

ENGLISH LANGUAGE A-LEVEL

LANGUAGE LEVELS
BOOKLET

Lexis

Phonology Grammar

GRAPHOLOGY

Discourse Semantics

Pragmatics

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This booklet will take you through the AO1 terminology that you will need to know in terms of your levels of language (these are the different parts of language we need to be aware of).

There are a number of levels of language that you will need to know: lexis, grammar, discourse, semantics, pragmatics, graphology and phonology.

AO1 is a skill that is assessed in both the exam papers and the NEA components of the course so it important you have a secure knowledge of this terminology.

To prepare for studying A Level English Language, work through the activities in this booklet. If you have any questions, make a note of them to ask your teacher in September.

We look forward to starting the course with you!

AO1: Apply appropriate methods of language analysis, using associated terminology and coherent written expression.	
Level 5 9–10	Students will: • apply linguistic methods and terminology, identifying patterns and complexities • guide the reader
Level 4 7–8	Students will: • apply linguistic methods and terminology with precision and detail • develop a line of argument
Level 3 5–6	Students will: • apply linguistic methods and terminology consistently and appropriately • communicate with clear topics and paragraphs
Level 2 3–4	Students will: • use linguistic methods and terminology inappropriately and/or inconsistently • express ideas with organisation emerging
Level 1 1–2	Students will: • quote or identify features of language without linguistic description • present material with limited organisation

Lexis

The level of language consisting of vocabulary, as opposed to grammar or syntax.

Morphemes:

Morphology is the aspect of grammar that refers to grammatical markings. Grammatical markings make and change meanings. Words are made up of morphemes, so before we begin to study lexis, we will have a brief look at morphology.

Morphemes are the smallest unit of meaning in the English language, for example, the 's' ending on nouns can indicate a plural form (one book, two books). They are an element of meaning **smaller than a word**. 'Talked' is made up of two morphemes – 'talk' and 'ed'. The 'ed' here shows us the tense of the word, so adds additional information to the first morpheme, 'talk'. They can often be confused with syllables, but a morpheme is a meaningful unit of a language that cannot be further divided that tells you something about a word. A syllable is a unit of pronunciation and does not tell us anything about a word. For example, the plural 's' is not a whole syllable, but it is a whole morpheme, because it tells us the word is plural, changing the meaning. 'Carrot' has 2 syllables but 1 morpheme, 'cars' has 1 syllable but 2 morphemes. Morphemes often take three forms: prefixes, suffixes and base words. Base words are changed in meaning by adding morphemes to the beginning (prefix) or the end (suffix) of a word. Fill out the table below, which deals with prefixes, with as many words as you can think of with each prefixed morpheme in. Then, based on the list of words you have, see if you can identify what the morpheme means.

Morpheme:	Words:	Meaning:
Anti-	Antibiotic, antipathy, antiseptic, antisocial, anticlimactic, antidote, antimatter, anticlockwise, antifreeze, antibacterial, antiviral, antihistamine, antidepressant.	Against or opposite
Ab-		
Bi-		
Cent-		
Contra-		
De-		
Ex-		

Inter-		
Mono-		
Post-		
Pre-		

Morphemes can be split into two categories:

Unbound morphemes: can stand alone and make sense by themselves. In 'cars', the unbound morpheme is 'car' because it makes sense by itself. The 's' on the end only changes our understanding of how many cars we have.

Bound morphemes: a morpheme that can appear only as part of a larger expression. The plural 's' in 'cars' is the bound morpheme. It is literally bound to the word that it is a part of in terms of its meaning.

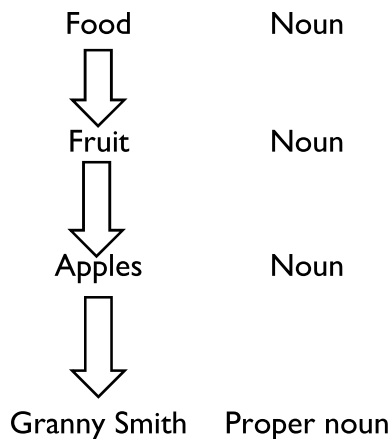
Identify and annotate or highlight the morphemes in the following words, and state whether they are bound or unbound:

Pigs barked motherhood displease cherry taller
 hammer pleased

Summarise your understanding of morphemes below in your own words. Give examples of prefixes and suffixes and explain what a bound and unbound morpheme is.

Nouns

Proper nouns – refer to **specific** people and places: Paris, Andrew, Venus. Proper nouns cannot be split again into any other kind of category, for example:



Complete your own example of splitting words down into a proper noun in the box below:

All other nouns that are not proper nouns are called **common nouns**. These refer to types of places, people and nouns. We subdivide these as follows:

Concrete nouns – refer to things that exist physically: computer, house, dog. List your own examples of eight common, concrete nouns below:

Abstract nouns – refer to things that do not exist physically; feelings, ideas and qualities: friendship, sadness, democracy. List your own examples of eight common, abstract nouns below:

Collective nouns – refer to groups of people, animals or objects: team, family, flock, gaggle, litter, herd. Look up what the collective noun is for these types of creature and write them in the box next to the creature:

porcupines

cubs

dogs

otters

walruses

bacteria

bees

Your task:

Write next to each of these nouns what type of noun they are:

1. Christmas
2. Kid
3. Trauma
4. Parents
5. Existence
6. Flock
7. Cake
8. Herd
9. Paris
10. Computer
11. Oranges
12. Police

Your task: Identify the nouns in this passage and what type they are. Annotate the answers onto the extract.

Something dead strange has happened to Christmas. It's just not the same as it used to be when I was a kid. In fact I've never really got over the trauma of finding out that my parents have been lying to me annually about the existence of Santa Claus.

To me, then, at the age of eleven, Santa Claus was a bit like God, all-seeing, all-knowing, but without the lousy things that God allows to happen: earthquakes, famines, motorway crashes. I would lie in bed under the blankets (how crude the word blankets sounds nowadays when we are all conversant with the Tog rating of continental quilts, my heart pounding and palms sweaty in anticipation of the virgin Beano album.

Adjectives

Adjectives modify nouns, providing more information about them usually by describing them. They can be split in two different ways.

Where does it come in the sentence?

Attributive adjectives: pre-modifying – the **sudden** noise (comes before the noun)

Predicative adjectives: post-modifying - grammar is **brilliant** (comes after the noun)

In the box below, write one sentence that contains a predicative adjective and another that contains an attributive one:

What does it tell you about the noun?

Comparative adjectives: compare one noun to another, even if the other noun does not feature in the sentence e.g. 'The list was bigger than ever.' 'The man was stronger than he had ever been'. They usually end in '-er' but not always.

Superlative adjectives: demonstrates that the adjective is the least or the most. These usually end '-est' and denote extreme ends of a spectrum, e.g. 'biggest', 'strongest' or 'least' 'smallest'.

In the box below, write one sentence that contains a predicative superlative adjective, and one that contains an attributive comparative adjective.

Noun phrases are nouns modified by adjectives that could be replaced by a pronoun. For example, 'the beautiful animal was kept inside a cage' could easily become 'it was kept inside a cage', but 'the beautiful animal' contains a noun that has been modified by an adjective, making it a noun phrase.

Write two sentences containing noun phrases and highlight/underline them.

