

English Department Key Stage 5 Knowledge Organiser – Age, Occupation and Sexuality (Diversity) Paper 2

AO2: Language and Age	AO2: Language and Occupation	AO2: Language and Sexuality	AO1 Terminology
<p>Much study of age and language is focused on teenage language, though research does suggest age impacts our language.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Eckert (1998) argues that there are different ways to define age (chronological, biological, social) so we can't expect age groups to share the same characteristics/ • Cheshire (1987) links language to life events rather than chronological age. • Bigham (2012) defines 'emerging adulthood' as significant • Marlinez (2011) – use of negatives in teenage language • Berland (1997) – use of tags and the importance of social class • Odato (2013) – explored the use of 'like' as a discourse marker. • Stenstrom, Anderson and Hasund (2002) focused on the speech of teenagers in London and found: multiple negation, use of 'ain't', auxiliary verbs, non standard pronouns • Klerk (2005): young people challenge linguistic norms and seek to establish a new identity. They need to be seen as "modern, cool and fashionable" and different from parents/other adults. • Stenstrom (2014) Teenage Talk: common features of teen talk included: irregular turn-taking, word shortenings, teasing and name calling, verbal duelling, taboo/slang and language mixing (from other cultures). • Gary Ives – <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ West Yorkshire school study. Interviewed students about words they could remember from school. ✓ Language in the playground: discussion with 17 year olds. They remembered words such as "kissy-catch", "kerby" and "tig" from the playground when younger. ✓ Taboo is part of teen vernacular; slang is common; informal lexical choices ✓ Instagram study – text-speak more evident in younger age groups due to influence of mobile phones/social media. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Occupation language has special features and lexical choices, specific to certain occupations. • Occupational register often features jargon – phrases or words solely used in a particular job/area of industry. • Acronyms also form part of occupational language. Case study: Metropolitan Police who have 61 different acronyms specific to the workplace. • Spoken discourse (Fairclough, 2001): one speaker usually has a higher status or role than the other. This is defined as unequal encounters; one speaker is the powerful participant, the other is the less powerful participant. • Codes – a common feature of occupational language. • Convergence and divergence (Giles, 1973): Accomodation Theory recognises how at times, speakers will try to make their language resemble and be more in line with, their audience to improve communication • Swales (2011): discourse communities. A discourse community has members who share a set of common goals, communicate internally and use specialist lexis/discourse. • Drew and Heritage (1992): Institutional talk. Differs from ordinary conversation in various ways: goal orientation; turn-taking rules; professional lexis; structure; asymmetry. • Drew and Heritage (1992): Inferential Frameworks and Power relations. Members of a discourse community share inferential frameworks with each other – this involves implicit ways of thinking, behaving and communicating. Strong hierarchies of power in organisations with asymmetrical power relations. • Koester (2004) Phatic Talk: employees can support each other in their tasks – establish interpersonal relationships and have interactions that are not just about work-related procedures. • Kim and Elder (2009): Korean pilots – communication difficulties with American colleagues. Difficulties not caused by poor language skills but instead but instead native speakers not using agreed phrases. • Cameron (2000): Call centre conversations. Found conversations were highly formulaic rather than spontaneous. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand current issues around titles e.g. new forms that avoid gender identification e.g. Mx or Thon • Cameron (2005): dominance and difference frameworks focused on mainstream femininity or masculinity. No such thing as a generic man or woman. Social change has impacted gendered language and social binaries of gender. • Podesva (2007): Use of falsetto by gay male constructing his persona. Recorded one openly gay male named Heath in 3 contexts: a BBQ with friends; a talk with father; a meeting at work. Falsetto use was more frequent at BBQ, longer in duration and higher in pitch. • Use of Polari as a dialect used by the gay community – largely redundant now as there is no need to operate 'outside of the mainstream' • Baker (2008): Looks at secret languages of gay subcultures. Argued some researchers in 70s/80s assumed there was a universal gay identity. E.g. Hayes (1976) referred to GaySpeak and said gay men change their language depending on whether it was a secret, social or radical-activist setting. • Lakoff compares gay male speech traits to those of women and argues that gay men consciously imitate these traits (from 'Language and Woman's Place) Problematic theory as it draws on stereotypes about gay men being effeminate. • Lavender Language – queer linguistics William Leap in the 1990s. Consider current trends and issues around transgender and changing attitudes to identification. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Term first used in 1951 by Legman who studied the gay lexicon. One purpose was to be able to communicate safely. • Transgender speech: stereotypical features of feminine language are important to studies on transgender language use. More research on the speech of male-to-female individuals (MTF) than with speech of female-to-male (FTM). MTF individuals may even undergo speech therapy to sound more feminine. 	<p>Accent</p> <p>Acronyms</p> <p>Age</p> <p>Class</p> <p>Colloquialism</p> <p>Communities of Practice</p> <p>Community</p> <p>Constraints</p> <p>Convergence</p> <p>Covert Prestige</p> <p>Descriptivist</p> <p>Dialect</p> <p>Diphthong</p> <p>Discourse Community</p> <p>Divergence</p> <p>Diversity</p> <p>Education</p> <p>Elaborated Code</p> <p>Ethnicity</p> <p>Expletive</p> <p>Heteronormativity</p> <p>Idiolect</p> <p>Jargon</p> <p>Lavender Language</p> <p>Less powerful participant</p> <p>Multiplexity</p> <p>National</p> <p>Non-binary</p> <p>Overt Prestige</p> <p>Phonological Differences</p> <p>Polari</p> <p>Power asymmetry</p> <p>Powerful participant</p> <p>Prescriptivist</p> <p>Regional</p> <p>Register</p> <p>Representation</p> <p>Restricted Code</p> <p>Social Network</p> <p>Sociolect</p> <p>Standard English</p> <p>Taboo</p> <p>Transgender</p> <p>Unequal encounter</p>