultural factors.

Students will use their research, the observations made in their investigation and the data they gather to inform their response in the examination.

Students *cannot* take any of their research or investigation data gathered as part of the pre-release work into the examination.

Teaching investigation skills for the examination

Your role as a teacher

This component is designed to help students develop their skills as independent researchers. As the component is examined, guidance from the teacher is appropriate through all stages, including help to determine:

- research question design
- data sources
- collection methods
- methods of analysis
- the implications of the results of analysis
- discussion of ways findings can be used in response to exam questions.

Approaches

The component can be structured around a series of research skills and combine independent and group work. Students need to be aware that the skills and understanding developed in other components can be applied to the topics under investigation, and research skills introduced earlier in the course will help them to understand and work with data.

Before the subtopic is available

The early stages of the course should be used to give students a grounding in the theory and background to the main topic area chosen for study. They should be aware of:

- the historical background to their main topic
- important theories relating to this
- the development of linguistic study in this area
- current theories and ideas.

They should also carry out data collection and analysis to observe data in the light of theory. The question 'Does the language always do what the theory suggests it will?' is one that is always worth asking. Students should be encouraged to seek out and share their own data.

After the pre-release subtopic is available

After the subtopic is released, students should begin to ask focused questions about this subtopic, such as:

- Where does this subtopic fit within the context of the overall topic?
- Where might this language be used/observed?

- What are the main features of this language? How is it different from/similar to language relating to other topics?
- What is the function of this language?
- Who uses it?

They should also consider the specific research guidance given in the pre-release material. Using this guidance, they can identify an area relating to the subtopic, devise a method of researching it, collect data, analyse it and draw conclusions from the analysis.

Students can report the progress of their research and present their data for analysis and discussion in small- and whole-group workshops.

Research skills

Students need to identify clear and concise answers to the following questions:

- What do I want to find out?
- What data do I need to collect?
- Where can I find this data?
- How should I collect it?
- How should I analyse it to help me find an answer to my original question?

The answers to these questions will enable the students to devise research investigations. These could include hypothesis or question-based topics where the student wants to test a theory he or she has developed about the area of language being investigated, or a descriptive topic where the students is investigating an area of language for which there is little previous research.

Useful research tools include language corpora where large banks of language can be analysed, using a corpus tool such as AntConc to identify common patterns. Corpora can include dictionaries, banks of electronic archives, as well as selected and tagged corpora such as COBUILD and the British National Corpus. A useful list of corpora can be found at www.corpora4learning.net/resources/corpora.html

Working collaboratively

Although students are expected to complete their investigations independently, it is important that they share both research in progress and their findings in order to create a context in which each student has a confident and wide knowledge of the area under study. This will help them to identify links across language data, to understand the role of contextual factors in the topic under discussion and to understand how theory is exemplified in the data they have been analysing.

Examples of investigation subtopics

The following examples of subtopics have been taken from the Sample Assessment Materials.

Global English: subtopic South African English

- The language of the political speeches of Nelson Mandela and other anti-apartheid activists between 1960 and 2004.
- The English of three different South African stand-ups from different ethnic groups: Chris Mapane, Riaad Moosa and Barry Hilton.

Language and Gender Identity: subtopic Constructing 'ideal' women

- Print and online commentary in October 2014 about Renee Zellweger's new look.
- The way women's appearance is discussed in slimming magazines and articles.

Language and Journalism: subtopic Opinion articles

- The presentation of homosexuality in opinion articles from 1895 to the present day.
- The use of persuasive language devices in opinion articles.

Language and Power: subtopic Legal language

- The language of false confessions, looking at Derek Bentley and William Power.
- Change over time in witness questioning in court, using sources from The Old Bailey online and visits to the Crown Court.

Regional Language Variation: subtopic English of Yorkshire and the North East

- Is the language of South Yorkshire changing? The language of my grandfather compared with my language.
- If the English of Yorkshire and the North East is losing its regional identity because of mass communications media, then modern forms will be closer to current Standard English than forms collected earlier in the 20th century were to Standard English of that period.

Subtopic investigation case studies

Case study 1: South African English

Example investigation focus

The investigation was carried out to identify the historical development of SA English in the 20th–21st centuries and to identify the main features of the language. The student realised that past examples of South African English were not easily available, so he identified the struggle against apartheid and analysed speeches of Nelson Mandela during the fight against apartheid in the 1960s and 1970s, and the speeches of Nelson Mandela between his release from prison in 1990 and 2004. He identified that Mandela's English was close to Standard British English in lexis and syntax, but very different at the phonological level. Interestingly, he identified more differences at the level of syntax in Mandela's late speeches.

Example response extract

'There is no such variety as Black South African English (BSAE). It is a second language, with second language features.'

The language situation in SA is very complex. English is the first language of about 3.5 million people in a population of over 40 million. English and Afrikaans were the main language of education during apartheid, and English is an important second language and a lingua franca. Kirkpatrick says there are four broad categories of English in SA: White SA English, Indian South African English, Coloured or Mixed Race SA English and Black South African English. BSAE is not usually a first language and it varies depending on the speakers first language and competence in English. Does this mean it is a second language only, or is it a distinct variety?

For my investigation, I researched the language of the political speeches of Nelson Mandela from the 1960s to the present day. Nelson Mandela was an educated man who qualified as a lawyer. His first language was the African language Xhosa. His English, in all the recorded speeches I analysed, was very close to Standard English in lexis and syntax, but with a very different pronunciation. This made me wonder if there was such a thing as South African English. As well as Mandela's speeches, I read SA English newspapers and listened to SA radio. In every case, I was not able to find major differences from UK English, apart from the pronunciation.

However, I have also listened to American English and Australian English, and these are also close to Standard English apart from the pronunciation. Maybe what we decide is a distinct language is based more on politics and culture than on actual language differences.

Summary of the student's conclusions

The student goes on to discuss the main features he observed in Mandela's speeches, using comparisons with current South African politicians to demonstrate that in official/formal situations there were very few differences in lexis and syntax between BSAE and SE. The discussion was supported by examples from key language frameworks, particularly phonology. He concludes that, given the historical, social and political background, BSAE has as much a claim to be a distinct variety as American English.

Case study 2: Language and Journalism: opinion articles

Example investigation focus

This student decided to investigate the representation of gay men in opinion articles over time and looked at editorials in the *London Evening News* about the Oscar Wilde trials, 1980s editorials about Aids in the UK, and editorials about the changes in the law to allow gay marriage. This topic opened up a series of sub-questions relating to the different stances of particular publications and online sites, and ways in which negative views can be camouflaged via presupposition and implicature.

Example response extract

'Journalism today is becoming too opinionated and offensive.'

For my investigation, I looked at opinion articles reporting on gays and homosexuality. I chose this topic because attitudes to gay people have changed a lot in the past 100 years and I wanted to see if opinion articles had changed. I chose to look at reports of the trial of Oscar Wilde in 1895, opinion articles during the first AIDS epidemic in the 1980s, and reports about the change in the law to allow gay marriage. I expected to find that opinion articles were less prejudiced against gays but I found that a lot of prejudice still exists. In the Oscar Wilde reports, homosexual sex was still a crime and the reports are very hostile. It was no longer a crime by the 1980s but the reports are still hostile. There is less hostility in the 2013 reports, but my argument is that opinion articles in some cases are too opinionated and offensive but they can hide their offensiveness by pretending to make reasonable points.

I plan to look at some findings I made using a language corpus to analyse the article and also to look at implicature and pre-supposition in the recent articles to support the statement 'Journalism today is becoming too opinionated and offensive.'

Summary of the student's conclusions

The student goes on the identify aspects of language – particularly the lexis: naming, use of adjectives, choice of verb – used to slant the articles in a particular direction. He also looks at pragmatic aspects of the language used, particularly presupposition and implicature. He uses a corpus tool to analyse word choice and collocation in his selected data and uses these findings to comment on general trends in his data ('An analysis of the data using a corpus tool found that negative words and phrases preceded the words for homosexual men, and that the word "gay" collocated with more negative terms in the newspapers of the 1980s than in the late 19th century or in 2014.')

He expected to find more hostility to homosexuals in earlier articles and less in the most recent. Interestingly, his conclusions were that modern comment articles were more dangerously opinionated and offensive because they concealed their offensiveness behind word choice, presupposition and implicature, rather than give an overt expression of their views.