Verbs

A verb is a word used to describe an action, state, or occurrence, and forming the main part of the predicate (the part of a sentence or clause containing a verb and stating something about the subject) of a sentence, such as *hear*, *become*, *happen*.

There are a lot of types of verb. To identify the verb, you can ask yourself a number of questions.

Can you see it? Are you moving?

Dynamic verbs denote a physical action e.g. running, sleeping. Usually you can physically see this happening. If a text contains a lot of dynamic verbs, this can be worth analysing, as it might suggest a sense that the producer of the text wants you to take some direct, physical action etc.

Stative verbs denote a state of mind e.g. thinking, wondering. Usually you cannot physically see this happening. A lot of stative verbs in a text may indicate that the producer would like you to think deeply about the cause they are writing about, or that they are happy with the status quo and would like it to remain the same.

List as many verbs in either column as you can, aiming for at least five:

Stative verbs	Dynamic verbs

If you are moving, does it require an object to do?

Transitive verbs are dynamic verb that require an object e.g. She kicked the ball.

Intransitive verbs are dynamic verbs that don't require an object e.g. sneeze, laugh, arrive, go, lie, sit and die.

Write two sentences with a dynamic verb in each, one transitive and one intransitive.

Has it got a subject and a tense?

When a verb has a subject and a tense, it can be referred to as a **finite** verb.

She **was waiting** in the room before he **came** in.

Does your brother **know** my brother?

The night before he **had** to leave, they **sat** on the small sofa in the living-room and **looked** at old family photos.

She **tiptoed** round the house so as not to wake anyone.

Will you be wanting dinner today?

Verbs in any other form are non-finite. Typically they are infinitive forms, -ing forms and -ed forms (e.g. going, gone):

She **tiptoed** round the house so as not **to wake** anyone.

You need to paint the whole cupboard, **starting** from the bottom.

Write two sentences: one should have a dynamic finite verb in, and one should have a stative non-finite verb.

The final type of verb we need to know about are **auxiliary verbs**. These are verbs used in forming the tenses, moods, and voices of other verbs. They are used alongside other verbs to help provide more information.

There are two kinds of auxiliary verbs: primary and modal.

The primary auxiliary verbs in English are *be*, *do*, and *have*. These are the only three, but obviously these verbs, when changing tense, become other verbs such as 'is', 'had', 'has' etc.

The modal auxiliaries expresses necessity or possibility. English modal verbs include *must, shall, will, should, would, can, could, may, and might*. Modal verbs are useful in analysing a text because they often set the mood or tone of a sentence, making it clear how the producer is feeling.

Identify ALL of the verb types in these sentences. THEN, focus on the modal verbs. What do each of the modal verbs suggest about the speaker's opinion, tone or mood?

Annotate:

You shall go to the ball	You should probably keep your distance	You must complete your homework by tomorrow	I would be more likely to go if he wasn't going.	Can we go to see the monkeys at the zoo?
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Adverbs

Adverbs modify verbs. A bit like adjectives, they can be pre or post modifying, but we do not refer to them as predicative and attributive. Some of these They are categorised as follows:

Type of adverb	Example	In a sentence
Manner: shows <u>how</u> a verb is being done	Cheerfully, efficiently, painfully, carefully, slowly	The children were happily playing with their toys
Time: shows <u>when</u> a verb is being done	Now, yesterday, soon, later, yet, tomorrow, tonight, already	She'd already gone when we got there
Place: shows <u>where</u> a verb is being done	Off, above, abroad, outside, away, behind, in	His children go everywhere with him
Frequency: shows <u>how often</u> a verb is being done	Always, sometimes, often, usually, never, generally	She normally eats three meals a day
Degree: shows <u>the extent to which</u> the verb is being done and the <u>intensity of it</u>	Quite, too, entirely, very, extremely, just, barely, deeply	I'm not absolutely certain that I posted it
Quantity: shows <u>the amount</u> that the verb is being done	Almost, completely, especially, extremely, hardly, just, nearly, only	He was almost ready to leave
Evaluation: expresses the attitude of the writer about the information in the clause that follows	Apparently, clearly, fairly, frankly, fortunately, honestly, hopefully, carefully, carelessly	David is clearly unhappy to be here

Many of these types of adverbs cross over category depending on the sentence and its context. For example, 'I'm not absolutely certain' is an adverb of degree because it shows

the extent to which you are certain, but 'She had done absolutely all of the work' shows the amount of work she has done.

The extract below is taken from 1984 by George Orwell. Identify the types of VERB and ADVERB that you can find in it. Annotate the extract.

The hallway smelt of boiled cabbage and old rag mats. At one end of it a coloured poster, too large for indoor display, had been tacked to the wall. It depicted simply an enormous face, more than a metre wide: the face of a man of about forty-five, with a heavy black moustache and ruggedly handsome features. Winston made for the stairs. It was no use trying the lift. Even at the best of times it was seldom working, and at present the electric current was cut off during daylight hours. It was part of the economy drive in preparation for Hate Week. The flat was seven flights up, and Winston, who was thirty-nine and had a varicose ulcer above his right ankle, went slowly, resting several times on the way. On each landing, opposite the lift-shaft, the poster with the enormous face gazed from the wall. It was one of those pictures which are so contrived that the eyes follow you about when you move. BIG BROTHER IS WATCHING YOU, the caption beneath it ran.

Recap:

The poem below is full of nonsense words. It is called Jabberwocky by Lewis Carroll. Although almost all of the words are nonsense, it is possible to work out their function based on the context.

Annotate which words you think are nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Attempt to state the kind of noun, verb, adjective and adverb you think the words might be.

Tw'as brillig, and the slithy toves
Did gyre and gimble in the wabe;
All mimsy were the borogoves,
And the mome raths outgrabe.

"Beware the Jabberwock, my son
The jaws that bite, the claws that catch!
Beware the Jubjub bird, and shun
The frumious Bandersnatch!"

He took his vorpal sword in hand;
Long time the manxome foe he sought—
So rested he by the Tumtum tree,
And stood awhile in thought.

And, as in uffish thought he stood,
The Jabberwock, with eyes of flame,
Came whiffing through the tulgey wood,
And burbled as it came!

One, two! One, two! And through and through
The vorpal blade went snicker-snack!

He left it dead, and with its head
He went galumphing back.

Below, assess your confidence by colouring in the middle square red, amber or green. Then, create a small plan as to what you will do to improve your knowledge in these areas.

Word class	RAG	What will I do to improve?
Nouns		
Verbs		
Adjectives		
Adverbs		

Pronouns

Pronouns replace the noun in a sentence. We need pronouns so that we do not have to constantly repeat the noun if we want to refer back to it. A word is classed as a pronoun when it occurs **independently** without a noun following it, because it **replaces** the noun itself.

Personal pronouns	Replaces the subject or object in a sentence e.g. I, we, me, him
Reflexive pronouns	Indicate object of a verb is the same as the subject of the sentence e.g. '-self/-selves in themselves' like in ' <u>they</u> were going to do it <u>themselves</u> '
Indefinite pronouns	Do not refer to any specific person or thing e.g. 'someone' 'anything' 'everything'
Demonstrative pronouns	They tend to point to something e.g. 'that', 'this' (but if it comes before a noun it isn't the pronoun)
Possessive pronouns	Show possession (hers, ours, mine) only when not placed before the noun.
Interrogative pronouns	Used when asking a question e.g. who, whose, which, what (in who did this, which is it)
Relative pronouns	Act as linking words in a sentence always placed immediately AFTER the noun they refer to e.g. whom, who, whose, which, that. (The man, <u>who</u> had decided to go home, was walking very quickly)

Pronouns can often be used by a text producer to make the receiver feel included and position the audience in a way that makes them feel involved. Pronouns can also work to create an us vs. them dichotomy, if the text producer's aim is to exclude one group and make another feel included.

There are seven types of pronoun:

Identify the types of pronoun being used below:

1. The book is **mine**

2. **That** is my book.
3. She preferred to work by **herself**
4. **She** likes cheese.
5. The lady **who** wore red.
6. **Who** does this belong to?
7. **Someone** must know the answer.
8. **This** is really difficult

Personal and possessive pronouns can be shifted if the 'person' shifts:

	Personal pronouns		Possessive	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
First person	I, me	We, us	My	Our
Second person	You, your	You, your, yours	Your, yours	Your, Yours
Third person	He/she, him/her,	They, them, their, theirs	His/hers/its	Their

Below, write your own sentence using personal and possessive pronouns, but write the sentence three times in the first, second and third person.

Determiners

Pronouns are often confused with another class of word - the class of determiners. REMEMBER: A word is classed as a pronoun when it occurs **independently** without a noun following it, because it **replaces** the noun itself, like in the sentence *this is a new car*.

When a noun follows the word it is a determiner: *This car is new.*

There are five types of determiner:

The definite article	The
The indefinite article	A (or an)
Numerical determiners	e.g. one two three OR first second third

Quantifiers	Show quantity e.g. few, many, enough
Demonstrative determiners	Refer only to specific objects or people e.g. this, that, these, those

Explain below how determiners differ from pronouns in your own words:

Identify all of the pronouns and determiners in the paragraphs below. Annotate them on.

The old lady reached the doorstep of her home and put her bag down to search for the key in her pocket. This search was always the worst part of any trip out. However hard she tried, she could never find either key – she always carried one key for the front door and one key for the back door in case of emergencies. On many occasions she had been sure that both keys were lost. But this time was an exception.

She skilfully slotted one key into the lock and turned it carefully. In two minutes she was indoors, but for the second time that day, she drew her breath sharply. Every day recently she had some visitors, but enough was enough. There was more mess than even she could bear and for the rest of that day, she concentrated on making her home her own again.

Prepositions:

A **preposition** is a word that tells you **where** or **when** something is in relation to something else. Examples of prepositions include words like after, before, on, under, inside and outside.

After walking for miles she rested on a hill.

In this sentence 'after' tells you when she rested and 'on' tells you where she rested.

Annotate the four sentence below with the pronoun, determiner and preposition:

Is there really a dining car attached to the train?	I'm allergic to cats	I was amazed at the depth of her knowledge	I am blessed with good health
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Conjunctions:

Conjunctions are words used to connect words, phrases, or clauses. There are three types of conjunctions:

- **Coordinating Conjunctions:** Coordinating conjunctions join like with like (i.e., they join a noun with another noun, an adjective with another adjective, etc.). The most common ones are *and*, *but*, and *or*. There are seven in total: *for*, *and*, *nor*, *but*, *or*, *yet*, and *so*. (You can remember them using the mnemonic F.A.N.B.O.Y.S.)
- **Subordinating Conjunctions:** Subordinating conjunctions join subordinate clauses to main clauses. Common examples are *although*, *because*, *if*, *since*, *unless*, *until*, and *while*.
- **Correlative Conjunctions:** correlative conjunctions are used in pairs to join alternatives or equal elements. The most common pairs are *either/or*, *neither/nor*, and *not only/but also*.

Identify the conjunctions in these sentences and state whether they are coordinating, subordinating or correlative:

I find television very educational. Every time somebody turns on the TV, I go into the other room and read a book.	I like sweet things, but I prefer savoury dishes	We needed a place to concentrate, so we packed up our things and went to the library.	I drank a glass of water because I was thirsty.
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We have now learned the eight parts of speech. Rate yourself below again on your confidence, this time with all eight parts:

Word class	RAG	What will I do to improve?
Nouns		
Verbs		
Adjectives		
Adverbs		
Pronouns		
Determiners		
Prepositions		
Conjunctions		

Now, identify all of the words in the extract below. Annotate each word. You may want to shorten certain things down and create a key, for example CCN could mean common, concrete noun, DPP could be demonstrative personal pronoun and so on.

Mr and Mrs Dursley, of number four, Privet Drive, were proud to say that they were perfectly normal, thank you very much. They were the last people you'd expect to be involved in anything strange or mysterious, because they just didn't hold with such nonsense. Mr Dursley was the director of a firm called Grunnings, which made drills. He was a big, beefy man with hardly any neck, although he did have a very large moustache. Mrs Dursley was thin and blonde and had nearly twice the usual amount of neck, which came in very useful as she spent so much of her time craning over garden fences, spying on the neighbours. The Dursleys had a small son called Dudley and in their opinion there was no finer boy anywhere.

Semantics

Semantics is concerned with what the above types of words mean. It is concerned with the relationship between signifiers (words, phrases, signs, symbols etc.) and what they are taken to mean by those who interpret them.

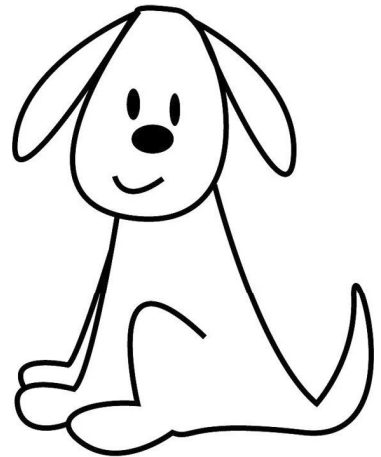
Connotation vs. denotation:

The denotation of a word is the literal or primary meaning of a word, in contrast to the feelings or ideas that the word suggests. We monitor and control word denotations through things such as dictionaries or recognised definitions.

The connotation of a word is an idea or feeling which a word invokes for a person in addition to its literal or primary meaning. This is highly personal and is often different for people depending on their personal experiences.

As an example, let's take the word 'dog'.

The denotation of the word 'dog' is 'carnivorous quadruped of the genus Canis'. To us, however, they may have many different connotations. You may think of loyalty, bravery, faithfulness, beauty, adorableness etc. or you might think of noise, filth, danger, fear, sadness. This is all dependent upon your semantic understanding of what a dog is. Although we all see and perceive dogs in the same literal way, the connotations attached to dogs for different people are influenced by semantics.



Can you write about your own example below? If you can't think of any words yourself, go with 'clowns'.

Loaded Language:

Some words carry strong connotations, and those connotations are generally agreed on by users of the language. Such words are often described as 'loaded'. Loaded words have strong negative or positive connotations, and can have a powerful emotional impact.

With the following words, work out whether they have:

- No particular connotations;
- Strong negative connotations;
- Strong positive connotations.

Vehicle, Slavery, Democracy, Political,
Fascism, Photosynthesis, Islamophobia,
Thin, Fat, Loyalty, Building,
Hovel, Climate change, Animal

Note down any other examples of loaded language that you use/hear on a daily basis:

Synonym, antonym, hypernym and hyponyms:

A **synonym** is a word with similar meaning to another word. This works on a semantic basis. For example, the word 'small' has synonyms such as little, minor, slight, petite, minimal and many others, but we have the shared understanding that these all mean small. However, the semantic meaning of each word will always be subtly different. We would never say 'look at the minimal boy over there', because we understand that the semantics of that word is different.