Assessment

Component 3: Investigating Language	*Paper code: 9EN0/03
Subtopics pre-released in January before examination. Written examination consisting of **two** sections. Students answer **two** questions on their chosen subtopic. **Section A: one** question on unseen data. Students must answer the question on the subtopic they have researched (AO1, AO2, AO3 assessed). **Section B: one** evaluative question. Students must answer the question on the subtopic they have researched and must make connections with data from their investigation. Students produce an extended response (AO1, AO2, AO3, AO4 assessed). ● First assessment: May/June 2017. ● The assessment is 1 hour 45 minutes. ● The assessment consists of 45 marks – Section A is 15 marks and Section B is 30 marks.	25% of the total qualification

3.5 Coursework: Crafting Language

Content

This coursework component has been designed to allow students to pursue their own interests and demonstrate their skills as writers, crafting their own original texts for different audiences and purposes.

From speaking to you, we know how important it was to you that creative writing was kept as a coursework component, to ensure students have the opportunity to develop their skills as writers through the drafting process. Students will become even more acutely aware of this as they develop two pieces of writing in the same genre, yet with different intended audiences and/or purposes. They will reflect on the decisions they have made during the drafting process in order to 'craft' their language by creating a commentary on both pieces of original writing.

For this component, students will study the distinctive features of a variety of genres (for example feature articles, journalist interviews, speeches, scripted presentations, dramatic monologues, short stories and travel writing). They will identify and examine texts that exemplify key features of their chosen genre (style models) and investigate the effects of different language choices and discourse strategies for different contexts.

They will then complete two assignments. For the first assignment they will produce two pieces of writing in this genre differentiated by function and/or audience (advisory total word count 1500–2000 words). The second assignment will consist of a commentary (1000 words) in which they reflect on their language choices in both pieces of writing.

The following pages identify a number of genres and give examples of differentiated tasks which could be used as models for students' coursework submissions. They also include some suggestions for approaching the commentary. It should be stressed that this is not intended to be a definitive guide: it is just one suggested approach to teaching this component – you will of course find what works for you and your students.

Example topics/genres

Example 1: travel writing

Students should begin by researching travel journalism in a range of journals and periodicals (see below for suggestions). They should identify different audiences and make notes on how their language choices and discourse strategies are influenced by contextual factors.

Students could then consider the *Guardian* newspaper's 2013 Travel Writing competition (www.theguardian.com/travel/2013/sep/13/guardian-travel-writing-competition-2013). This competition offered the following categories for entries:

- A Big Adventure
- A Journey
- Historic Site
- Culture
- Wildlife
- UK Holiday
- Family.

These categories from the competition could be used as a starting point for writing a piece or pieces of travel journalism.

Differentiation by audience

Some possible audiences for travel writing are:

- 18–25 year olds
- young couples
- retired singles
- families.

Students could choose an audience from the list above (or suggest others) and research their requirements.

Piece 1: young people 18–25 years. A travel piece based on 'An Encounter' aimed at young backpackers planning an itinerary for a gap year.

Piece 2: retired people. A travel piece aimed at retired couples and singles under the heading 'Culture' or 'Historic site' focusing on a particular historical or cultural location.

Differentiation by purpose

As above, students should study various forms of travel writing where the primary purpose is to inform readers who may be considering travelling to the areas being covered (eg the examples given above from the broadsheet press and similar journals).

They should also look at examples of travel writing where the primary purpose is to entertain rather than to inform potential visitors.

Piece 1: writing primarily to inform. A travel piece for a specific audience chosen from the list above, informing them about the positive and negative aspects of travelling to a particular part of the world.

Piece 2: writing primarily to entertain. An account of a place in which the objective is to interest and amuse a general audience rather than to outline the facilities on offer to tourists. The place described may not necessarily be an exotic destination but could be a little-known place which the writer is able to present in an interesting and engaging way.

Potential style models

Writing primarily to inform:

- *Daily Telegraph* – www.telegraph.co.uk/travel/
- *The Times* – www.thetimes.co.uk/tto/travel/
- *The Guardian* – www.theguardian.com/travel
- *The Independent* – www.independent.co.uk/travel/
- The Lonely Planet – www.lonelyplanet.com/

Writing primarily to entertain:

- Bill Bryson: *Bill Bryson's African Diary*
- Bill Bryson: *Notes from a Small Island*
- Karl Pilkington: *An Idiot Abroad*

Example 2: scripted presentation

Here the genre is a script for a talk/presentation to be delivered by the author to a specified group of people. The emphasis will be on preparing a talk which will communicate effectively with a listening audience. Where appropriate, the student will be expected to specify any visual aids required to make the presentation effective.

Differentiation by audience

Piece 1: A level students. Prepare a short presentation intended for an audience of A level humanities students about a particular area of language study, for example a survey of the principal theories of language acquisition.

Piece 2: parents. Choose an area of language study which would have relevance to a group of parents of young children (eg 'How to talk to your child', 'How children learn to talk', 'How to help your child learn to read'). Prepare a short presentation to inform parents about how understanding of language acquisition could help them to encourage their children's language learning.

Differentiation by purpose

Piece 1: writing primarily to inform and advise. Research the range of choices available to students leaving sixth form or further education. Prepare a presentation to inform a group of Year 12/13 students on the choices available to them. The talk might include a survey of types of higher education courses, internships, and the advantages and disadvantages of taking a gap year. The presentation should not advocate any particular route but instead should give listeners enough information to investigate further and to begin to consider alternatives.

Piece 2: writing to persuade. Research a range of views expressed in response to Russell Brand's interview on *Newsnight* in which he expressed his disillusion with the current state of politics and suggested that there was little point in voting in the present system. (See also www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2013/nov/05/russell-brand-democratic-system-newsnight) Write a presentation designed to put the case either for or against the view that in the present system there is no point in young people voting.

Potential style models

TED (www.ted.com/talks) is an excellent source of models for short talks. Some effective examples are listed here.

On language topics:

● www.ted.com/talks/erin_mckean_redefines_the_dictionary

Persuasive Pieces:

● www.ted.com/talks/al_gore_s_new_thinking_on_the_climate_crisis

Informative:

● www.ted.com/talks/jill_bolte_taylor_s_powerful_stroke_of_insight

Another effective of an effective informative short talk is www.youtube.com/watch?v=iCvmsMzlF7o

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Example 3: lifestyle journalism – feature article

This genre involves writing a feature article aimed at the lifestyle pages of a newspaper or magazine.

Differentiation by audience and purpose

Piece 1: writing to inform a local audience. Research local publications and identify a suitable local person with relevant local experience to interview. Record an interview with the subject and transcribe the results.

Write a piece for a local newspaper (or other local publication) introducing the interviewee as someone of significance locally and write up the interview. The article may include reference to local concerns and local knowledge.

Piece 2: writing to inform and persuade a national audience. Research a significant and/or controversial figure from recent history (for example Tony Blair or Margaret Thatcher). Do not try to create or recreate an interview with this person but, using the information available, write an article to coincide with a significant anniversary (eg the 20th anniversary of Blair coming to power, the anniversary of Thatcher's death) which will reflect on and reassess their contribution to national life.

Example 4: narrative fiction

Students should read a wide range of short fiction aimed at different audiences and written using a variety of styles and techniques.

Differentiation by audience and purpose

Piece 1: writing to entertain adults. A short story with a strong element of suspense and tension, featuring some element of the supernatural and aimed predominantly at adult readers.

Piece 2: writing to amuse children/young adults. An amusing 'spooky' story for children aged 9–14 featuring some elements of the supernatural and the ghostly.

Possible style models

Adult supernatural: Edgar Alan Poe, Stephen King, Roald Dahl.

General: William Trevor, Alice Monro, Lydia Davies.

Children: Paul Jennings, Roald Dahl, Philip Pullman

Podcasts:

● http://soundcloud.com/newyorker

● www.bbc.co.uk/podcasts/series/nssa

Example 5: dramatic script

Students should read a wide range of scripts aimed at different audiences and written using a variety of styles and techniques.

Differentation by audience and purpose

Piece 1: to entertain adults. A script either of a sketch or a monologue for stage, film or TV that is intended to entertain an audience of adults.

Piece 2: to inform and engage secondary students. A script including short sketches designed for secondary students to raise awareness of an issue relevant to this age group, such as tackling bullying or how 'everyday sexism' affects young women.

Possible style models

Alan Bennett: *Talking Heads*

Hugo Blick: *Up in Town*

Harold Pinter: *Plays 4*

www.tes.co.uk/teaching-resource/Teachers-TV-Always-the-Teacher-Never-the-Bride-6045762/

http://arlenehutton.com/wp-content/uploads/2012/09/Hutton-_I-DREAM-BEFORE_2012.pdf

Commentary guidance

For this specification, students are required to write a single commentary of a maximum of 1000 words reflecting on the two pieces of coursework they have submitted. The commentary should be succinct. It should explain the choice of

particular techniques for the stated genre, purpose and audience. It should use some precise linguistic terminology with, where appropriate, reference to the study of concepts and issues. The commentary must adequately address both crafted pieces.