Think of three synonyms each for the following words:

Run	Slow	Said	Tall	Busy	Quick

An antonym is a word that means the opposite of another. Quick is the antonym of slow. Again, we can work out the antonym of a word by knowing the semantics of it.

What are the antonyms of these words?

Big	Busy	Human	Yes	Running	Asleep

Hypernyms and Hyponyms

Hypernyms: A word with a broad meaning constituting a category into which words with more specific meanings fall. 'Vehicle' is a general term that encompasses car, bus, bicycle, lorry, truck, van, etc. However, sometimes the words that the hypernym encompasses can become hypernyms themselves, for example, 'car' encompasses sports car, saloon, hatchback, and a whole range of specific names such as BMW, Rolls Royce, Lamborghini, that have a wide range of cultural connotations.

If this is the hypernym, list the words that could go into the category:

Colour:

Travel:

Symptom:

Hyponyms: The words with a more specific meaning that can be classified by the hypernyms are called hyponyms. Examples of hyponyms are:

- Apple, orange, banana (Hypernym fruit)
- Dog, cat, buffalo, warthog (Hypernym mammal, or animal)
- Robin, vulture, eagle. (Hypernym bird, or animal)

Hyponyms are more likely to carry strong connotations than hypernyms, though this is not an invariable rule. The word 'animal' can carry negative connotations in phrases such as 'he behaved like an animal'. However, this can mean any number of things, and more specific connotations can be carried by use of more specific words, for example,

He ate like a pig = messy eating

You snake = you have behaved deviously

Can you think of three other examples?

Euphemism and dysphemism:

What is the difference between these phrases?

- 'Passed away' and 'massacred'
- 'Spending the night with him' and 'shagging him'
- 'He's unusual' and 'he's weird'.

Here, we see the use of figurative language to soften meaning. The softer version is called a euphemism. **Euphemisms** are words or phrases which substitute mild or vague language to soften the harsh reality of a subject or event. For example, he 'passed away' is nicer than saying he died.

List five more you can think of that we might use for a similar reason

Dysphemism is the opposite. These are the use unfavourable, plain-spoken or socially taboo expressions instead of more socially acceptable ones these may often constitute offensive speaking.

Below, analyse the transcript between Bertie Wooster (a middle class, wealthy man) and his butler Jeeves. Where are the euphemisms and dysphemisms? How do they reveal the dynamic between the two men?

Bertie: What sort of chap is he?

Jeeves: A somewhat curious character, sir. Since retiring from business he has become a great recluse, and now devotes himself almost entirely to the pleasures of the table.

Bertie: A greedy hog, you mean?

Jeeves: I would not perhaps take the liberty of describing him in precisely those terms, sir. He is what is usually called a gourmet.

Semantic fields:

This refers to a collection of words that are related by their topic. For example, the words books, school, timetable, pencil case, classroom and lesson all have a semantic field of education. They are linked by the topic that they typically fall under.

List words with a semantic field of:

Shopping	
Work or employment	
Nature	
War	

Semantic change:

When we come to studying language change, semantic shifts/changes become very important. However, the basic principle is that semantic change refers to any change in the meaning(s) of a word over the course of time.

Amelioration: words change meaning to become more positive over time. 'Sick' is ameliorating currently. It meant 'unwell' and is beginning to mean 'cool'.

Pejoration: words change meaning to become more negative over time. 'Crafty' used to mean clever but now it means dishonest.

Research three more examples of amelioration and three more of pejoration and write your findings below:

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Grammar and Syntax

Syntax is the study of sentences and their structure, and the constructions within sentences. Syntax tells us what goes where in a sentence. Grammar is the general term referring to the set of rules in a given language.

Units:

The English language is made up of units: words (which we have covered), phrases, clauses and full sentences. See if you can match the definition to the unit of language below:

Unit	Definition
Word	
Phrase	
Clause	
Sentence	
DEFINITIONS	
This is a single piece of information made up of more than one word. It will not contain a subject and a verb.	This is a single piece of information made up of more than one word which contains a subject and a verb.
This conveys a complete idea. It must contain at least one clause.	This refers to the smallest fully meaningful unit.

Tense:

Tenses in the English language are all formed by **conjugating** the verbs in a sentence. (Conjugation is the change that takes place in a verb to express tense, mood, person and so on). English verb tenses are formed by combining one of the principal forms of a main verb with one or more auxiliary verbs, or by adding a morpheme as a suffix.

There are two tenses in English: present and past. Unlike many languages, English does not have a future tense. To talk about the future, English requires a modal verb such as will.

Can you conjugate the verbs below so that they demonstrate the correct tense?

Conjugate the verbs for 3 rd person singular TENSE	Present	Past	Future
To run	He runs	He ran	He will run
To buy			
To walk			
To stand			
To drink			
To slay			
To make			
To shop			

Aspect:

For each grammatical tense, there are subcategories called aspects. Aspect refers to the duration of an event within a particular tense. In other words, the aspect of a tense allows us to describe or understand how an event unfolds over time. English has four aspects: simple, progressive, perfect, and perfect progressive.

Tense	Aspect	Example
Present	simple present	I wash the car.
	present progressive	I am washing the car.
	present perfect	I have washed the car.
	present perfect progressive	I have been washing the car.
Past	simple past	I washed the car.
	past progressive	I was washing the car.
	past perfect	I had washed the car.
	past perfect progressive	I had been washing the car.

Can you complete the table below using the sentence 'I walk to the shops'?

Tense	Aspect	Example
Present	simple present	I walk to the shops
	present progressive	
	present perfect	
	present perfect progressive	
Past	simple past	
	past progressive	
	past perfect	
	past perfect progressive	

Voice:

There are two forms of voice that you need to remember when analysing texts throughout the English Language course.

- **Active Voice**
- **Passive Voice**

The active voice is more common as it expresses the action of the verb, directly linking it to the person or thing carrying out the action.

The car stopped suddenly.

The girl picked up the book.

The passive voice however, changes the focus of the sentence by reordering the elements within it.

The basic structure of the passive voice is as follows:

- The subject or actor of the active sentence (the person or thing doing the verb) is moved to the end of the passive sentence and becomes the passive agent (i.e. by + subject of active sentences).
- The object of the active sentence (the person or thing receiving the action of the verb) is moved to the front of the passive sentence and becomes the subject.
- The active verb is replaced by a verb in the passive form: to be + past participle or have + past participle.

What voice are the below sentences written in?

Re-write them on the lines below so that they are written in the opposite voice:

1. The Prime Minister forced the Home Secretary to resign.
2. The fire brigade fought the blaze all night.
3. John Jones attacked the young girl viciously, breaking three of her ribs.
4. Famine ravaged the country.

Then, select one of the sentences you have re-written. Analyse below how the re-writing of it changes the meaning of the sentence and what the sentence implies:

Sentence functions:

All sentences perform one of four functions:

- 1) **Declaratives** - statements that give information
- 2) **Imperatives** - give orders, instructions, advice or directions
- 3) **Interrogatives** - ask questions
- 4) **Exclamatives** - expressive function convey force and end in an exclamation mark

Identify the function of each of these sentences:

1. I wish I could go to Colorado this summer.
2. Please set the table for lunch.
3. The vice-president will visit Egypt next week.
4. Will it be on television?
5. Didn't I meet you at Rainbow Lake last summer?
6. Initial in the top right-hand corner of each paper.
7. Meet me at 7pm by the library.
8. I can't believe it's all over!
9. Nancy wants to be a doctor.
10. Turn left at the stop sign.

Write one of each sentence function below:

Sentence Types:

There are five sentence types - minor, simple, compound , complex and compound-complex.

Minor Sentences

Complete and meaningful statements that don't have a subject and verb combination. Lots of everyday sayings are minor sentences e.g. Be quiet. Goodbye. Sounds good.

Simple Sentences

A simple sentence must have a subject and a verb. It should express a complete thought e.g. The snow falls. Snow is the subject, falls is the verb.

Compound

Two entirely meaningful sentences that are joined by a conjunction e.g. Santa Clause only works at Christmas time, and he is driven around by Reindeer

Complex:

a sentence containing a subordinate clause or clauses.

Compound-complex

A sentence with two or more independent clauses in, and at least one subordinate clause.

Identify each of the sentence types in this extract. Annotate what type of sentence each one is.

After William the Conqueror, the next King of England was his son William. He was a very strong and good-looking man, but he had a red face and rather reddish hair. He was not a good man and was cruel to his people. Like his father, he enjoyed hunting animals. One day the Red King's arrow just missed a big deer, William was very excited and called out to his friend, Walter. Walter fired an arrow, but by accident it stuck in the King's eye and he fell dead. Walter was very frightened and he rode away. The King's body lay in the forest all day. In the evening it was carried away in a workman's cart and buried in the big church at a town called Winchester.

Clauses come in four types: main, subordinate [or dependent], relative, and coordinate. Every clause has at least a subject and a verb.

Main Clause

Every sentence contains at least one main clause. These are also known as simple sentences. A main clause may form part of a compound sentence or a complex sentence, but it also makes sense on its own, as in this example:

He was eating a bacon sandwich.

Compound sentences are made up of two or more main clauses linked by a conjunction such as *and*, *but*, or *so*, as in the following examples:

I love sport and I'm captain of the local football team.
She was born in Spain but her mother is Polish.

Coordinate Clauses:

These occur in a sentence where there are two or more independent clauses. They are joined together by a coordinating conjunction such as, *and*, *but*, *so*, *nor*, *for*, *or*, or *yet*. For example:

*the band played for two hours **but** I had to leave early.*

The clauses could stand alone and still make sense.

Subordinate Clause

A subordinate clause depends on a main clause for its meaning. Together with a main clause, a subordinate clause forms part of a **complex sentence**. Here are two examples of sentences containing subordinate clauses:

After we had had lunch, we went back to work
I first saw her in Paris, where I lived in the early nineties.

Relative Clause

A relative clause is one connected to a main clause by a word such as *which*, *that*, *whom*, *whose*, *when*, *where*, or *who*:

I first saw her in Paris, where I lived in the early nineties.
She wants to be with Thomas, who is best suited to take care of her.
I was wearing the dress that I bought to wear to Jo's party.

Can you tackle this extract again now, but identify the clause types?

After William the Conqueror, the next King of England was his son William. He was a very strong and good-looking man, but he had a red face and rather reddish hair. He was not a good man and was cruel to his people. Like his father, he enjoyed hunting animals. One day the Red King's arrow just missed a big deer, William was very excited and called out to his friend, Walter. Walter fired an arrow, but by accident it stuck in the King's eye and he fell dead. Walter was very frightened and he rode away. The King's body lay in the forest all day. In the evening it was carried away in a workman's cart and buried in the big church at a town called Winchester.

Listing:

Within a sentence listing can be used deliberately to create a representation and effects.

LISTING STRATEGIES	
Syndetic Listing: has one 'and' or other conjunction at the end	When Simon went to the supermarket, he bought pasta, milk, tomatoes and bread. (Final conjunction at end of list).
Asyndetic Listing: has no conjunction in it at all	When Simon went to the supermarket he bought pasta, milk, tomatoes, bread. (No final conjunction at the end).
Poly-syndetic Listing: has a conjunction between every word.	When Simon went to the supermarket be bought pasta and milk and tomatoes and bread. (Conjunction is repeated constantly).

Write one of each list below:

Parallelism:

Syntactic parallelism is when one clause in a sentence corresponds with another so that the sentence structures correspond with one another. "He gave me a dog and he gave me a friend". "It was the best of times, it was the worst of times".

Write an engaging headline for an article below that uses syntactic parallelism:

Rhetorical devices:

Rhetorical devices are a technique that an producer or speaker uses to convey to the listener or reader a meaning with the goal of persuading them..

Type	Definition	Example
Anaphora	Repetition of words or phrases at the beginning of successive clauses	Imagine a world where we all get along. Imagine a world where all fighting ceases.
Epistrophe	The opposite of anaphora: repetition of words or phrases at the end of successive clause	The time to fight is here. The day of reckoning is here.
Symplece	The combination of anaphora and epistrophe: repetition of words/phrases at both the beginning and the end of successive clauses.	When there is racism, let us stand up and speak out against it. When there is talk of violence, let us stand up and speak out against it.
Hypophora	Asking a question then answering it	What do we want? Higher wages. When do we want them? Now.
Chiasmus	Reversing or inverting the words of one clause in the next	Ask not what you can do for your country but what your country can do for you.
Anadiplosis	Repeating the last word of one clause in the next one	I love chocolate. Chocolate is what keeps me going.

Below, write the opening of a persuasive speech that uses the above techniques AND syntactic parallelism and listing. You must then label the devices you have used.

This image shows a blank sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

Phonology

Phonology is a branch of linguistics which studies how languages group sounds together. Phonology is about patterns of sounds within a language and in different positions in words.

Sound repetition:

Sound repetition in language can be split into internal and external repetition.

Internal repetition:

The repetition of sounds within words that are close together in a piece of written or spoken language can be defined in two ways:

Consonance: the repetition of internal consonant sounds e.g. w**ib**ble w**ob**ble

Assonance: the repetition of internal vowel sounds e.g. M**e**n s**e**ll the w**e**dding b**e**lls

Write an example of each in the boxes below:

<u>Assonance</u>	<u>Consonance</u>

Sibilance can be both internal and external in its sound repetition, for example ‘the silken, sad, uncertain rustling of each scarlet curtain’ uses both internal, like in ‘uncertain’ and external, like in ‘silken, sad’. Here, we have used the ‘s’, ‘c’ and ‘ch’ as our sound. Remember, it is not repetition of letters but repetition of sounds.