It is important that students take the opportunity to comment on the use of style models in their commentaries. Analysis of style models is part of the research students will undertake as preparation for this component, and the students will be expected to make connections between their own work and the style models they have used in their commentaries. A careful study of the Assessment Objective grids for the commentary will show that at every level bullet points two and four (AO2 and AO4) require students to discuss style models either in terms of language use or in terms of connections between style models and the student's own writing.

Successful commentaries will:

● include critical application of linguistic analysis using linguistic terminology where appropriate and using good written expression and effective organisation

● show that the student is able to apply a range of linguistic concepts and issues to their own texts and to the stimulus materials

● comment effectively on contextual factors which contribute to the organisation of texts, such as purpose, genre and audience

● discuss connections between their own work and the stimulus texts and between their own individual pieces.

Referencing and bibliographies

Students need to acknowledge the work of others when they make reference to it in their coursework. This reference may be a direct quotation or it may refer to ideas that they have come across in their reading.

The referencing system suggested here is the Harvard System, which is used in most higher education institutes. Students can find out more here: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Parenthetical_referencing

Students do not need to put together very lengthy bibliographies or make constant references to theorists in the field. Only relevant references need to be made.

How to make references to the work of others

If you are referring to the author by name, put the date of the publication in brackets after the name. For example:

Reah (2002) says that, 'The headline is a unique type of text.'

If you do not name the author as you refer to what they have said, put the author's name and date at a suitable point in the section. For example:

Newspaper readers do not have as clear a profile as individual newspapers like to suggest (Reah 2002)

If you are quoting from published work in your own work, you must put the quoted section in speech marks and, if it is several lines long, separate it from your own text by indentation.

Acknowledge the quotation and give a page number so that a reader of your work can trace the quote directly. For example:

On the matter of manipulation of opinion, Reah (2002, p. 85) says:

> *These depictions detract from the serious news issues and turn these tragedies of both individuals and of our society into 'stories'.*

How to write a bibliography

List the books or articles you have referred to in your work, as well as any books or articles that you have used in the course of your research that have given you ideas or influenced your opinions.

These should be listed in alphabetic order by the author's surname.

Books

When you list books, include the following:

- author(s) surname(s) and initials
- year of publication of edition used
- full title of book
- edition of book
- publisher.

The examples below show how you should write your references for one, two or more authors:

Reah, D. (2002) *The Language of Newspapers*, 2nd edition. Routledge

Carter, R. and Long, M. N. (1987) *The Web of Words*, Cambridge University Press

Chapters of edited books

For chapters of edited books, give the following information:

- chapter author(s) surname(s) and initials
- year of publication of chapter
- title of chapter
- first name and surname of editor – put 'ed' after the last name
- Book details as above.

For example:

Fishman, J. A. (1972) The Sociology of Language, in P. P. Giglioli (ed.) (1972) *Language and Social Context*, Penguin

Journals

When listing journals, you should include these details:

- author(s) surname(s) and initials
- year of publication
- title of article
- name of journal in italics
- volume number
- issue number in brackets
- page numbers (first and last pages).

For example:

Storie, D. (2007) Exploring litblog: how literary blogging can be used to guide readers in the selection of new books. *English in Education*, 41(1), pp. 37–50

Websites

When listing a website you have used you should include:

- the author or organisation
- the date of publication
- the title of the website
- the website address
- the date you accessed it.

For example:

The Guardian (2012) Oilseed rape's yellow outburst amid traditional Somerset levels scenery, www.theguardian.com/environment/2012/jun/11/brue-valley-somerset-oilseed-rape [accessed 2 December 2014].

Assessment

Coursework: Crafting Language	*Code: 9EN0/04
Assessment consists of **two** assignments. **Assignment 1**: **two** pieces of original writing from the same genre, differentiated by function and/or audience (AO5 assessed). **Assignment 2**: **one** commentary, reflecting on the two pieces of original writing produced and making connections with research undertaken (AO1, AO2, AO3, AO4 assessed). Advisory word counts: ● total for assessment – 2500–3000 words ● Assignment 1 – 1500–2000 words ● Assignment 2 – 1000 words. ● First moderation: May/June 2017. ● This assessment is internally assessed, externally moderated. ● The assessment consists of 50 marks – Assignment 1 is 30 marks and Assignment 2 is 20 marks. ● Assignments must be submitted at the end of the course.	20% of the total qualification

4. AS level English Language

4.1 Introduction

The revised AS level specification is made up of two components, both externally assessed.

Component 1	Language: Context and Identity	50%	Externally assessed
Component 2	Child Language	50%	Externally assessed

4.2 Component 1: Language: Context and Identity

Content

This component has been designed to be entirely co-teachable with the A level content. In this component students will explore the ways in which language varies, depending on the contexts of production and reception.

There are two sections to the component:

- **Section A: Language and Context** focuses on how context affects language choices
- **Section B: Language and Identity** focuses on how language choices can reflect and create identities.

Understanding the effect of context on language use is intrinsic to students' ability to explore and evaluate all data they meet during the course of an A level in English Language. This aspect is specifically assessed at AS level to ensure that all students have a solid grounding in this important aspect of language study.

By concentrating on what language does and how it varies to perform different functions, teaching can build on students' prior knowledge from GCSE and on their experience as language users.

Section A: Language and Context

This section introduces students to how language is used in written, spoken or multimodal data from 19th-, 20th- and 21st-century sources. Students will explore how the contexts of production and reception affect language choices.

Students will need to be familiar with how language varies depending on:

- **mode**: the method of communication (spoken, written, multimodal). This can also include the text type or genre, for example phatic language, advertisement, journalism etc
- **field**: what the text is about. This may include the use of specialist or non-specialist language. Particular occupations, professions or areas of interest have their own specialised vocabulary, sometimes referred to as 'jargon'
- **function**: the intended purpose of the text. Depending on the function, social language or language to inform or persuade might be used
- **audience**: the intended recipients. This includes the relationship (or assumed relationship) between speaker/hearer or writer/reader. This can include synthetic personalisation, the standing between the participants and the stance adopted by the writer/speaker.

Register can be defined as language used for a particular purpose in a particular social context and will vary according to the contextual factors listed above.
A register has its own distinctive configuration of linguistic features at some or all of the key language frameworks:

- phonetics, phonology and prosodics
- graphology
- lexis and semantics
- grammar
- discourse.

Paper 1, Section A is the only section in the AS where AO4 ('explore connections across texts') is assessed. Teachers should focus on developing students' ability to make purposeful connections across texts, exploring the effect of context on the language used in the data.

Section B: Language and Identity

This section is very similar to the A level content for Paper 1, Section A. However, in the AS paper students will only respond to one piece of data and, therefore, will not be required to make connections with another item of data.

In this section students will explore how writers and speakers present themselves to their audiences, constructing identities through their language choices in spoken, written or multimodal 21st-century data.

Some aspects of an individual's unique language choices (**idiolect**) that both reflect and construct their personal identity or identities (personas) include:

- geographical factors (**dialect**)
- social factors (**sociolect**), including gender, age and ethnicity.

Assessment

Component 1: Language: Context and Identity *Paper code: 8EN0/01	
Written examination consisting of **two** sections. **Section A: Language and Context** **One** question on a small set of thematically linked unseen data. Students produce an extended comparative response (AO1, AO3, AO4 assessed). **Section B: Language and Identity** **One** question on unseen 21st-century data. Students produce an extended response (AO1, AO2, AO3 assessed). ● First assessment: May/June 2016. ● The assessment is 1 hour 30 minutes. ● The assessment consists of two questions – one per section. ● The assessment consists of 50 marks – 25 marks per section.	50% of the total qualification

4.3 Component 2: Child Language

Content

This component has been designed to be entirely co-teachable with the A level Component 2: Child Language. Please see Section 3.3 of this *Getting Started* guide for content guidance. However, whereas A level students will be unable to predict the type of data (spoken or written) they will be given in the examination, AS students will have the certainty that the first question will always focus on written data and the second question will always focus on spoken data.

Question 1: Responding to written data

As there is no coursework component in the AS, it is necessary to assess AO5 ('expertise and creativity in the use of English') in the examination. We have therefore added a 'real life' writing task to the child language paper; AS students will always explore the 'written' data in a 'creative' response.

As well as developing their understanding of concepts and issues related to children's writing, students will develop their own ability to craft their writing for different forms, functions and audiences.

Some examples of forms, functions and audiences that students might explore are:

- forms – articles, talks, reports
- functions – to inform, to explain, to persuade
- audiences – students, parents, non-linguists.

If you are co-teaching AS and A level students, this focus on creative writing will be excellent preparation for A level students' coursework.

AO5 is only assessed in Question 1.