External repetition:

Also known as alliteration, external repetition is repetition of the same sound at the start of words that are all close together. There are a lot of sounds produced by the English Language, but these are the ones we need to know:

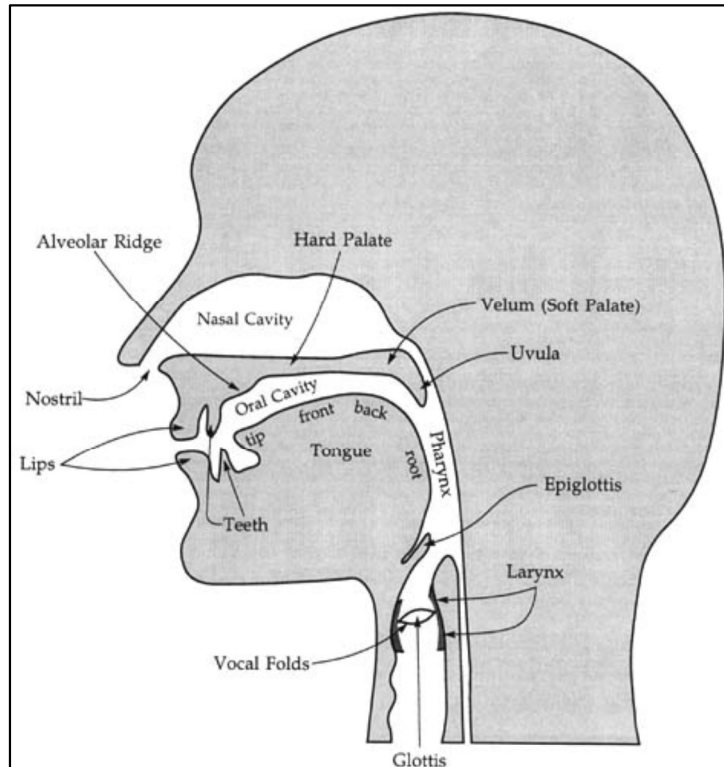
Fricative: sounds made by the production of f/v/z

Plosive: sounds made by the production of b/p/t/d/k/g

Nasal: sounds made by the production of m/n

Liquid: sounds made by the production of /l/

Here is a diagram of the human sound production system. Can you label where each sound it produced that is listed above? Be aware that these are not the only sounds that we will learn throughout the year, but when analysing a text for meanings and representations, these will be the key ones.



Onomatopoeia

Onomatopoeia is the process of creating a word that phonetically imitates, resembles, or suggests the sound that it describes. This can be broken down into two categories:

Lexical: Words that have a link with the sound that they make e.g. bang, slap, pop

Non-lexical: non-words created to imitate a sound e.g. 'ow', 'eww', 'ahh'

Create your own two sentences, one that contains a lexical onomatopoeic example, and one non-lexical example.

Phono-aesthetics

Phonaesthetics is the study of beauty and pleasantness associated with the sounds of certain words or parts of words.

Euphonic: a combination of pleasant, harmonious sounds, likely containing long vowel sounds, liquid or nasal sounds (l, m, n, r, y, w)

Cacophonic: a combination of harsh, discordant sounds, likely fricatives or plosives that require a staccato, explosive delivery.

Note: when identifying euphonic or cacophonic sounds you must refer to the type of sound produced and be able to identify that sound across multiple words or phrases. Phonaesthetics can be difficult to identify, as many people find different consonant sounds pleasant or unpleasant.

Below, create sentences that contain the following:

Euphonic:
Cacophonic:

Explain below how phonaesthetics might be used to create tone or to persuade a listener or reader:

Pragmatics

The study of the contribution of context to meaning.

The expression 'to be pragmatic' means that a person makes choices depending on their situation. This is a helpful way of thinking about the language level of pragmatics.

Two Year 12 students greet each other at the start of the day as they pass each other in the corridor. They both say 'good morning' to each other.

If they were to meet each other again two minutes later, they would not say 'good morning' to each other again.

Why not? What prevents this? What might they do instead?

Contexts:

There are multiple types of context that we must understand before we can begin to focus our studies on pragmatics. They are as follows:

Physical context: this includes

- Where the conversation is taking place
- What objects are present
- What actions are occurring
- Anything else in the immediate area which might affect the conversation

Epistemic context: the epistemic context refers to what speakers know about the world. For example, what background knowledge is shared by the speakers.

Linguistic context: the linguistic context refers to what has been said **already** in the utterance. For example, if I begin a discussion by referring to Miss Kirkham and in the next sentence refer to 'her' or 'she' as being the Head of English, the linguistic context lets me know that the person the pronoun refers to is Miss Kirkham. It can also include tone of voice.

Social context: the social context refers to the social relationship among speakers and hearers, so a conversation between friends and equals will differ from one between strangers who only just met.

Write down one example of a real-life linguistic scenario where each type of context might become relevant:

Two people come into a library. They sit near you and speak loudly to each other. So, you look up at them and say:

'Excuse me, I can't quite hear you. Could you raise your voices any higher?'

How does pragmatics help to interpret your utterance?

What contributes to understanding why its literal meaning differs from its intended meaning?

Deixis:

In linguistics, deixis refers to words and phrases that cannot be fully understood without additional contextual information. For example, all English pronouns are deictic, because it is impossible to know who 'she' is without further context, such as a name or a physical gesture. Deixis can sometimes be used to exclude a person from a group by removing the context so that the person does not understand the conversation.

We can split deixis into three:

Personal	This refers to the personal pronoun example above. All personal pronouns in the English language require contextual information to be understood.
Spatial	This refers to where the speaker is. This usually refers to adverbs of time or place, such as here/there or demonstrative pronouns such as 'this/that'
Temporal	This refers to the time that the speaker is referring to. Usually relates to adverbs of time e.g. 'yesterday'. This can only be used accurately when referring to the day before, and if taken out of context it comes meaningless.

Below, construct a short transcript of conversation that could easily happen in day-to-day life that uses deixis to exclude one speaker from the conversation by referring to something out of context:

Synthetic personalisation:

Synesthetic personalisation is the process of addressing mass audiences as though they were individuals through inclusive language usage. This often comes in the form of personal pronouns e.g. advertisements using 'You' or 'I' or 'We' to address their audience.

Why might this be an effective marketing strategy? How does it rely on pragmatics for effectiveness?

Context-dependent language:

There are certain types of phrases that can only be understood based on a knowledge of complex linguistic agreements between society members.

Idioms:

An expression that cannot be understood from the meanings of its separate words, but that has a separate meaning of its own that speakers can only understand due to their shared understanding of the semantics:

- A can of worms
- A chip off the old block
- Out for the count
- Pulling his leg

How many more can you think of? Try and get a minimum of five:

Collocations:

The habitual juxtaposition of a particular word with another word or words with a frequency greater than chance. Just because a person might be fluent in English, they may need a deeper awareness of the societal agreements surrounding certain words that simply appear to go together in speech.

For example

- Take risks (not do risks)

- The service industry (not the service business)
- Heavy rain (not big rain)
- Blurred vision (not unclear vision)

Although technically all of the phrases in brackets would be grammatically correct, when we do not use collocations speech can sound unnatural.

Can you think of any more?

Figurative Language:

Figurative language refers to a language that deviates from the conventional meaning in order to convey a more complicated, implicit meaning. It uses our understanding of the pragmatic meaning of words or phrases to convey an underlying message.

Metaphors

A direct comparison made by saying that one entity is another – e.g. ‘a treasure trove of memories’

Write your own metaphor below:

Similes

A less direct comparison made by saying that one entity is like another – e.g. ‘I bruise like a peach’

Write your own simile below:

Personification

Giving **human qualities** to non-humans – e.g. the wind whipped and clawed at the trees

Write your own example of personification below:

Pathetic fallacy:

The attribution of human **feelings** and **responses** to inanimate things such as the weather, or animals – e.g. calling a tornado angry

Write your own example of pathetic fallacy below:

Irony:

Using language to signal an attitude other than what is being literally expressed – e.g. 'I love that you are playing your music so loudly on the train, please play it louder'. This requires context to understand.

Write your own example of irony below:

Pragmatic Theories:

All of the following theories are about spoken language and can only be applied to spoken language or transcripts of spoken language, not to texts in the written mode. The theories explain how an understanding of pragmatics influences our conversational habits.

Grice's Maxims:

A maxim is a statement expressing a general truth or rule of conduct. Paul Grice proposed that there are unspoken maxims of conversation that participants implicitly agree upon without ever discussing it. Grice's maxims are also known as 'cooperative principles'. They are as follows:

The maxim of quantity: not saying too much or too little. Make your contribution to the conversation as informative as required for the purposes.

The maxim of quality: truthfulness. Try to make your contribution one that is true and accurate – don't say something false or not backed up with evidence.

The maxim of manner: talk clearly. Try to make your contribution unambiguous and clear.

The maxim of relevance: follow the conversation. Do not contribute anything irrelevant that does not fit into the conversation.

A speaker either **flouts or observes** a maxim. It is very relevant to point out that a speaker has flouted a maxim – it demonstrates a lack of co-operation and a possible level of animosity between speakers, or a possible lack of awareness of the conventions of normal conversation.

The following is a fictitious conversation between Tony Blair and George Bush that did the rounds on Twitter a few years ago. It is funny because it flouts a number of maxims. Can you identify which and annotate this on?

Prime Minister Blair: Yes, Bill. Nice to hear from you. (U)

The President: I apologise for calling you so late in the evening. (U)

Prime Minister Blair: That's quite all right. Cherie and I are driving back from a charity function in Leeds. (U)

The President: I love Leeds. Leeds Castle is so beautiful. (U)

Prime Minister Blair: Leeds Castle is in Kent, Bill. (U)

The President: Why is Leeds Castle in Kent? (U)

Prime Minister Blair: I don't know. (U)

The President: Is there a Kent Castle in Leeds? (U)

Prime Minister Blair: No. (U)

The President: If I were in Leeds, I'd be pissed off that Kent has my castle. (U)

Prime Minister Blair: Yes. I would too. (U)

The President: We don't really have castles here. Not proper castles. The castle in Disneyland is impressive. (U)

Prime Minister Blair: Yes it is. I took the family there two years ago. It's a fantastic castle. (U)

The President: Yes but compared to UK castles, it's a beer crate. A beer crate full of shit. (U)

Prime Minister Blair: What were you calling about? (U)

The President: I can't remember. (U)

Can you create a short dialogue between two people which flouts all of Grice's maxims?

Goffman's Face Theory

Irving Goffman suggested that we present a particular image of ourselves to others e.g. a good friend in one context and a knowledgeable student in another. This 'image' is called presenting 'face' (think about how in everyday talk we might talk about saving face or losing face).

Generally speaking we accept the face that other people present/offer to us. This is all part of co-operating in conversation.

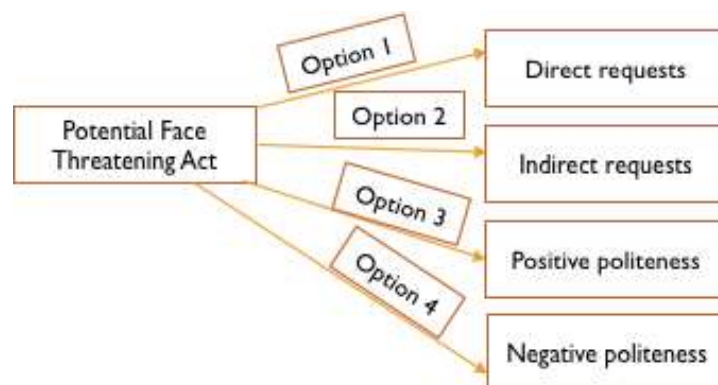
- **Positive face needs** are associated with feeling appreciated and valued
- **Negative face needs** are associated with the desire to feel independent, and not imposed upon.

On rare occasions, we might reject the 'face' that someone presents to us or we might accuse them of being insincere or mock them for trying to be more knowledgeable than they actually are. If you say something which challenges or rejects someone's 'face' this is called a **face threatening act**. Face threatening acts, therefore have the potential to damage the self-esteem of an individual.

Speakers can choose a number of politeness strategies to help to minimise loss of face. Examples of politeness include:

- Appropriate terms of address e.g. 'Sir', 'madam', 'mate'
- Appropriate speech according to your social relationship with them
- Appropriate degree of formality
- Understanding the conventions of a situation e.g. Refusing or accepting an invitation

Scenario: a man on the train has his music blaring loudly whilst you are trying to read. So as not to threaten the face of this man, you have a number of options according to Goffman:



Option 1: Threatens face by directly addressing an issue e.g. 'turn your music down'

Option 2: Avoids being explicit about your request, whilst still requesting e.g. 'This is a great book I'm reading!'

Option 3: Addresses the person's positive face needs by providing a form of compliment e.g. 'That is a great album choice'

Option 4: Addresses the person's negative face needs, perhaps by apologizing before speaking e.g. 'I'm really sorry to have to ask but'

Annotate the transcript below. How and why does Waters purposefully break the rules of conversation? How does this represent both Waters and Mnuchin? Refer to aspects of Grice's maxims, and Face theory.

Maxine Waters: Are you familiar with the letter I sent you May 23 along with several of my democratic colleagues on this committee?

Steven Mnuchin: Yes I am

Maxine Waters: Is there some reason why I did not get a response to the letter I sent May 23?

Steven Mnuchin: So, Ranking Member Waters, first of all let me thank you for your service to California, for being a resident of California. I appreciate everything that you've done for the community there – [interrupting]

Maxine Waters: [talking over Mnuchin] Thank you very much I don't want to take up my time with how great I am.

Steven Mnuchin: [talking over Waters] it's really great to meet with you –

Waters: [talking over Mnuchin]: I would like to reclaim my time.

Steven Mnuchin: [overlapping]: I've also had the opportunity to meet with you

Waters: [talking over Mnuchin]: Reclaiming my time

Steven Mnuchin: [overlapping]: -- on several occasions

Waters: [talking over Mnuchin]: Reclaiming my time. Reclaiming my time. Reclaiming my time.

Waters: Let me just say to you thank you for your compliments about how great I am but I don't want to waste my time on me. I want to know about the letter sent May 23. You know about it. Why did you not respond to me and my colleagues?

Mnuchin: I was just going to answer that –

Waters: Just, please, go straight to the answer

Mnuchin: Mr Chairman I thought when you read the rules you said that I should not be interrupted, that I would have the opportunity to --

Waters: [talking over Mnuchin]: Reclaiming my time. What he failed to tell you was when you are on my time, I can reclaim it. He left that out. Please, respond to the question of why I did not get a response to the May 23 letter.

Mnuchin: Well, I was going to tell you.

Waters: Then tell me. We are all ears.

Mnuchin: Well, first of all, let me just say that the Department of Treasury has cooperated extensively with the Senate Intel Committee with the House –

Waters: [talking over Mnuchin]: Reclaiming my time. Reclaiming my time. Reclaiming my time. Answer the question.

How does the flouting or observing of conversational rules above change the representation that each participant is making of themselves?

RAG rate and summarise your understanding of the areas of pragmatics that we have studied below:

Pragmatics	RAG	Your summary
Contexts		
Deixis		
Synthetic personalisation		
Context dependant language		
Figurative language		
Grice's Maxims		
Goffman's Face Theory		

Graphology

Graphology is the analysis of the physical characteristics of a text

It can be very tempting to focus on graphology more than is needed. A discussion of graphology may be relevant in a text, but aim to ensure that it is not your key focus and always remember to address multiple levels of language in any given piece of analysis.