Question 2: Responding to spoken data

AS students will show their ability to analyse spoken data, and their understanding of key concepts and issues, in a formal extended-essay response.

Assessment

Component 2: Child Language	*Paper code: 8EN0/02
Written examination consisting of two questions. **Question 1:** creative response to **one** short piece of unseen written data (AO2 and AO5 assessed). **Question 2:** extended response to **one** longer set of unseen spoken data (AO1, AO2, AO3 assessed). • First assessment: May/June 2016. • The assessment is 1 hour 30 minutes. • The assessment consists of two questions. • The assessment consists of 50 marks – Question 1 is 20 marks and Question 2 is 30 marks.	50% of the total qualification

5. Planning

5.1 AS and A level co-teachability

The AS and A level English Language courses have been designed to be entirely co-teachable, with **the same set teaching topics** at both AS and A level. Please note that AS and A level content will be assessed to a different standard, appropriate to the level of study.

Students who sit the AS examination and then continue to the full A level will be assessed on their AS content again, at the end of their course of study, but at the A level standard.

Please see the Sample Assessment Materials for examples of the different question structures.

Teachers who will not be entering students for the AS examination are welcome to approach the course content in any order. An example of a two-year course plan for a co-taught AS and A level class can be seen below. Further examples of course planners for different delivery options can be found on the Edexcel website.

Content for the delivery of a co-taught AS and A level cohort	
Year 1	**Year 2**
- Language in Context - Language and Identity - Child Language	- Variation over Time - Research and investigation skills - Crafting Language coursework
Teachers may wish to begin preparation for the coursework with A level two-year students towards the end of Year 1, while the AS students prepare for their AS examinations.	

5.2 Co-teaching FAQs

Q: If students sit their AS exams, do their results carry forward to their final A level grade?

A: No. AS and A level are separate qualifications, so the AS results do not contribute to the A level grades.

Q: Can students sit AS exams and then continue into the second year and sit A level exams too?

A: Yes. The students would be assessed at the end of Year 1, at AS standard, on the AS content. They would then be assessed at the end of the second year at A level standard, on the full A level content. This means that they would be assessed on the content they had already covered in their AS exams, only to a higher standard.

For example, students would study the Language and Identity content and sit AS Paper 1 at the end of Year 1. They would then sit A level Paper 1 at the end of Year 2 on the same content, as well as their A level-only content. (For the differences in the question structures, please refer to the SAMs.)

Q: Can students decide to continue to A level study after receiving their AS results?

A: Yes. However, bear in mind that results are not known until August and the AS exams will be in May/June. Students may need to continue with the course until the end of the academic year so that, in the event that they want to continue into

Year 2 following their results, they have not missed out on any post-AS exam taught content or summer holiday work.

Q: Can all of the students be entered for AS as a progress check or as an indicator of their abilities for university applications purposes, for example?

A: Yes, you can choose to enter all students for the AS examinations as a matter of course, and then return to their AS content in Year 2 to review and bring them to the required A level standard.

Q: Can we ignore AS altogether and just focus on a two-year linear A level course?

A: Yes. If you do not wish to make entries for AS level, you can then teach the course content in any order.

Q: Can we decide halfway through the first year that some students will sit the AS after all?

A: Yes, but remember that if you have not organised the course to put AS content into Year 1 then the students may not have covered all the AS exam content. If you think that you might want students to decide during the course, you should follow a course planner for a co-taught AS and A level cohort. That way, you ensure you have covered the AS content regardless of whether or not you end up having students sit the AS.

6. Assessment guidance

6.1 Assessment Objectives and weightings — A level

Students must:		% in GCE
AO1	Apply appropriate methods of language analysis, using associated terminology and coherent written expression.	24.4
AO2	Demonstrate critical understanding of concepts and issues relevant to language use.	24.4
AO3	Analyse and evaluate how contextual factors and language features are associated with the construction of meaning.	24.4
AO4	Explore connections across texts, informed by linguistic concepts and methods.	15
AO5	Demonstrate expertise and creativity in the use of English to communicate in different ways. *Note: this Assessment Objective must be targeted with at least one of AO2, AO3 or AO4, either in the same task or in two or more linked tasks.*	12
	Total	**100%**

NB: total has been rounded down

6.2 Breakdown of Assessment Objectives — A level

Paper/component	Assessment Objectives					Total for all Assessment Objectives
	AO1	**AO2**	**AO3**	**AO4**	**AO5**	
Paper 1: Language and Variation	8.8%	8.8%	8.8%	8.8%	0%	35%
Paper 2: Child Language	6.6%	6.6%	6.6%	0%	0%	20%
Paper 3: Investigating Language	7%	7%	7%	4%	0%	25%
Coursework: Crafting Language	2%	2%	2%	2%	12%	20%
Total for this qualification	**24.4%**	**24.4%**	**24.4%**	**15%**	**12%**	**100%**

6.3 Assessment Objectives and weightings – AS level

Students must:		% in GCE
AO1	Apply appropriate methods of language analysis, using associated terminology and coherent written expression.	26
AO2	Demonstrate critical understanding of concepts and issues relevant to language use.	28
AO3	Analyse and evaluate how contextual factors and language features are associated with the construction of meaning.	26
AO4	Explore connections across texts, informed by linguistic concepts and methods.	10
AO5	Demonstrate expertise and creativity in the use of English to communicate in different ways. *Note: this Assessment Objective must be targeted with at least one of AO2, AO3 or AO4, either in the same task or in two or more linked tasks.*	10
	Total	100%

6.4 Breakdown of Assessment Objectives – AS level

Paper	Assessment Objectives					Total for all Assessment Objectives
	AO1	AO2	AO3	AO4	AO5	
Paper 1: Language: Context and Identity	16%	8%	16%	10%	0%	50%
Paper 2: Child Language	10%	20%	10%	0%	10%	50%
Total for this qualification	**26%**	**28%**	**26%**	**10%**	**10%**	**100%**

6.5 Assessment Objectives and mark schemes

Below are some examples of the holistic mark schemes, showing how the Assessment Objectives will be interpreted within the mark grids. The grids identify which Assessment Objective is being targeted by each bullet point within the level descriptors. One bullet point is linked to each Assessment Objective.

These examples have been taken from our Sample Assessment Materials, which can be found on our website.

Below is an example from A level Paper 1, Section A in which four AOs are targeted. The question requires students to respond to two pieces of data. As you can see, the bullet points in the bands do not relate to a specific mark: the descriptors are used to firstly locate the correct band for the students work, and then to select the appropriate mark from within the band.

		AO1 = bullet point 1	AO2 = bullet point 2	AO3 = bullet point 3	AO4 = bullet point 4
Level	**Mark**	**Descriptor (AO1, AO2, AO3, AO4)**			
	0	No rewardable material.			
Level 1	1–6	**Descriptive** ● Knowledge of methods is largely unassimilated. Recalls limited range of terminology and makes frequent errors and technical lapses. ● Knowledge of concepts and issues is limited. Uses a descriptive approach or paraphrases with little evidence of applying understanding to the data. ● Lists contextual factors and language features. Makes limited links between these and the construction of meaning in the data. ● Makes no connections between the data.			
Level 2	7–12	**General understanding** ● Recalls methods of analysis that show general understanding. ● Organises and expresses ideas with some clarity, though has lapses in use of terminology. ● Summarises basic concepts and issues. Applies some of this understanding when discussing data. ● Describes construction of meaning in the data. Uses examples of contextual factors or language features to support this. ● Gives obvious similarities and differences. Makes links between the data and applies basic theories and concepts.			

		AO1 = bullet point 1	AO2 = bullet point 2	AO3 = bullet point 3	AO4 = bullet point 4
Level	**Mark**	**Descriptor (AO1, AO2, AO3, AO4)**			
Level 3	13–18	**Clear relevant application** ● Applies relevant methods of analysis to data with clear examples. Ideas are structured logically and expressed with few lapses in clarity and transitioning. Clear use of terminology. ● Clear understanding and application of relevant concepts and issues to data. ● Explains construction of meaning in data by making relevant links to contextual factors and language features. ● Identifies relevant connections across data. Mostly supported by clear application of theories, concepts and methods.			
Level 4	19–24	**Discriminating controlled application** ● Applies controlled discussion of methods supported with use of discriminating examples. Controls the structure of response with effective transitions, carefully chosen language and use of terminology. ● Discriminating selection and application of a range of concept and issues to the data. ● Makes inferences about the construction of meaning in data by examining relevant links to contextual factors and language features. ● Analyses connections across data. Carefully selects and embeds use of theories, concepts and methods to draw conclusions about the data.			
Level 5	25–30	**Critical and evaluative** ● Presents critical application of language analysis with sustained examples. Uses sophisticated structure and expression with appropriate register and style, including use of appropriate terminology. ● Evaluative application of a wide range of concepts and issues to the data. ● Critically examines relevant links to contextual factors and language features. Evaluates construction of meaning in data. ● Evaluates connections across data. Critically applies theories, concepts and methods to data.			

Below is an example from AS Paper 2, Question 1 in which two AOs are targeted. The question requires students to respond creatively to written data.

		AO2 = bullet point 1	AO5 = bullet point 2
Level	**Mark**	**Descriptor (AO2, AO5)**	
	0	No rewardable material.	
Level 1	1–4	**Recalls information/low skills** • Uses a highly descriptive approach or mainly paraphrases. Little evidence of applying understanding to the data. • Writing is uneven with frequent errors and technical lapses. Shows limited understanding of requirements of audience and function. Presentation of data is formulaic and predictable.	
Level 2	5–8	**Broad understanding/general skills** • Has broad understanding of basic concepts and issues. Applies some of this understanding to the data. • Writing has general sense of direction, with inconsistent technical accuracy. Shows general understanding of audience and function. Some attempt to craft the presentation of data, with general elements of engagement.	
Level 3	9–12	**Clear understanding/skills** • Shows clear understanding of relevant concepts and issues. • Applies this understanding to data in a clear way. • Writing is logically structured with few lapses in clarity. Shows clear understanding of audience and function. Clear awareness of appropriate presentation of data, with some engaging and original elements.	
Level 4	13–16	**Consistent application/skills** • Shows consistent understanding of concepts and issues. Consistently applies this understanding to the data. • Writing is effectively structured and consistently accurate. Consistently applies understanding of audience and function. Presents data in an original and consistently engaging manner.	
Level 5	17–20	**Discriminating application/controlled skills** • Shows understanding of a wide range of concepts and issues. Applies this to the data in a discriminating way. • Writing is controlled and confident throughout, with consistent accuracy. Demonstrates discriminating understanding of audience and function. Crafts data in an assured and original response.	

7. Appendices

7.1 Topic introductions for students

The topic introductions on the following pages have been written by a range of our colleagues in higher education for you to share with your students.

You might want to use these at open evenings or as part of your introductory material for the GCE English Language.

AS and A level Component 1: Language and Identity/Individual Variation

Why is the study of how *language* constructs identity important? Professor Urszula Clark, Professor in English at Aston University, offers this explanation for students.

How we speak is central to our identity and to who we are. We are also far more conscious of the ways we use language than ever before and we're saturated by language wherever we turn. In today's modern world, we hear a range of linguistic varieties spoken on the TV, in films and on websites such as YouTube.

Your identity can be linked to the place you were born and brought up, with words to describe where you're from, such as a *Brummie* if you're from Birmingham. It can also be in the way you pronounce a vowel sound in a word like 'bath'.

In most varieties in the south-east of England, this will be pronounced with a longer 'a' /ɑ/. However, in northern and Midland varieties of English, it is pronounced with a short 'a' /æ/ to rhyme with 'trap'.

Regional variation of this kind is but one way in which we construct our identity. The way you speak at home to relatives, for example, or at work may be different from the way you speak with your friends. We may absorb ways of pronouncing words and using vocabulary in a specific way to mark identity with a friendship group or a sports team. Have you ever noticed how you might suddenly start using the same words differently or using different words with different people? These linguistic features upon which you draw when speaking (and writing) are called *registers*. As individuals, we construct identities for ourselves through the registers we select. We are thus constantly drawing upon or using different registers to construct the version of ourselves that we want people to see and hear.

For example, you may say 'I ain't goin 'ome with you' to a friend but 'Thank you very much, but I'll find my own way home' to an elderly relative. *I ain't goin 'ome with you* draws upon an informal register of the kind we often use with friends and close family of our own age to mark our identity with them. *I ain't* is a more colloquial form of *I'm not*; the *g* is dropped at the end of *goin'* and *h* at the start of *'ome*. Such linguistic features act together to produce this informal register. *Thank you very much, but I'll find my own way home* draws upon a more formal register, with no colloquialisms or *h* dropping at the beginning of the word *home.*

Language plays a crucial part in constructing identity and on many levels, so we can talk of having several identities. Linguistic identity can be individual and also social, used as a powerful means of signalling membership of a specific group, for example among friends at school, at home or in other social groups such as youth groups and sports activities.

We can also construct our identities in writing through the words, or lexis, we choose to write and how we write them. For example, for people of your age, you can communicate with friends through 'textspeak', using abbreviations or acronyms such as *lol*, *txt*, *B4* and so on. Originally devised in the days when mobile phones had restricted characters for text messages, the phenomenon has continued and is now an accepted and regular feature of virtual communication, particularly for people of your age who have grown up using it. How you communicate thus says a great deal about who you are.

The words that we choose to speak or write, and the accent or written form we use to represent them, play a vital part in constructing our identities through language.

A level, Component 1: Variation over Time

If there is such a range of diversity to study in the world of English language today, why should students explore how the English language has developed over time? Dr Mel Evans, lecturer in English language and applied linguistics at Birmingham University, highlights the importance of studying *historical variation*.

As a student of English Language, you will recognise that linguistic variation is everywhere. English differs according to its function, the audience, and the social and cultural contexts of its users, be it the English used for Twitter, print advertising or blogs. However, linguistic variation is not limited to the present-day. Variation is a defining characteristic of modern English throughout time, from the reign of Queen Elizabeth I to the present day.

The study of historical variation opens a window on the lives of past users of English, revealing their social circumstances and cultural values. We can see this, for example, in the expansion of the English lexicon. As technology advanced and English speakers explored the globe, terms such as *coffee* (Arabic; first recorded 1598), *aardvark* (South African Dutch; first recorded 1785) and *radio* (Greek; first recorded 1920) entered the language to enable English speakers to discuss their new experiences.

The examination of language variation and prescriptive processes exposes the connection between language, identity and power throughout English's history. Why, for example, is Present Day Standard English based on a variety of English used in London and the south-east, and not Barnsley or Penzance? The analysis of historical variation in its social context provides explanations, such as that the people in power (government) and the publishers of written texts predominantly used the variety of English of the south-east region from the 16th century onwards.

One consequence of linguistic variation is language *change*: the 'evolution' of linguistic levels such as morphology or spelling over time. By looking at texts from different periods and genres, it is possible to see these changes in action. Take, for example, the shift from the third-person singular verb ending *–eth* (eg 'He runneth', used in Shakespeare's time) to the now-standard *–s* (eg 'He runs') by the 18th century. Notably, the change occurred more quickly in informal and speech-like texts, such as letters, and more slowly in formal and conservative texts, like the bible. So when present day headlines, such as the *Guardian*'s 2001 'World Cup runneth over', use an *–eth* ending, the journalists are drawing on a long-standing stylistic association with formal genres that resulted from this change.

It is only by studying historical variation that the properties of Present Day Standard English can be truly appreciated.

AS and A Level Component 2: Child Language

We know from our discussions with teachers that this has been a favourite topic of A level English Language students. Dr Ruth Payne, lecturer in linguistics at Leeds University, introduces why this might be the case.

Children's acquisition of language is one of the most astonishing and complex things they do, and it is achieved without any formal teaching. Incredibly, much of it is also completed by the time children are just five years old. The patterns in children's language learning are so clear that we are able to predict what will happen next, as well as to understand what might have gone wrong when children don't hit the familiar milestones.

One example of these patterns can be seen in the way children acquire the plural 's' ending in English, with the famous example of a 'wug' to show how it's done. Children who are learning to speak English will know that if there are two of these creatures, they will be called *wugs* – not *wugses* (like 'foxes'), not *wugren* (like 'children') but *wugs*. What that tells us is that children spot common patterns very early on. They are so good at it that they don't know when to stop, so it is very common to hear small children refer to such things as 'sheeps'!

Through our understanding of a range of theoretical models, we are able to make sense of this exciting process and explain the different stages of acquisition each child experiences. We also understand that, although adults don't formally teach children how to speak, they do play a key role in the way children learn to interact in a social way. It is through interaction with other speakers that children learn fundamental things, such as when it's their turn to speak, as well as more complicated ideas about what is considered to be polite.

In this component you will explore the whole range of components children encounter as part of their acquisition of language, from birth up to eight years of age. You will actually understand these details so well that when you are asked to analyse a sample of children's language you will be able to comment on the stage of learning each child has reached, as well as being able to suggest what will happen next in their development. On top of that, you will understand the inaccuracies in children's language. For example, you will learn why children commonly tell us that they 'wented' to the park or that they 'goed' swimming, and you will learn the stage in the progress at which we might expect them to sort these issues out. You will also find out how caregivers rarely correct children's language inaccuracies, meaning that children actually figure out what's going on in language all by themselves.

Once children have conquered speech, we expect them to learn how to write. Children have to learn specific motor skills associated with writing and with holding a pen or pencil, as well as learning cultural conventions about the use of capital letters, and the direction and linear aspects of written forms. When babies are first acquiring speech, they 'babble'; when children are first acquiring writing, they scribble, so that messy crayon art parents stick on the fridge has a purpose! It is only much later on that older children begin to gain understanding of how to make their writing interesting and informative for other people to read. And if you struggled with spelling when you were younger, then this component will help you understand how children make links between the sounds of language and the ways in which they are represented on the page.

Whatever your interests are, you cannot help but be fascinated by this remarkable aspect of human development.

A level Component 3: Investigating Language

Dr Mercedes Durham, lecturer in sociolinguistics at Cardiff University, introduces the world of research.

One of the most exciting aspects of English language study is the opportunity to do original research: collecting and analysing data, comparing your results to previous studies, drawing conclusions and offering interpretations. Conveniently, most of the data we need is at our fingertips, or rather on the tips of our tongues: whether talking to friends, listening to people on the train, reading newspapers or surfing the internet, we are constantly processing and creating language – spoken, signed or written.

The Investigating Language component of the English Language A level allows you to devise your own mini research project in one of five areas: Global English, Language and Gender Identity, Language and Journalism, Language and Power, or Regional Language Variation. You may be asked to examine what makes your own local variety of English distinctive, or whether women and men really use language differently and how this can be related to power structures in society. You might compare the use of a particular linguistic feature in different types of newspapers and find out if it is used differently, or perhaps study how (and why) English is spoken in different countries across the world.

Rather than just making you read and memorise facts, this component puts the learning squarely in your hands. As any researcher would, you choose a topic and form a hypothesis, review the existing literature and use what you have covered in other components to do your analysis and then draw inferences. The need to draw links is one of the things that make this component so important: concepts covered elsewhere on the course come into sharper focus and become more relevant.

My students at university always find conducting their own research projects one of the most challenging but ultimately rewarding aspects of the subject. They come to understand the intricacies of English language research better because they know from experience what it involves. I hope you enjoy it as much as they do!

A level Coursework: Crafting Language

Dr Ruth Payne, lecturer in linguistics at Leeds University, explores the potential of 'crafting language'.

Skilled writers seem to control language so effortlessly that it can come as quite a surprise to learn they go through draft after draft of their work in their quest to express their ideas. Many writers produce the same sentence over and over again before settling on the one we end up reading.

Like a skilled chef, the great writer prepares language that will be appreciated, sensitive at all times to the wishes and needs of her audience and their palates, aware always of the reason she is writing and the ways in which her work will be consumed. Should she adopt the light-hearted register of writing to amuse and entertain, or the solemn notes of consolation? Is her purpose to convince readers to share a particular point of view, or to help them understand how something works? When considering her audience, should she regard them as people who already understand her topic, or as readers who need to be gently introduced to sensitive ideas? Most importantly, is she able to explain what she has written and how she has accounted for these crucial threads in the writer–reader interface?

Different genres of writing rely on different types of interplay between audience and purpose. Subtle differences in the aims of the writer will affect how each piece of writing is constructed. You will already have an understanding of key genres from your work for GCSE, but now you will be asked to articulate your understanding of how language is gently crafted to produce different effects; stylistic choices are crucial in constructing texts.

Take these three examples of the opening words from public speeches. We can clearly see the way the authors engage with their different audiences and how they reflect very different purposes.

1   Holiday time, ladies and gentlemen! Holiday time, my friends across the Atlantic! Holiday time, when the summer calls …

2   Thank you. Thank you very much. It's an honour to be here. With me. I would imagine.

3   I am the first accused. I hold a bachelor's degree in arts and practised as an attorney …

You will notice how the first speaker draws on shared understanding of summertime in the direct address to the audience. The repetition of 'holiday time' pushes the point forward, and the use of exclamation marks makes this appear to be an uplifting speech about enjoyment and relaxation. After all, the focus is on holiday time.

The second speaker begins in a humble, appreciative way, but the honour is turned back on the audience when the speaker suggests it is they who benefit from his presence, rather than the other way around. The unexpectedness of this twist is comedic; the focus is on the occasion.

The third speaker seems more intense, more purposeful in the way he asserts his credentials, and he is certainly anxious to be regarded as an educated and upstanding person because he refers to qualifications that are valued in western culture. The use of the first person 'I' tells us that the focus is clearly the speaker.

If you don't know these opening words, you should be curious to know more about these speeches. The first is Winston Churchill, appealing to America a few short weeks before the outbreak of the Second World War; the focus on summer

holidays is intended to remind people of the way in which the First World War began at a similar time of year and to show people they shouldn't be complacent. The second speaker is Mark Zuckerberg, founder of Facebook, encouraging students to follow their dreams but not to try to compete with him! And the last speaker is Nelson Mandela, speaking at his trial on charges of sabotage in 1964. He was found guilty and imprisoned for 26 years.

These very different effects and purposes are captured here entirely in language. Nothing but words are used to create the impact of these opening lines, and each syllable will have been considered, written, rewritten and polished before it was ever shared with an audience; that is what we mean when we talk about 'crafting language'.

AS Component 1: Language and Context

Dr Christian Jones, lecturer in applied linguistics at the University of Central Lancashire, explains why *context* is key to our explorations of language.

It is normally the case that we can best understand language by viewing it in context. As an example of this, look at the short transcript of a conversation below and consider who might be talking and what they could be talking about.

1A: Right, what do you mean by equal society?
2B: Equal minded.
3A: Equal minded … mmm… what does that mean?
4B: Like, non-biased I put.
5C: Non-biased means what?

This is an excerpt from a transcript of a discussion between secondary school pupils (QCA, 2004), discussing and ranking who may qualify as the Greatest Briton.

You probably recognised this as a real conversation because it contains features of language which we would expect to find used in a context such as this. The speakers are classmates discussing a topic together at school in the UK. Therefore, the talk is relaxed and informal, the topic is linked to the task and the purpose of the talk is to discuss and decide upon an outcome. This results in features such as an initial discourse marker 'right', which signals that the speaker wishes to start the discussion, ellipsis (leaving words out), such as ' equal minded' because there is no need to over-elaborate, and unconventional word order such as 'non-biased means what'.

Other realisations of the language used are possible of course. The speaker in 2B could have said 'It means equal minded' but this feels unlikely in this context – it sounds over-elaborate and unnecessary. Some may wish to suggest that certain forms in this conversation are examples of poor or lazy usage. This might include the use of 'like' to indicate 'similar to' or 'sort of' in turn 4B. However, this form is entirely normal in this conversation's context and serves a clear purpose. 'Like' is simply a much quicker way of saying 'I think it means something similar to …' Should the pupils have been undertaking the task using a different mode of delivery, perhaps a prepared presentation, then the language would of course have been more deliberate and less likely to contain features such as ellipsis.

This example shows the importance of looking at real spoken or written texts in order to explore language in context, which is the key aim of this AS level. We hope to raise your awareness of how different features of language work together to create messages and how language choices reflect aspects such as the function and mode of any given text. This process is summarised in the diagram.
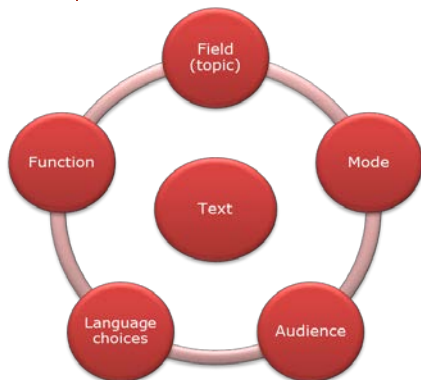
While studying for the AS level, you will explore and discuss a range of texts in class in order to develop this awareness. You can prepare yourself for this by exploring some of the books and websites given in the references listed in Appendix 7.4. However, the best way to develop your own awareness is to develop your own curiosity about language as you experience it yourself. As you read or hear something, try to notice the forms of language being used and ask yourself why the speaker or writer is making the language choices they are. As you do so, you are reflecting on language in context.

7.2 English phonemic reference guide

These tables will be available in the examination when data has been transcribed to show phonetic pronunciation.

Centres should make students aware of these tables as they will be given to them in the examinations.

Vowels					
k**i**t	dr**e**ss	tr**a**p	l**o**t	str**u**t	f**oo**t
ɪ	e	æ	ɒ	ʌ	ʊ
lett**er**	fl**ee**ce	b**a**th	th**ou**ght	g**oo**se	n**ur**se
ə	i:	ɑ:	ɔ:	u:	ɜ:
Diacritics: = length mark. These vowels may be shorter in some accents and will be transcribed without the length mark /:/ in this case.					

Diphthongs							
f**a**ce	g**oa**t	pr**i**ce	m**ou**th	ch**oi**ce	n**ea**r	squ**a**re	c**u**re
eɪ	əʊ	ɑɪ	ɑʊ	ɔɪ	ɪə	eə	ʊə

Consonants					
pip	**b**id	**t**ack	**d**oor	**c**ake	**g**ood
p	b	t	d	k	g
chain	**j**am	**f**ly	**v**ase	**th**ing	**th**is
tʃ	ʤ	f	v	θ	ð
say	**z**oo	**sh**oe	trea**s**ure	**h**ouse	**m**ark
s	z	ʃ	ʒ	h	m
not	si**ng**	**l**ot	**r**ose	**y**et	**w**itch
n	ŋ	l	r	j	w
Glottal stop		Syllabic /l/ bott**le**		Syllabic /n/ fatt**en**	
ʔ		l̩		n̩	

7.3 Teacher guidance on language frameworks and levels

Mark Boardman, founder of The English Language List and Bridge Fellow in English Language and Linguistics at the University of Huddersfield, has developed the following outline of the language frameworks and levels to guide teachers.

While this is not an A level in Linguistics, and is primarily rooted in the study of the English language, it is important that the students learn accurate and consistent terminology for describing and analysing the texts that they will encounter on the course. The course is descriptive and analytical, and does not prioritise aesthetic judgements in the same way as an English Literature course. Therefore, the most appropriate system, for being accurate and consistent in approaching texts, is the set of analytical methods developed by theoretical and applied linguistics.

Below are outlines of the theoretical areas students will be expected to use in describing and analysing texts. This is by no means an exhaustive guide to any of the areas outlined, but it will ensure that students will have covered all of the appropriate language levels.

Phonetics

This is the study of how the human vocal tract produces sound and of the ways these sounds can be recorded and studied. Phonetics is not specific to a particular language: all humans, given normal physical and cognitive development, are capable of producing the same range of speech sounds – and the International Phonetic Alphabet was developed for the accurate recording of this range of sounds.

Students will *not* be expected to learn the IPA, only to recognise where it has been used and why it has been used. For example, you might see IPA symbols in language acquisition data so that when a child gives the utterance [dɪ] for the word 'drink', square bracketed phonetic transcription is used to show that the child is at a stage of phonetic development in which they cannot reproduce consonant clusters.

If examination data makes use of IPA symbols, a key to these symbols will be provided. Most of the complexities of phonetics are outside the scope of A level, but an awareness of its basic principles is essential to an understanding of first and second language acquisition. A speech sound within phonetic study is referred to as a *phone*. Phonetic transcription is presented inside square brackets.

Suggested key concepts:

- International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)
- phone
- speech organs
- consonant
- vowel
- articulation
- voicing
- nasality
- plosive
- fricative.

Phonology

The distinction between a letter and a phoneme illustrates one important difference between written and spoken English. Although there are only 26 letters

(in the written English alphabet), there are 44 phonemes (significant sounds of spoken English). This contributes to the lack of consistency in English spelling as there is not one separate symbol to represent each sound. The dominance of the visual written form also causes a lack of awareness of the way the language actually sounds.

The lack of correlation between written forms and pronunciation is most striking in vowels. The 21 consonant letters correspond quite well to the 24 consonant sounds. But there are only five vowel letters in the alphabet (six if *y* is included) which have to represent 20 vowel phonemes. Thus the same letter is used to represent a number of different sounds, for example:

'a'   mat   mate   mall   mare   clasp   wasp

Conversely, the same sound may be represented by various letter combinations:

/ɔː/   or   core   awe   ought   taught

Phonology deals with how sounds work to create meaning in a particular language or language variety (such as dialect or sociolect). An individual language or language variety will not include all of the sounds the human vocal tract is capable of producing. Also, even if two languages or language varieties share a similar set of sounds, they will not necessarily use these sounds in the same way to create meaning.

An example is the glottal stop in English. The word 'butter' in many accents of English can either be pronounced [bʌtə] or [bʌʔə] where [ʔ] represents a sound called a *glottal stop* and [t] represents a sound called an *alveolar stop*.
The pronunciation with the glottal stop is popularly referred to as 'dropping' the 't' sound in 'butter' and is typical of many urban accents of English, including Manchester and parts of London. Whether one or other of these two sounds is used in the word 'butter' makes no difference to the meaning of the word: whichever pronunciation is used, it is still recognisably the same word.
A *phonological* transcription of the word 'butter' would generally be /bʌtə/ regardless of how the /t/ is pronounced.

In phonological transcription, each symbol represents a *group* of alternative sounds that the language or language variety will allow in that part of the word. This group of sounds is known as a *phoneme*. Phonemes are written in sloping brackets, to indicate that the transcription is phonological rather than phonetic. Phonetics deals in exact recording of everything the vocal tract is doing. Phonology deals in the meaningful sounds of a specific language or variety.

Suggested key concepts:

- minimal pair
- phoneme/letter
- consonant/vowel
- homophones
- glottal stop
- schwa
- allophone
- segment
- word
- accent
- received pronunciation.

Prosody/suprasegmental features

Segments are the lexically significant elements of the utterance, or in simple terms the words including non-fluency features like 'erm'. Where extra meaning is added by stress, rhythm, pitch, intonation and volume, these are referred to as *suprasegmental features.* An example would be where the stress is placed in these lines from *Hamlet*:

> There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio,
> Than are dreamt of in your philosophy.

Depending on the whether the stress is placed on 'your' or 'philosophy', the meaning of the statement is very different. Another example would be the rising intonation at the end of 'You're going home?' which turns a statement into a question without altering any of the words.

Suggested key concepts:

- pitch
- intonation
- stress
- rhythm
- volume.

Lexis

A phoneme is the smallest unit or building block of a word. The four phonemes in 'butter' combine to create what we recognise as a word in English. Linguists will sometimes refer to words as 'lexical items'. Lexis deals with how words enter a language, how words become obsolete and how a child learns words from the early stages of their cognitive and physical development. Lexical analysis is also important in justifying observations about written, spoken or multimodal style and in making judgements about register – for example, the degree of formality in a written, spoken or multimodal text. Lexical choice is one of the features of spoken language that varies in the UK with geographical region and social factors.

Suggested key concepts:

- lexeme
- derivation
- etymology
- neologism
- dialect
- sociolect
- idiolect
- slang
- jargon
- register
- concrete
- abstract
- polysyllabic
- acronym
- abbreviation.

Semantics

Any observation or judgement related to the meaning of a word, and all the subtle differences in meaning between words, comes under semantics. If a word changes its meaning through time, as in the historically shifting meanings of the word 'gay', this is semantic change. When a child moves from an early use of the word 'brum' to mean all vehicles with four wheels and an engine (lexical overextension) to a later stage where they can accurately point to and identify a car and a van, this is semantic development.

Suggested key concepts:

- hyponym
- synonym
- antonym
- types of semantic change
- connotation
- collocation
- metaphor.

Grammar: morphology

A *morpheme* is the smallest part of a word recognised as having meaning. Morphology deals with the structure of words. Two basic types of morpheme are *free* and *bound*. A free morpheme can exist outside the word, as a word in its own right, so that 'help' in the word 'unhelpful' is a free morpheme. The segments 'un' and 'ful', however, are bound morphemes because although they add meaning and we can see how they are related to 'help', they can only exist inside the word. Any observation about the internal structure of a word comes under morphology.

Bound morphemes can also be: inflectional, that is additions to a word to allow it to fit into a specific grammatical contexts and agree with this context in terms of tense, number and/or person (for example cat/cat**s**, walk/walk**ed**); or derivational, that is bringing semantic changes to the word (for example changing word class). In the example 'unhelpful', both *un* and *ful* are derivational morphemes. Other examples include 'dis' (which in some varieties is now a free morpheme), as in respect/**dis**respect, or 'able' as in drink/drink**able**.

Suggested key concepts:

- morpheme
- root
- prefix
- suffix
- plurality
- tense
- person
- derivation.

Grammar: syntax

Here we are dealing with structures created by combining words together: phrases, clauses and sentences. One of the most productive ways in which sentences can be described is in terms of complexity. Syntactic complexity relates largely to the number of clauses per sentence that a text has on average. Sentences can be simple (ie contain only one clause), compound (ie clauses linked together by coordinating conjunctions) or complex (ie containing independent and dependent clauses).

Syntax also covers rules for word order and ways in which different classes of word, such as *noun* and *verb*, can be combined. There is an obvious relationship between syntax and morphology in that, for example, a verb requires different endings according to the noun or pronoun that comes before it, ie I go/he goes.

Suggested key concepts:

- phrase
- modification
- clause
- sentence
- co-ordination
- subordination
- declarative
- interrogative
- imperative
- exclamatory
- modals
- deixis.

Discourse

This is about text types and text structure, and is closely linked to the traditional literary concept of genre. The concept of *mode* is relevant here too: texts that students encounter and study on the course will broadly be spoken, written or multimodal, and each of these text modes will have different discourse conventions – conventions of organisation.

If grammar deals with structure at the level of individual words and sentences, discourse can usefully be seen as structure above the level of the sentence. Two of the most commonly used concepts in analysing written textual discourse are *cohesion* and *coherence*.

Cohesion deals with how sentences link to each other: how we are able to tell that we are not just reading or listening to a series of random sentences. An example would be the two sentences: 'This is my house. I bought it last year.' The pronoun 'it' in the second sentence refers to the noun phrase 'my house' in the first sentence, so that the two sentences are grammatically linked by a principle known as 'anaphoric reference'.

Coherence, on the other hand, is the effect whereby the text creates, lexically and semantically, a world that corresponds to human experience. So if the word 'house' in the first sentence were replaced with the word 'nose', the text would be grammatically cohesive but lack coherence.

Spoken discourse is expected to be similarly cohesive and coherent, but spontaneous speech can also display structural features associated with unplanned exchanges, such as the expectation that an *initiation* should be followed by a *response*. Multimodal texts are often analysed as containing alternating and mixed features of speech and writing, but there is a lot of evidence that multimodal communication is developing unique discourse features of its own.

In their wider reading, students may also encounter the term *discourse* used to mean a type of text typical individuals, groups or organisations use to achieve a specific pragmatic effect. For example, political discourses can be used to assert power, while discourses of gender and sexual orientation can be used to assert solidarity.

Suggested key concepts:

- mode
- linearity
- narrative
- cohesion
- coherence
- exchange structure
- adjacency pair
- overlap
- topic shifts
- framing moves
- non-fluency
- pseudo-speech
- genre convention.

Pragmatics

Lexical meaning and the rules of grammar constitute the *forms* of a language, whereas pragmatics deals with how those language forms are used socially. You encounter someone in a busy corridor and ask them the question: 'Are you going to stand there all day?' The literal *sense* of this is a request for information about the person's movements but its intended *force* is very different. The immediate effect you are looking for is that they move out of the way and stop blocking the corridor. Over a longer period, the social effect of the question might be that the person thinks of you as quite bad tempered and unpleasant. Far from a simple request for information, what has been performed is a *speech act*.

Idiomatic expressions involving similes and metaphors also come under pragmatics. Written texts that are not transactional but created purely for aesthetic effect, such as novels and poems, need to be analysed using concepts from pragmatics. Forms of multimodal communication that have developed over the past 20 years are rapidly creating their own pragmatic norms not seen previously in traditional spoken or written forms.

Suggested key concepts:
- context
- context dependency
- sense
- force
- Grice's maxims
- entailment
- presupposition
- implicature
- politeness
- irony
- phatic talk
- convergence/divergence.

Graphology

Writing systems are artificial and not naturally acquired, unlike spoken language. Graphology in the study of English language is concerned with how the Roman alphabet has been developed as a writing system for English, and how it

continues to be used in print and multimodal forms. The concept of a *typeface* is central to graphology in that different typefaces, such as Times New Roman and Arial, have different pragmatic effects on the reader. In recent years, graphology at A level has also come to be used to refer to aspects of page layout and how pictorial material relates to text on the page. Within first language acquisition, graphology covers early stages in the development of handwriting.

Suggested key concepts:

- grapheme
- typeface
- font
- white space
- logo
- picture.

7.4 Suggested reading

Child language

Armstrong, M. (2006) *Children Writing Stories* (OUP)

Goodman, Y.M. and Prisca, M. (eds) (2007) *Critical Issues in Early Literacy: Research and Pedagogy* (Routledge)

Kress, G. (1996) *Before Writing: Rethinking the Paths to Literacy* (Routledge)

Marsh, J. (ed.) (2005) *Popular Culture, New Media and Digital Literacy in Early Childhood* (Routledge)

Pinker, S. (1995) *The Language Instinct* (Penguin)

Global English

Jenkins, J. (2009) *World Englishes: A resource book for students* (Routledge)

Kirkpatrick, A. (2007) *World Englishes* (Cambridge University Press)

Melchers, G. and Shaw, P. (2011) *World Englishes* (Routledge)

Mesthrie, R. (2010) *Varieties of English*, vols. 2 and 3 (Mouton de Gruyter, Berlin)

Seargeant, P. and Swann, J. (eds) (2011) *English in the World: History, Diversity, Change* (Worlds of English) (Routledge)

Mooney, A. and Evans, B. (2015) *Language, Society and Power: An introduction*, 4th edition (Routledge)

Language and gender

Baker, P. (2008) *Sexed Texts: Language, Gender and Sexuality* (Equinox)

Talbot, M. (2010) *Language and Gender* (Polity Press)

Language of journalism

Finch, G. (2013) *Word of Mouth: A New Introduction to Language and Communication*, 2nd edition (Palgrave Macmillan)

Loughlin, L. (2000) *The Language of Magazines* (Intertext series) (Routledge)

Reah, D. (2002) *The Language of Newspapers*, 2nd edition (Intertext series) (Routledge)

Language and power

Fairclough, N. (2014) *Language and Power*, 3rd edition (Routledge)

Mooney, A. and Evans, B. (2015) *Language, Society and Power: An introduction*, 4th edition (Routledge)

Regional language variation

Barton D. and Hamilton, M. (1998) *Local Literacies: Reading and Writing in One Community* (Routledge)

Beal, J. (2008) *A Handbook of Varieties of English* (Mouton de Gruyter, New York)

Hughes, A., Trudgill, P. and Watt, D. (2012) *English Accents and Dialects: An Introduction to Social and Regional Varieties of English in the British Isles*, 5th edition (Routledge)

Variation over Time

Aitcheson, J. (2000) *Language Change: Progress or Decay* (CUP)

Baugh, A. C. and Cable, T. (2012) A History of the English Language (Routledge)

Graddol, D., Leith, D., Swann, J., Rhys, M. and Gillen, J. (eds) (2007) *Changing English* (Routledge)

Leith, D. (1997) *A Social History of English* (Routledge)

Seargeant, P. and Swann, J. (eds) (2011) *English in the World: History, Diversity, Change* (Worlds of English) (Routledge)

Spufford, M. (1985) *Small Books and Pleasant Histories: Popular Fiction and Its Readership in 17th-century England* (CUP)

Simpson, P. and Mayr, A. (2010) *Language and Power: A resource book for students* (Routledge)

Websites

http://atp.uclan.ac.uk/buddypress/diffusion/?p=736
Thorough exploration of the development of language and gender studies.

www.babelzine.com
Babel Magazine (cutting edge research in Linguistics, aimed at a wide range of language lovers).

www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/p00gx2dt

1996 Reith Lecture by Jean Aitchison, a Professor of Language and Communication in the Faculty of English Language and Literature at the University of Oxford.

www.bl.uk/
The British Library

http://college.heinemann.com/shared/onlineresources/E00654/chapter1.pdf
Link to a section on Scaffolding Literacy Instruction by Adrian Rogers and Emily M. Rogers

www.corpora4learning.net/resources/corpora.html

This page offers short descriptions of the most widely known English language corpora.

www.dialectsarchive.com/
Recordings of varieties of English around the world.

www.englishandmedia.co.uk/emag/
Emagazine is a quarterly subscription magazine, with website for A Level students of English subjects.

www.gutenberg.org/
Project Gutenberg for free ebooks

www.knowledgepresentation.org/BuildingTheFuture/Kress2/Kress2.html
A Gunther Kress presentation on 'Reading Images: Multimodality, Representation and New Media', 2004

http://linguistics-research-digest.blogspot.co.uk/
Summaries of recent articles about linguistics

http://linguistics.sllf.qmul.ac.uk/english-language-teaching
A student site about multicultural London English – loads of examples and transcripts.

www.literacytrust.org.uk
The National Literacy Trust covers a wide range from early years to adult literacy, but has interesting articles and details of resources for the 'Talk to Your Baby' campaign – regularly updated.

www.llas.ac.uk/resources/gpg/2827
An article overviewing the history of language and gender.

http://technonanny.wordpress.com/

Originally available through the Teachit website, this is a blog written by a grandmother to Louise and Spike, who has been following them around with a voice recorder for over a year. (http://www.teachit.co.uk/index.php?CurrMenu=205)

www.ted.com/
Relevant talks on the TED site.

www.universalteacher.org.uk/contents.htm#langa
Includes a range of topics on English language for A level students.