There are, however, several things we can discuss about the graphology of a text:

Multimodal texts: texts that rely on the interplay of different modes (e.g. images, writing and sound) to help shape meaning.

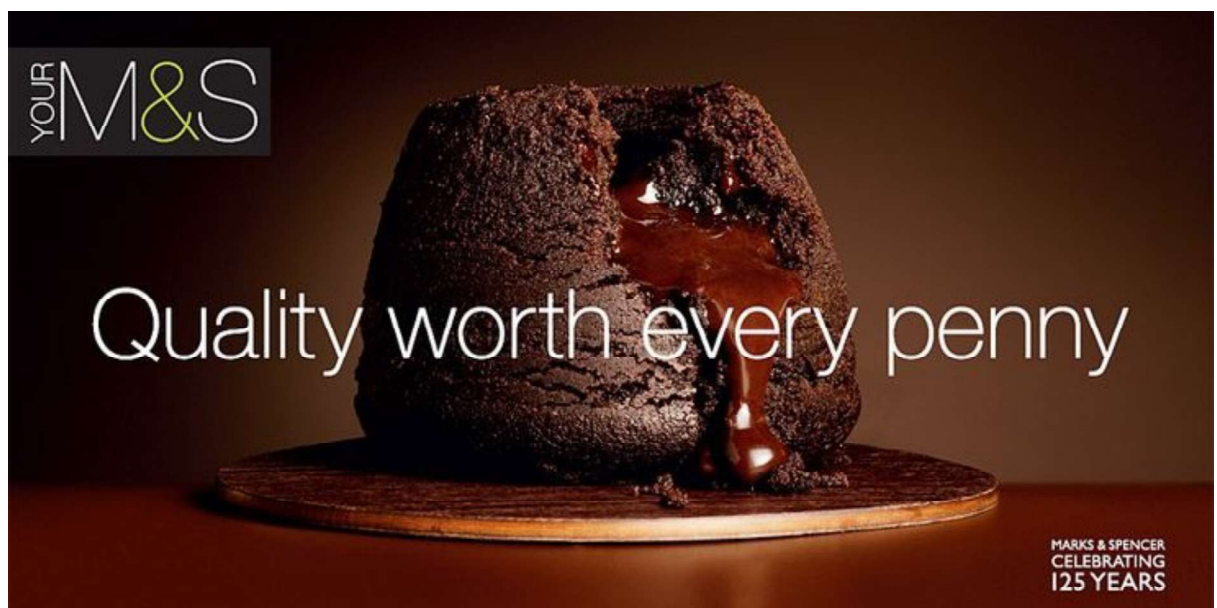
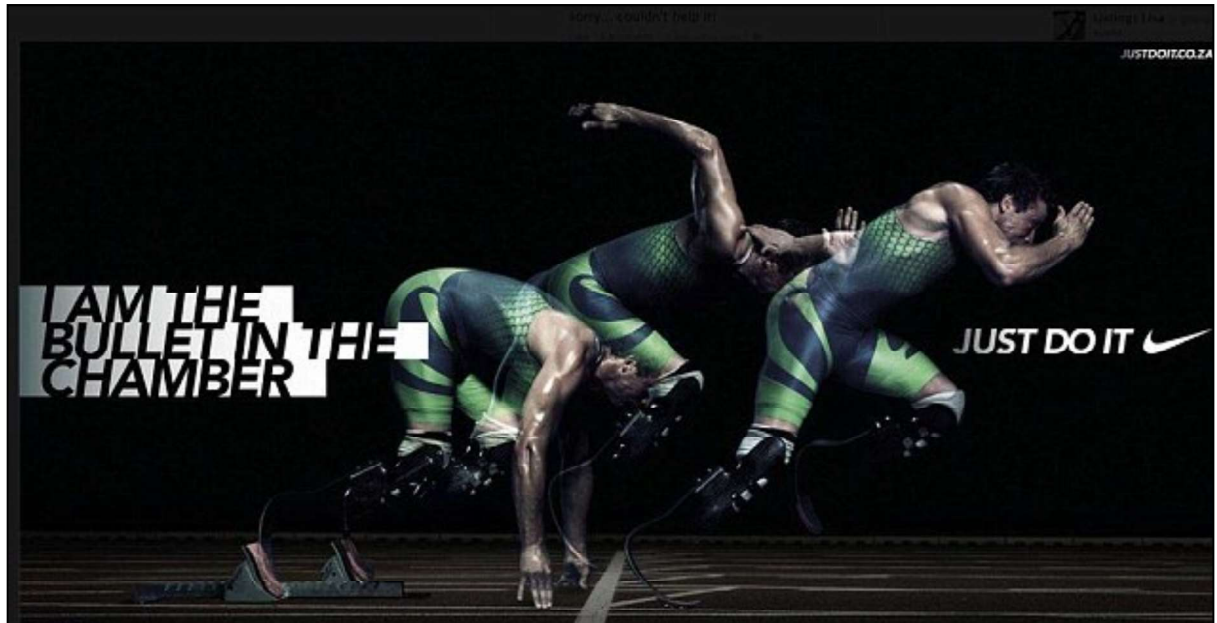
Layout: the way in which a text is physically structured.

Typographical features: the features of fonts used in texts such as font type, size and colour.

Orthographical features: the features of the writing system such as spelling, capitalisation and punctuation.

Annotate the texts below discussing their graphology and any other relevant language levels:





≡ Discourse ≡

The ways in which a text is constructed beyond the lexical, grammatical and syntactical structures. It is the way that the overall text is structured.

Discourse markers: words, phrases or clauses that help to organise what we say or write (e.g. OK, So, “As I was saying...”).

What impact do you think discourse markers could have upon an argument? Why are they important in a text?

Adjuncts: non-essential elements of clauses (usually adverbials) that can be omitted (e.g. “I’ll see you *in the morning*, *on the table* in we left some flowers *on the table*”).

Why are adjuncts important? How do they impact a conversation or a text?

Disjuncts: sentence adverbs that work to express an attitude or stance towards material that follows (e.g. “**Frankly**, I’m appalled at what she said” or “**Sadly**, not one of them survived”).

Write two sentences with disjuncts in them:

Interdiscursivity (or intertextuality): the use of discourses from one field as part of another (e.g. the use of science discourses in the selling of beauty products, or the use of commercial discourses in education).

Critical discourse analysis: the use of linguistic analysis to explore and challenge the ideologies, positions and values of texts and their producers.

Referencing:

Anaphoric reference: making reference back to something previously identified in a text (often using pronouns to refer to an already established reference point e.g. “The woman stood by the door. She made detailed notes of what she could see”).

Cataphoric reference: making reference forwards to something as yet unidentified in a text. E.g. "It was warm. It was living. It was a rabbit."

Exophoric reference: making reference to things beyond the language of a text itself perhaps within a speaker's immediate physical context e.g. "Look at that".

Can you write one example of each type of referencing?

--

Below, summarise your understanding of each of the language levels below:

Language Level	RAG	Your summary including specific examples
Lexis		
Semantics		
Grammar and syntax		
Phonology		
Pragmatics		
Graphology		
Discourse		

For the language levels you have rated amber or red, summarise below what you need to do to improve, and what you need from me to help you:
