Appendix

Contrast and Concession: The Use of *However*, *Nevertheless*, *Yet* and *Still* in Native and Non-Native Student Writing

Subtitle

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Analyses of usage of contrast markers

- **Green** = S1 and S2
- **Blue** = Contrast marker analyzed
- **Yellow** = other contrast markers
- **Red** = other information used in analysing text

**KC**

22, then every 22 until 286
Then 304 and every 22 until 17
Then 36 and every 19 until 245
Then 283 and every 19 until 32

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**22 KC 2 Ling 03**

But, another Nativist argument in support of their position focuses on carer correction arguing that any attempts to correct correct syntax and phonology produce little immediate effect. Also, Brown and Hanlon, 1970 (in Harley: 2001:94) argue that adults (generally) tend to correct facts rather than syntax. From this, Nativists assert that if children don’t receive feedback from carer correction then they have to rely on innate principles to acquire language. However, Social Interactionists claim that carer correction is often indirect, for example, parents show puzzlement, recast utterances or give responses that exemplify the correct form, Field (2004:271). Therefore, although Chomsky’s theory implies that if a child is exposed to language, the acquisition of that language will happen automatically, it seems that the child’s acquisition of language is more dependent on interaction with others than Chomsky suggests and a child’s innate biological capacity for language, if we suppose it exists, can not by itself account for all features of first language acquisition. Therefore, there does appear to be some relation between social interaction, innateness and language acquisition.

- S1 = Nativists’ assertion
- S2 = Social Interactionists’ claims
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent / has greater importance than S1

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**44 KC 2 LING 09**

However, one could argue that although code switching is not specifically mentioned in the data, there is reference to it if one was to view [QUOTE] in a different context. In Data A, Amaljeet is described as using two different varieties of English, and could be considered to switch codes if each variety was to be considered as a different code not simply a different dialect of one code. With this idea in mind we can also apply it to when Amaljeet is speaking Punjabi, with his friends he says he uses [QUOTE] and with his family it is more [QUOTE] and when speaking to elders he talks with respect. According to the accommodation theory, participants of a particular speech community may choose to change their dialect to suit or mirror the speech circles they are moving in. An individual reason to code switch are different, they are not on every occasion conscious, nor regular, nor lawless confusion, rather independent intermediacy. There are numerous reasons why an individual may code switch, for example in an attempt to exclude someone, or simply changing the mode of interaction for formality. Other reasons, as Hewitt found, a number of [QUOTE] adolescents...
employed a Creole way of speaking, usually because of friendship or otherwise as a means of mockery. Amaljeet however uses Jamaican Creole out of choice as a preference for the variety, as he has a strong connection to the use of Jamaican language which he refers to as [QUOTE].

- S1 = a number of adolescents use of Creole
- S2 = Amaljeet’s use of Creole
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2 (which supports the argument made at beginning)

66 KC 2 LING 15

Conclusion

In conclusion, adjustments to English vowel and consonant sounds may be overlooked if word are observed in citation form or “unspecified mechanical speech”. However, by examining connected speech and utterances in the stream of flowing speech, it is possible to recognise a variety of adjustments that are made in order for speech to flow without becoming interrupted and difficult to comprehend (as would more than likely be the case if each word were consciously pronounced in their citation form one after the other). By outlining these seven adjustments to phonemes in connected speech, and with the corresponding examples enhancing them, on reading this assignment it is possible to recognise not only the great variety of sounds that are adjusted, but the huge frequency in which we use many of these techniques in regular, everyday, casual speech.

- S1 = adjustments can be overlooked
- S2 = it is possible to recognise adjustments
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent S1/ has greater importance than S1

88 KC 2 LING 23

It is clear from the table in Appendix 2 that the words and expressions I observed being used by staff and customers in the pub in Lichfield are greatly understood by the family and friends from Lichfield that I questioned. This seems to suggest a common understanding of these words and expressions, so linguistic unity between the people in the Lichfield area, as argued as one of the functions of regional dialects by Pinker (1994: 29).

However, the use of this lexis by my family and friends does not seem to be as consistent as their understanding of it. My boyfriend and sister both claim to use a majority of the words and expressions in their spoken English. However, my friend appears to use less (ten out of fifteen) while my mother only ticked seven out of fifteen. This may be the result of a number of factors. Firstly dialects are always changing (Crystal, 2003: 28) and as a consequence of this language change people of different ages understand and use different varieties of dialects. This may explain why the words and expressions are least understood by my mother, so suggesting that the dialect of Lichfield has changed over time due to the dynamics of language. Whilst my sister, boyfriend and friend are all of similar ages to the people whose use of lexis I observed while working in the pub.
Therefore it is more likely that they will speak a similar variety of the regional dialect and so make use of similar lexis.

- S1 = There is a common understanding of the Lichfield dialect
- S2 = Use of the dialect isn’t as common as its understanding
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent S1/ has greater importance than S1

When asked whether she ever struggles understanding the various accents of British people (line 653), the informant answers “I pretty much can understand” but sometimes there are certain accents and I’m not really sure what they are cause I'm not really familiar with all the different things but those are the ones that are difficult (line 654-6, Appendix 1). However, the informant doesn’t mention whether she has come across any accents in class that she has had difficulty with understanding. This is something that I thought might have featured in her account of the issue of a possible language barrier being an American student in Britain. The fact that this is not mentioned suggests that understanding British accents is not a hugely salient language issue for the informant and doesn't affect her studies, being an American student attending a British university.

- S1 = Subject says she generally understands accents
- S2 = Subject doesn’t mention accents in class
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent S1/ has greater importance than S1

The fact that written English appears to be more standardised than spoken English may be down to how written Standard English is promoted in the education system (QUOTE) (Stubbs, 1988 in Wilkinson, 1995 : 28). Wilkinson (1995 : 29) argues that attitudes to English teaching are based upon the views of people who are committed to an [QUOTE]. However, as we have discussed, there are many varieties of English. Therefore, Crowley (2003 : 241) discusses the teaching of different varieties of English like we teach other languages such as French and German. Therefore no one variety is automatically superior. However, some argue against this claiming that it is not practicable. But, “language is a complex social phenomenon … it would be easier for everyone to define S.E. simply but language is not that simple (Wilkinson, 1995 : 30). Wilkinson (1995 : 19) argues therefore that process of S.E. in education “needs to be seen as one of extending a student’s language repertoire while at the same time not denigrating the non-standard dialects spoken by many”. As we have discussed it is used by a minority (Crystal, 1995 (in Jenkins, 2003 : 31), this may be the consequence of people not wanting to loose their identity as language use plays a big part in an individual’s identity. For example, Wardhaugh (2002 : 86) discusses how much of Standard English teaching in Jamaica has proved to be insignificant which he suggests may be due to the people of Jamaica rebelling against use of spoken S.E. in order to hold onto their personal dialect and so maintain their identity. This seems to suggest further the need for the notion of [QUOTE].
• S1 = Different varieties of English should be taught as none is superior
• S2 = This cannot be done practically
• Non concessive contrast
• Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2 (no sense of stance)

**154 KC 2 LING 31**

Perhaps the most salient feature of the strip of discourse analysed is the repetition of [QUOTE]. This is repeated 19 times during the 7-minute extract, mostly by Becky (12 times), next most by Emma (6 times), and least by Philip (2 times). Repetition, of itself, however, cannot be the only factor in the evolution of LEEs, as the interrogative [QUOTE] is also repeated—though only half as often (10 times). In the first of 3 clusters of repetitions of [QUOTE], Becky uses repetition because she is putting a proposition for which she seeks agreement (i.e., she uses repetition to reduce the possibility of misunderstanding). Indeed, if we look closely at the occurrence of the interrogative, we observe two characteristic nestings:

[EXAMPLE]

and

[EXAMPLE]

• S1 = Repetition is a salient feature
• S2 = Repetition cannot be the only factor in the evolution of LEEs
• Concession
• The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent S1/ has greater importance than S1

**176 KC 3 LING 02**

Despite normal learning conditions, academic environment, intelligence and background, between five and ten percent (Boets et al., 2006, 2007) of people are found to be unable to develop proficient literacy abilities. Learning to read an individual is required to develop their speaking abilities to match the graphemes which correspond with their phonemes. While for most this transition to graphemes is achieved with relative ease for some, problems arise. Boets et al. (2006:19) state that literacy impairments which define developmental dyslexia are currently put down to impairments in dyslexic’s accommodation and manipulation of phonological processes.

However, the influence of auditory deficits on developmental dyslexia are hard to determine, as Stoodley et al. (2006:190) highlight that, there are significant cases where there is no evidence that developmental dyslexics have inadequate auditory processing skills.

• S1 = Literacy impairments are put down to impairments in dyslexic’s phonological processes
• S2 = Auditory defects are hard to determine
• Concession
• The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1 (no evidence that dyslexics have inadequate auditory processing skills)
Masculinity

This data transcript enforces how black U.S. males' physicality is a powerful attribute. It is necessary to consider, the historical grounding of power in history (Foucault, 1982) and how this is reflected in language, as a constant pressure, shaping its production, rather than a straightforward top-down process which emerges at particular junctures in interaction. Connell's study of “unspecified western masculinity” Bucholtz (1999:443) places emphasis on how physical attributes are being replaced by more logical, skilful qualities, implying that issues of power and dominance are constantly changing. However, this data transcript enforces how black U.S. males' physicality is still a powerful attribute. This is emphasised in Gumperz's (1979:5) statement; “there's no denying that politics and economic conditions are extremely important in race relations, and that ultimately redressing the balance of discrimination is a matter of power. But communication is power”.

- S1 = issues of power of constantly changing
- S2 = physicality remains a powerful attribute
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

220 KC 3 LING 08

The intention of this study is to join the strength of these two studies in order to investigate further the effect of interlopers on TOT states. The basic technique of presenting the subjects with definitions of words, followed by an interloper, or nothing at all, then getting them to recall if they have experienced a TOT state has remained the same. However, slight areas have been changed in order to create what we feel is a more concise experiment. The two experiments agree on the idea that phonological interlopers produce significantly more TOT states, and than non-related interlopers, and that semantic interlopers and interlopers with varying word frequency had no effect. Therefore the aim of this study is to further investigate the hypothesis that phonological interlopers will produce more TOT states.

- S1 = the basic technique has remained the same
- S2 = changes have been made to make the experiment more concise
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent S1/ has greater importance than S1

242 KC 3 LING 09

In fact there is a huge amount of research on how ineffective the use of English is in the education system, however it is all ignored. This research correlates with findings from all over the world, however the South African officials claim that evidence from around the world bear no relevance to how the South African child needs to be taught. 1972 Iancon Worall showed that bilingual children had greater cognitive flexibility than monolingual children, therefore it is better to ensure that a child is proficient in both languages. However after writing this study she found herself unable to work in South Africa. In 1990 Carol McDonald's Threshold Report provided proof that children who
Switched medium too early would not succeed, however her findings had not impact on the language policy.

- S1 = The report contained warnings
- S2 = The warnings had no impact on policy
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

264 KC 3 LING 12
Wales, and California have similarities in governance in which, I felt would make it interesting to compare their approach to education. Firstly Wales is a country which boarders with and is part of a bigger union, the United Kingdom. Similarly, while California is not a separate country it is one of the largest and wealthiest states of the United States of America. Despite the fact that they belong to larger entities, both the government of Wales and California have taken steps to create a National Curriculum which is exclusive to them. Another factor in which they are similar is that the two have had a way to cope with the fact they are inhabited by speakers of two languages. For California these are English and Spanish, whilst for Wales, they are English and Welsh. They do however differ in the fact that California does not openly promote the use of Spanish through their education. Wales on the other hand displays a preference for English but does not shun Welsh in the way that California does to Spanish.

- S1 = Similarities with California and Wales
- S2 = Differences between California and Wales
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

286 KC 3 LING 16
Over the years a variety of different reading models have been postulated, such as dual route models, connectionist models, analogy models and so on. These models attempt to account for all stages of reading, i.e. from word recognition to accessing meaning. However, for the purpose of this essay I will be looking solely at the parts of the models which explain how we manage to pronounce words and read them out loud. For this essay I intend to summarise and the dual route model of reading and compare it to another model in order to see which one provides the best account of reading out loud.

Colheart et all in Harvey 2001 states that in order for any reading model to be successful it need to answer the following 6 questions:

- How do readers read irregular words out loud?
- How do readers read pseudowords out loud?
- How do readers make judgements of lexical decision?
- How does it account for acquired surface dyslexia?
- How does it account for acquired phonological dyslexia?
How does it account for developmental dyslexia?

- S1 = Reading models account for all stages of reading
- S2 = Pronunciation and reading out loud will only be focussed on here
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

**304 KC 3 LING 16**

The two types of dyslexia can be explained using dual route methodology, you are either impaired in the direct route or in the non direct route. A surface dyslexic is impaired in the direct route as they are unable to extract words from the mental lexicon. A phonological dyslexic on the other hand is impaired in the non-direct route, as they are unable to apply rules in order to pronounce pseudowords. However the experiments also found that there was not a clear dissociation between impairments in the direct and non direct route. There appeared to be cross over's between the two, these finding are inconsistent with the dual route theories which claim that there are two completely separate routes through which we make lexical decision. We can assume that they are somehow dependant on one another, however this is not stated or explained in any dual route theory. Further support for dual route theory lies in the fact that there have been no documented cases of people with dyslexia who can only read irregular words and not regular words or visa versa. This supports the idea that these two are read along the same route.

- S1 = Impairments in the direct route lead to 1 sort of dyslexia and impairments in the indirect route lead to another sort of dyslexia
- S2 = Experiments found that these 2 different routes aren’t clearly defined
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

**326 KC 3 LING 20**

It is clear to see the cracks already in the status of Welsh, which are common themes also seen in South Africa: negative attitudes, the economic advantage of the English language and therefore English being considered in education. However, despite all these factors, there has been a definite turn around over recent years regarding language policy and planning. Barbour explains; "the Welsh language is in a stronger position" than other minority languages as it possesses no history of ethnic or religious conflict, and the cultural traditions transmitted through the language are a vital and important factor to the Welsh identity. The underlying and stabilising factor of these issues must therefore be effective policy introduced by the government in promoting the Welsh culture and language.

- S1 = negative factors are impairing the status of Welsh
- S2 = things are better
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent S1/ has greater importance than S1

**348 KC 3 LING 22**

Plot: “Clown” is dense at the beginning of the play, but there is a large chunk in the middle where it
is completely non-existent. Could this possibly mean a more serious theme is being dealt with here? The pattern of “clown” correlates with “fool”, which isn’t so often used but there is a large chunk in the middle where it isn’t seen at all. “Love” is relatively consistent throughout, as has been seen in all the plays of varying degrees. “Youth” and “mad” occur sporadically, as these themes are introduced into the play. “Mad” is not really seen until quite late in the play. “Sweet” and “peace” seem to co-occur, following the same plot, however “peace” is slightly more concentrated. “Devil” interestingly occurs as frequently as “pray” in the spread of plot. Finally, “heart” is another consistent theme, including localised bursts throughout the play.

- S1 = “Sweet” and “peace” seem to occur equally frequently
- S2 = “Peace” is more concentrated in its distribution
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2 (although there is use of ‘seem to’ the function of this paragraph appears to be listing occurrences rather than developing arguments as to why the occurrences are so)

370 KC 3 LING 26

The main balance of positive and negative and the overall tone of the Times article can be seen from the very last line of the article. Paragraph 11 would initially seem to be a negative for Liverpool; however, the quote from Benitez is “that may be a positive”. This clearly is the idea that the author wishes to leave a positive impression from the article and also wishes to show the humour and Liverpool’s understated confidence that they are able to lose a player for one game and have that seen as a positive. The Sun has a more formulaic layout with the positives followed by the negatives. The length of the negative is exactly the same as the Times, which equates to a higher percentage of the report in the Sun than the Times. The negative ending in the Sun is interesting because you would expect the piece to end positively, in keeping with the overall tone of the article. The likely reason for the negative ending is that the author would not wish to include a negative section in the main body of the positive text. Conversely, the Times article does not believe that the audience will be disrupted from the overall sense of the piece and that the negative will help ground the tone of the text to one that is not completely positive and therefore unrealistic.

- S1 = paragraph 11 appears negative
- S2 = Benitez uses the word ‘positive’
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

392 KC 3 LING 30

We have seen that in the areas of immigration and language teaching there is a benefit to the government of having a workforce that is skilled and able to speak English. There is also a benefit to immigrants to be able to speak English. There are areas where there may be accusations of this language policy infringing linguistic human rights; however, as mentioned in the introduction, the choice has been made by the immigrant to learn English.

- S1 = immigrants’ human rights may be infringed
- S2 = immigrants have made the choice themselves
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance
than S1

414 KC 3 LING 32

“One” concords most often with “Formula” in the L1 position which shows that it is frequently used as part of the proper noun "Formula One". However, from the concords in the R1 and R2 position it can be seen that the trigram “one of the” is a common phrase on a report. The second most frequent concord of “one” in the R1 position is “point”. This is clearly another example of “one” being used as an adjective describing a gradable quality of the noun.

- S1 = ‘One’ is frequently used as part of a proper noun (in L1 position)
- S2 = ‘One of the’ is part of a common phrase on a report (in R1 and R2 position)
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

436 KC 3 LING 36

The access to the name of pictures is less automatic than the access to the semantic information, however for words the naming information is more automatic than the semantic information. Carr suggests that the visual stimulus of a word is similar to its phonological sound as the visual image of a picture is expressive of its meaning but does not relate to its phonological sound; pictures are more similar to their meanings and words are more similar to their names. This implies that the more similar a stimulus is to its mental representation, the more automatic the process must be. Pictures interfere with categorising words but words do not interfere with categorising pictures, this must be because generally the category of a picture is readily visual (fruit all look like fruit) but this is not true of a written word. Words interfere with naming pictures but pictures do not interfere with naming words - this is because the name of a word is more similar to a word but a visual form is not like the written word. As with the study by McCauley et al (1980) Carr et al's findings seem to support distinct systems for word recognition and object recognition.

- S1 = access to the name and semantic information for pictures
- S2 = access to naming information and semantic information for words
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

458 KC 3 LING 41

Studies of prosopagnosia can be split into those that look at the condition in people who have been born with it, such as Cecilia Burman (see Case Study below), and those in which the condition has developed at some point in a person's life for some reason. The latter could perhaps be seen as easier to examine as it is arguably clearer to see psychical damage or anomalies to a previously healthy brain than genetic or physiological anomalies that could have been developed in the womb. As such, child-onset prosopagnosia is uncommon and under-researched in literature (Barton et al 2003). However, Barton (et al 2003) suggest that there are a few minor differences between developmental and adult-onset prosopagnosia, including testing that showed that the adult-onset condition was perhaps not as face-specific than in people who had been born with it. Acquired prosopagnosia can also be categorised into subtypes, two of which are most commonly used and researched; apperceptive, where an individual cannot piece together parts of a face ergo see the face as a whole and facilitating recognition, and associative, where an individual sees most of the face as a whole but cannot
compare the image with those that are stored in their memory (Barton et al. 2003).

- S1 = child-onset prosopagnosia is under-researched
- S2 = there are differences between developmental and adult onset varieties
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1 (under-researched), but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1 (there is evidence of differences).

The idea of a country that is united by a common language has been an influential policy for some nations. However, although the notion of “one nation, one language” could be seen as a better way for a country to exist, it is nevertheless not applicable to every country. For instance it would not be reasonable for a small country such as Luxembourg, which is landlocked by France, Belgium and Germany, to promote only one language as each of the neighbouring countries have an impact and so Luxembourg has three official languages: French, German and Luxembourgish. This situation illustrates that one nation’s policy may not be suitable for another, but a country that does promote monolingualism is the United States of America. The US seems the ideal country with which to explore the advantages and disadvantages of a monolingual language policy as English has been the majority language over the last two hundred years, but this situation could potentially change due to factors such as globalisation and immigration. The current position of the US on English monolingualism has various merits and demerits: this essay will attempt to divide these into different areas such as the history of the US, the notion of an American identity, a resident’s personal sense of identity, practicality, cost and personal advantages. Although these are some issues that are complex and fall into more than one of these categories, it is hoped that such a division will give a clearer framework in order to discuss the relative merits and demerits of the American situation.

- S1 = a common national language has been influential policy for many nations
- S2 = it is not applicable for every nation
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1.

Irish

How then, have language planning decisions affected the decline in the use of Irish? Already a minority language by the turn of the twentieth century - with 19.2% speakers in 1901 compared to 29.1% fifty years earlier (Ó Riagáin, 2001) - attempts to halt its decline began in 1922 when it was designated the “national language”, with competence in it necessary to enter the civil service, police, and army (Gardner, Serralvo and Williams, 2000). However, the concern was not solely for the revival of the language itself, but was instead motivated by a need to assert the independence of the Republic of Ireland and to distance Irish culture(540,599),(892,679) from British. The revival of Irish was also seen as a way to support those mainstays of Irish culture, the rural and agricultural communities, and thus in the 1920s state policies were implemented to promote the use of Irish and to maintain the Gaeltacht regions where Irish was still predominant (Gardner, Serralvo and Williams, 2000). As in the example of Welsh language revival, the area where the promotion of Irish was most concentrated was in education system.

- S1 = attempts to revive the Irish language began in 1922
- S2 = concern was not only language revival
Bamgbose (1998) defines an error as a mistake or uneducated usage, and contrasts this with an innovation, which he describes as an acceptable variant. It can be difficult to distinguish between the two, however, the issue often resolved only by appeal to a native variety's norms (Bamgbose, 1998). In contrast to Quirk's (1990) unwavering belief in [QUOTE], many other linguists oppose this view, noting variously that there is either no such thing (Kachru, 1982), or that at best, the variety is difficult to define in terms of linguistic and functional features (Gnutzmann, 2005); Quirk himself does not give a definition for Standard English. Bamgbose (1998) dispenses with the notion of a single standard, suggesting instead three different types of norms: a code norm, which is the [QUOTE] variety of language used for official purposes; a feature norm, which is a typical property of the language at, for example, syntactic or phonological level; and a behavioural norm, which is an established convention or pattern of behaviour used when speaking the language. Innovations are realised by five different factors (Bamgbose, 1998), namely demographic, geographical, authoritative, codification, and acceptability. Thus, if a large number of people use the variant, if the variant is widely dispersed, if the variant is used by authoritative institutions such as the media or publishing houses, if the variant is codified by its inclusion in a dictionary or reference manual of the language, or if the usage achieves widespread acceptance, the variant becomes an innovation, a form separate from a native variety of English. However, such non-native innovations are not necessarily greeted with approval, and, despite the fact that innovations express identity and solidarity, many non-native speakers continue to herald native varieties as ideals to be aspired to (Bamgbose, 1998). Bamgbose (1998) concludes that, for complete and widespread recognition of non-native innovation and variation: and, ultimately, institutionalisation, codification is a crucial factor in implementing the local norm. Interestingly, Quirk (1990) appears to support this view in theory, although he further notes that he has not come across any determined language policies intent on standardising non-native varieties and providing them with equal status. Kachru (1991) however is a little more sceptical, stating that although language policies and other conscious efforts play their parts in the institutionalisation of a language, the process in reality is more organic, being more a matter of recognition of social, cultural, historical, and linguistic realities.

S1 = Codification is vital for recognition of non-native innovation, according to Bamgose
S2 = Kachru is sceptical, and believes the process is organic
Non concessive contrast
Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2 (There is an idea of concession but it is Kachru’s concession that Bamgose may have a point. The author doesn’t favour either side here, instead reporting the positions of the linguists)
the poverty line. There are also low rates of education: only 24% are high school graduates and 2% have a degree.

- S1 = Traditional housing was isolated and lacking
- S2 = Government housing is grouped and has facilities
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

Despite these major flaws, psychometric testing is still the major form of testing in many countries. This is because the single, standardised grade that it produces makes it ideal for public visibility and trust. Politicians use the results to prove that their educational policies have been successful and parents view the figures in league tables in order to find the best school for their children. The results are also used for gate-keeping and certification purposes, such as the A-level exam in the UK, which determines university entrance. It is clear that psychometric testing will remain because these are important functions. However, there has been a shift towards formative assessment (reflected in the growing uptake of the International Baccalaureate exam over the A-level) as it offers significant advantages over psychometric testing.

- S1 = Psychometric testing will remain as it has important functions
- S2 = There has been a shift to formative assessment
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent has greater importance than S1

Having looked at the advantages of the nativist theories of language acquisition, what can be concluded from this? Firstly, the approach appears to provide general justifications of some parts of child language acquisition. Secondly, the ideas of poverty of stimulus, LAD do have universality to an extent. However, a setback would be the models complete focus on language production and lack of focus on language comprehension. The latter of which the social constructivists draw attention to. However parameter settings and constraints can be justified. As they denote why people have difficulty in acquiring a second language. As it is assumed that parameters adapt to the language you are exposed to in the first stages of your life these parameters may have an immense amount of difficulty when you try to learn another language. This may because the parameter may have to revert and digress to the initial settings, which of course have been set are problematical to change.

- S1 = Advantages of nativist theories
- S2 = Disadvantages of the model
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

Working in parallel with EDD is, as earlier mentioned, an Intentionality Detector (ID). ID attributes a volitional state (an intention) to an object (an agent) when that object moves, through self-propulsion, towards another object (its target). Such representations of volitional states enable us to explain, by inferred analogy with ourselves, why animals move, as otherwise their movements would appear random (Baron-Cohen:1995). ID enables us to infer explanations such as, [QUOTE], and offers the evolutionary attraction of bestowing the ability to predict the movements of potential predators, and prey when hunting. Most people spontaneously describe moving things
in terms of volitional states - even geometric objects moving on a screen - so self-propelled movement attracts intuitive human intentional attributions, even when we know there are none (ibid). According to Baron-Cohen, ID can process information from any sensory input, but, in normally developing infants, this is largely visual. In this way, both EDD and ID enable prelinguistic infants to attribute simple intentional and perceptual states to other living creatures. For example, IDD creates representations such as [Mummy-has goal-cup], and EDD creates representations such as [Mummy-looks at-cup]. These representations are “diadic” in that they are construed from the relationship between two objects. However, if these diadic representations are combined, triadic (three object) representations can also be construed, and this is the function of the Shared Attention Mechanism (SAM). SAM creates representations such as [Mummy-sees-(I-see-cup)], and [Mummy-has goal- (I-look at-cup)] - viz. representations of shared attention. Hence, it would seem that word-learning emerges through shared attention experienced through two modes (normally seeing and hearing), enabling the association of a sight (an object) with a sound (a word).

- S1 = EDD and ID are dyadic representations
- S2 = Diadic representations can be combined into triadic representations
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

55 KC 2 LING 09

English born speakers are given a higher status than non-English speaking immigrants because English is arrogantly looked upon as a language of superiority and this impression affects the non-Standard English speakers also. Most varieties of English and many accents are looked down upon, some even regarded as uneducated or backwards. It is ironic, however, that those in power who attempt to force Standard English through the education system appear to not realise that the English language, the standard that they are so fond of is made up of a vast number of foreign words which infiltrated into the system once, previous to which they belonged to another language or variety, something they oppose. Now, however, rich diversity is unacceptable, rather, derogatory terms such as [QUOTE] are implemented and such labels become a common term, the negative connotation attached to it spreads. The negative attitudes held towards ethnic minority communities often manifest themselves in the form of linguistic prejudice against the language of these communities, which therefore tend to be regarded as low status. As Auer stated, identity is partly constructed through language, and no one wants to be associated with which they themselves think is [QUOTE]; which perhaps explains why Amaljeet thinks that Asian people use English when trying to impress someone [QUOTE] (Data C).

- S1 = varieties of English are looked down on
- S2 = Those who impose standard English seem unaware of its composition of foreign words etc
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

74 KC 2 LING 18

This qualitative study was conducted in the form of an interview with a second year BA English Language & Communication student at King’s College London. The interviewee is from Skipton, North Yorkshire and is of Chinese ethnicity. This report includes the methods in which the study was conducted and the key findings and conclusions. These key findings include the interviewee's...
constructed social identity and the parental pressure that has been applied on him along with the
notion that education leads to economic success. However, the main focus of this report was
intended to be that of the north-south divide and various issues caused by the divide in England
between the north and the south are discussed within.

- S1 = Key findings include constructed social identity etc
- S2 = The main focus is on the north-south divide
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance
  than S1

93 KC 2 LING 23

It is clear from Appendix 4 that the South West dialect speakers that I questioned understood a
majority of the lexis I identified as being use in the Lichfield area. This suggests that lexical
variation between regional dialects is not as substantial as it has been in the past which again may be
due to better communication and transport links to other parts of the country and therefore more
communication between different regional dialects these days (Holmes, 76: 2001). E.g. the
participants in Appendix 4 seem to have learnt aspects of lexis from the West Midlands dialect from
communicating with me and maybe other people from this region that go to our University. I know
that participant 1’s understanding of the word [QUOTE] has come from me using this word to refer to
Birmingham around her. Moreover, when my friend goes back to the South West she may use this
lexis to refer to Birmingham, as she has come to do so around me, and so her family and friends in
the South West may also gain an understanding of this lexis. This supports Trudgill's (1974: 15)
argument that it is not possible to state in linguistic terms where people stop speaking one dialect and
start speaking another. Better transport and communication links between different regions these
days has resulted in individuals having a better understanding of lexis used in different regions. So
some lexical aspects originally considered part of one particular regional dialect may now be
considered by others in different regions to also be a part of their dialect. For example, participant 1
would use [QUOTE] and participant 2 would use [QUOTE], which I have listed as lexis specific to
the Lichfield area. However, some lexis still appears to be specific to the Lichfield area, i.e.,
participant 2 only uses six of the words and expressions and participant one claims to use eight.

- S1 = Example of Litchfield dialect used outside of Litchfield
- S2 = Example of Litchfield dialect used only in Litchfield
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance
  than S1 (there is still Litchfield specific dialect)

112 KC 2 LING 26

Overall, the informant appears to identify herself as middle/upper class i.e. she describes her school
as [QUOTE] (line 184, Appendix 1) suggesting that it is of a higher class than other public schools,
hers parents are helping her financially through university (line 266, Appendix 1) and her evaluation
that [QUOTE] (line 76) seems to be an evaluation of people from her own class of people. The
informant also seems to identify her accent as that of the middle classes i.e. [QUOTE] (line 691,
Appendix 1) Therefore, the issue of class seems to be salient to the informant in the topic of
becoming and being a student. This connects to the issue of language, as language does not appear
to be an issue in the sense of a language barrier for the informant. I.e. even though she is an
American student at a British university, she does not mention having difficulty understanding
British accents in her classes. However, if the informant did not have the middle class background
that she identifies herself with in this interview, her accent may have had connotations of being from a lower class i.e. Southern American and may have been more distinct from British accents and so resulted in a language barrier for the informant, being an American student in a British university which may have affected her overall experience of being a student. This is supported by Trudgill's accent triangle, which suggests that [QUOTE] (1983, in Holmes, 2001: 131).

However, there are limitations to my analysis, i.e. the informant may have created an image of herself that is untrue and might have been influenced in her responses by what she perceived the interviewers to represent. Also, what a person says in an interview might be affected by the mood they are in etc. Moreover, my analysis is based on just one 1-hour long interview and if I had more time to analyse and compare it with other interviews with the informant I would get to know the interviewee better and my qualitative analysis would be stronger and maybe if I interviewed more people I would be able to generalise my conclusions. However, through using my knowledge of becoming and being a student to interpret the data I was able to build up a picture of the informant's feelings and evaluations of these issues through the informant's language use.

- S1 = Analysis in the previous paragraph
- S2 = Limitations to the analysis
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

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The fact that written English appears to be more standardised than spoken English may be down to how written Standard English is promoted in the education system. “Standard English is the language used in education—education must use Standard English” (Stubbs, 1988 in Wilkinson, 1995: 28). Wilkinson (1995: 29) argues that attitudes to English teaching are based upon the views of people who are committed to an “erroneously simplistic model of what the English language is”. However, as we have discussed, there are many varieties of English. Therefore, Crowley (2003: 241) discusses the teaching of different varieties of English like we teach other languages such as French and German. Therefore, no one variety is automatically superior. However, some argue against this claiming that it is not practicable. But, [QUOTE] (Wilkinson, 1995: 30).

Wilkinson (1995: 19) argues therefore that process of S.E. in education [QUOTE]. As we have discussed it is used by a minority (Crystal, 1995 (in Jenkins, 2003: 31)), this may be the consequence of people not wanting to lose their identity as language use plays a big part in an individual’s identity. For example, Wardhaugh (2002: 86) discusses how much of Standard English teaching in Jamaica has proved to be insignificant which he suggests may be due to the people of Jamaica rebelling against use of spoken S.E. in order to hold onto their personal dialect and so maintain their identity. This seems to suggest further the need for the notion of [QUOTE].

- S1 = When it comes to English teaching, attitudes are based on the views of people who act as if there is only one variety of English language
- S2 = there are many varieties of English
- Non concessive contrast
- S2 & S1 are incompatible

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Conversation Analysis
The first extract begins with Philip proposing that a [QUOTE] would be to ask the interviewee about how she felt when she got her GCSE results. This meets with interest from Emma ( [QUOTE] ) and support from Becky ( [QUOTE] ) stimulating Philip to outline why he proposed the question. However, the dwindling amplitude, tempo and pitch of Philip's speech anticipates Becky's taking the floor at Philip's clause boundary, “in terms of her personal development”. This contrasts with Emma whose “uh-hm” backchannels invite Philip to continue. Philip does indeed attempt to continue, but Becky's entry, marked by greater amplitude, pitch and tempo secures the floor. Philip gives way and supports Becky with [QUOTE]. However, Becky's statement and tag question, [QUOTE], followed by [QUOTE] serves not to introduce a new idea but to support Philip's argument. Philip therefore supports this with a second [QUOTE] and [QUOTE] the floor with [QUOTE]. But in fact Becky hasn't finished and she too continues, starting her next clause as Philip starts his. Note, as before, dwindling amplitude and tempo in the floorholder's speech presages change of floorholder, so this time Becky gives way to Philip - but only for Philip to hesitate more. This gives Becky the opportunity to take the floor again and she does so considerably more decisively than before. Her utterance, [QUOTE], is characterised by gradual diminution from high amplitude/pitch to low amplitude/pitch, and she marks the word [QUOTE] with a falling pitch of (in music) a minor third (e.g. G to E). This utterance conveys the strength of Becky's belief in the importance of asking the question [QUOTE] in addition to [QUOTE]. This stimulates simultaneous (choral) expressions of support from Emma ( [QUOTE] ) and Philip ( [QUOTE] ). Becky continues in a similar vein with [QUOTE], to which Philip latches [QUOTE] to which Becky, in her turn, latches [QUOTE]. Over this time, Emma indicates her interest with [QUOTE]. Becky reiterates [QUOTE], again marking [QUOTE] with falling pitch in a low key. [QUOTE], she repeats.

• S1 = Interest and support from the listeners encourages Philip to continue
• S2 = Philip’s dwindling amplitude etc anticipates Becky taking the floor
• Non concessive contrast
• Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

169 KC 2 LING37

Methodology

My broad methodology was determined by King's College, London. This was that (i) I was to work in a group; (ii) the means of data gathering was to be an interview; and (iii) the research undertaken should be about [QUOTE]. It was for my group, however, (Becky, Emma and I) to determine (a) our interviewee, (b) our interviewer, and (c) the interviewer's lines of enquiry. My detailed methodology I base on Allat (1993) who, following Bourdieu, Nowotny, Wallman, and Pahl, sets out a framework for the analysis of the production and deployment of a family's cultural capital. By this I mean [QUOTE] (ibid:143). Thus my methodology was partly imposed partly collective and partly a matter of my own choice. Specifically, then, I examine how our subject was involved in [QUOTE] (ibid) using interview, introspection, documentary research, and participant observation.

• S1 = The broad methodology was determined by KC
• S2 = The specific methods were determined by student group
• Non concessive contrast
• Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

188 KC 3 LING 04
Through the theoretical work which has been carried out in this field and how this has tied in with the data, it can be seen how many useful and relevant conceptions have been put forward to help make sense of the influences of these changing modes and the effects they have on making meaning in society. They also highlight how every individual is responsible for encoding the various modes they are presented with in order to derive meaning from them, however, this generally takes place subconsciously, with there being little evidence of mindful activation of these codes. Nevertheless, a consideration of their occurrence needs to be observed in order to understand, how contextual and social beliefs play a part in meaning-making processes, and how this may be changing the interpretations and understandings of the modern world.

- S1 = individuals are responsible for encoding modes and deriving meaning
- S2 = this happens subconsciously
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1 (the implied suggestion that encoding modes and deriving meaning is conscious process), but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

Also, as we look further down the list we see that the next most frequent reference to women is “wife”, however does no appear until much further down the list in 12th place. This shows that when women are referred to they are most commonly wives, however, men appear to have many more roles that are more relevant to the stories in the Bible than being husbands.

- S1 = “wife” is the next most frequent referent in the list
- S2 = “husband” is further down the list
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

Feedback from pilot

The completer answer sheets from our pilot can be found in APP4. After the pilot studies we conducted a small interview with each of the groups, in order to gain feedback. All of the points they made can be found in the APP4. However, the main points are listed below:

- > Very Long
- > Very time consuming
- > Tedious
- > Boring

- S1 = the complete data is in the appendix
- S2 = The main points are listed below
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

245 KC 3 LING 09
With the drive for globalisation South Africans are undoubtedly feeling that English is there way in. Once again this is beneficial for those who speak English as a first language anyway, however with South Africa's somewhat failing education system, the amount of people who become confident English speakers is limited. Once again this creates a divide between people depending on what language they speak.

- S1 = English is a way into the global market, especially beneficial for L1 speakers
- S2 = The education system isn’t producing enough proficient L2 English speakers
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1 (the failing education system fails L2 speakers)

Conclusion

Quirk and Kachru both provide a strong argument, both of which have had there ideas supported and critiqued by other linguists. In general I found it easier to find support of the ideas of Kachru than for Quirk. However I am reluctant to conclude that this means that all of Quirks ideas should be banished. To a certain extent, I agree with his views. Quirk maintains that English is only native to the inner circle or ENL countries. Therefore this is the form that learners across the world should endeavour to learn. A view which I feel follows a logical pattern. My support for Quirk wavers however when he fails to acknowledge that fact that a variety of changes do happen to the English language in the outer circles. This is where my support for Kachru takes over, these changes to the English language are regular and systematic. Therefore the language is somewhat natavised into that particular country. Although Indian English does have some differences, they are not so grand that they make it a completely alien language to the rest of the English speaking world. Therefore, like Halliday suggests teaching English through local varieties in schools or other forms of education I feel is acceptable. Through Quirks black and white argument, he underestimates the intelligence of people in outer circle countries. Fact is, if they wanted to use and learn a form of English which is standard in the inner circle countries they would endeavour to do so.

- S1 = Other linguists support the ideas of Kachru above Quirk
- S2 = Not all the ideas of Quirk are irrelevant
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

The tests managed to prove that there did exist two different types of developmental dyslexia, surface and phonological dyslexia. Surface dyslexia patients are able to read pseudowords and words with regular spelling to sound relationships however they were unable to read irregular words. On the other hand, patients with phonological dyslexia were able to read words that were known before the onset of dyslexia. However they were unable to read pseudowords out loud Benser in Balota et al 1999 The next step they took was to find out which model of reading, dual route or connectionist could account for the existence of these types of dyslexia.

- S1 = Surface dyslexia patients are able to ...
- S2 = They are unable to ...
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2
After the collapse of Apartheid, there were many language models for the new African government to consider. By 1996, the South African Constitution declared 11 languages as having official status at the national level (Webb, 1999). This move was in support of the new [QUOTE], which was based on [QUOTE] i.e. unity within diversity. The move of declaring 11 languages as being official was a key indication of the government's attempts at recognising the multilingual nature of society and embracing equal cultural diversity within South Africa. Institutions were appointed in support of this effort of recognising a multilingual society, for example the Commission for the Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Cultural, Religious and Linguistic Communities (Webb, 1999). An example of the language planning decisions which took place around this time includes the appointment of the Language Task Group which proposed a framework for national language policy. The Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology also took measures to introduce a Telephone Interpreting System, and also embarked on an extensive Language Awareness Campaign, which included seminars and lectures in a bid to develop new language policy (Webb, 1999).

This is only a small sample of some key measures which were a result of the new “language ideology” of the South African Constitution. However, although the process seems relatively straightforward, this is far from the case in reality. Firstly, if all 11 languages are to be strengthened, language policies have to be created which cater for equal linguistic rights, i.e. fairly allocating resources to all groups in all areas of public life, especially education and the media. Secondly, and extremely importantly, after such a traumatic history of oppression and racial tension, what sort of attitudes existed regarding the different languages? This is where policy-making begins to become quite a complex issue. After years of negative attitudes, and Afrikaans being the [QUOTE] language of South Africa, would it really have been easy to drop this prejudice towards other languages by the native Afrikaans speakers? Also, a different slant on attitudes is highlighted by Fishman (1999). Afrikaans is immediately associated with the white people of Dutch descent, however, as it was imposed as being the sole language of South Africa for a number of years, it was therefore the mother tongue of a large number of people who were classed as [QUOTE] during Apartheid, whose linguistic and cultural rights were seriously limited. This highlights the problem that there must have been many different interests of different groups for particular languages, such as Afrikaans and similarly for English too.

- S1 = There were some key measures introduced as a result of the new ‘language ideology’
- S2 = They weren’t straightforward
- Concession

The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1.

From this chart, it can be seen that overall the count of these words occur more in merchant of Venice, which can be expected as this was the play with the highest count of words overall. However, even though this is the longest of all 4 plays, it can be seen that in the case of “love”, the Merchant of Venice has the least references out of all, and Midsummer Night’s Dream has the highest which is surprising as this is the shortest of all 4 plays.

- S1 = Overall the word count is greatest in ‘Merchant of Venice’
- S2 = ‘Love’ occurs least frequently in ‘Merchant of Venice’
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance
The socio-politics of Grammar in curricula

Education is one of the most debated and contested issues in British society today. Not only is it high on political agenda, but inches of newspaper columns are devoted regularly to discussions regarding issues such as teaching methods, the National Curriculum, league tables and assessment results. An example of the scale of the controversy surrounding education is [QUOTE], which is a term that was coined in the 1970's, during which time Labour MP John Callaghan was Prime Minister. The debate originated as a result of Callaghan recognising escalating fears of [QUOTE] in a speech that was made at a college in Oxford. This set the wheels in motion for key changes to the education system, however change never occurs without strong, conflicting opinions and the case of education is no exception (Callaghan, 2001). In this assignment, the focus shall be directed solely on the subject of the teaching of English. This is a particularly controversial area of education due to such strong, opposing beliefs that exist as to what the [QUOTE] methods and main objectives should be in the teaching of English. An example of a key opinion can already be seen in the quote which this assignment is based around: the belief that a traditional grammar method is most effective as, above all, it embeds values and rules which will ultimately lead to a well-behaved, cohesive population in wider society, as a result of a shared knowledge of these so-called [QUOTE].

- S1 = Key changes in education were set in motion by Callaghan’s speech
- S2 = Change never occurs without conflict
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

It appears that there is currently no evidence to support the hypothesis that women will not be able to correctly produce past participles but men will. However, the next section will see some statistical test that will analyse whether there are any relationships between the variables.

- S1 = No evidence exists that men form the past participles better than women
- S2 = The next section gives results of a statistical test into production of past participles by gender
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent S1/ has greater importance than S1

Most hypotheses (e.g. Active Filler Hypothesis, Trace Reactivation Hypothesis and Direct Association Hypothesis) work on the basis that establishing the filler-gap dependency requires the reconstruction of the gap when a potential filler is found. The extension of these theories found that an “island” or “landing site” facilitated integration. However, the main theory that has arisen is the “Active Filler Hypothesis”.

Keeping filler-gap dependencies as short as possible is the basis of the “Active Filler Hypothesis” (Clifton & Frazier, 1989 from Marinis et al., 2005). They found that these gaps play an important role during parsing. The hypothesis states that the filler actively analyzes the lexical input.
surrounding the gap. However, Clifton & Frazier state that [QUOTE] (Clifton & Frazier, 1989).
This would suggest that until the gap can be adequately filled, there is an imprint of what the gap
was. For there to be an imprint of the gap, the gap must be put into memory. Therefore, an aspect
of language processing is the availability of working memory. As Gibson and Pearlmutter stated,
there are some constraints that act on processing. Memory must be another constraint if there is to be
filler-gap resolution. Therefore, working memory must be a factor in the processing of language.
This is logical and would back-up the Shallow Structure's beliefs that syntactic processing is never
used by L2 learners. This may be because the other, more frequently used, constraints take up a
high percentage of working memory, there is no working memory left to use syntactic processing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S1</th>
<th>The A F Hypothesis is just one of several hypotheses stating X</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>The A F Hypothesis has been selected as the main representative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Concession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

416 KC 3 LING 33

Literature Review

Comparing two texts for likeness was outlined in Kilgariff and Salkie's article. They believed that
two corpuses could be measured for similarity by comparing corpus homogeneity. An adaptation of
that idea has been used to analyse this article. Kilgariff and Salkie require corpuses to be analysed
for frequency then using [QUOTE] (Kilgariff and Salkie, 1996). The problem with using the c2
test for analysing the Queen's Speech is that each speech is too short to be analysed properly. The
results would show that most of the words in the Queen's Speech are key words as the percentage of
usage is higher than would be expected for a large corpus. Therefore, any comparisons between the
short speeches and the long reports would cause inaccuracies as they are not fair tests. The article
states that comparison between small and large corpuses can be overcome by normalisation. However,
the problem of comparable analysis stands as the Queen's Speech is written in a different
register and different style to news reports. Therefore, doing a direct comparison between the two
corpuses using traditional statistical analysis would provide misleading results. Accordingly, a
simpler method of analysis will be used to compare the Queen's Speech and the reports.

- S1 = differences between small and large corpora can be overcome by normalisation
- S2 = this still leaves the problem of different registers and styles
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance
  than S1

435 KC 3 LING 36

The study by Carr et al. (1982) investigated how words and pictures are recognised and their
meaning is understood, by measuring the time taken to name a target with respect to the prime that
preceded it. The exposure time of the words for the subjects had to be longer than the time given for
pictures. This particular pattern was previously noted by Cattell (1886, in Carr et al.) who
attributed the shorter time needed to name a word than to name a picture to our automatic ability to
read a word unlike the naming of a picture which is voluntary. They found that the meaning of
pictures is grasped more easily than words but the naming of pictures is slower and more demanding
than the naming of words. When categorising the target, a picture prime affects the process but a
word prime does not. However, when naming the target an opposite trend was seen, a word prime
affected the naming of a picture but a picture prime did not. If the name information for words is retrieved quicker than pictures, this supports the Logogen model where the input and output logogen systems of words have a direct connection unlike pictures. If a dual coding theory is accurate then this suggests that words should prime words, pictures should prime pictures, and neither should prime the other; however, if there is a common system for words and pictures then one should also be able to prime the other.

The access to the name of pictures is less automatic than the access to the semantic information, however for words the naming information is more automatic than the semantic information. Carr suggests that the visual stimulus of a word is similar to its phonological sound as the visual image of a picture is expressive of its meaning but does not relate to its phonological sound; pictures are more similar to their meanings and words are more similar to their names. This implies that the more similar a stimulus is to its mental representation, the more automatic the process must be. Pictures interfere with categorising words but words do not interfere with categorising pictures, this must be because generally the category of a picture is readily visual (fruit all look like fruit) but this is not true of a written word. Words interfere with naming pictures but pictures do not interfere with naming words - this is because the name of a word is more similar to a word but a visual form is not like the written word. As with the study by McCauley et al (1980) Carr et al's findings seem to support distinct systems for word recognition and object recognition.

- S1 = Dual theory suggests words should prime words and pictures should prime pictures
- S2 = If a common system exists then one should be able to prime the other
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

454 KC 3 LING 39

I will therefore conclude the hypothesis set is correct to a certain extent in that right hemispheric activity is proven to have an effect in the onset of stuttering. However, I would revise the hypothesis to account for the combining effect of the numerous factors highlighted, which appear to each play an important role in the development of the disorder.

- S1 = right hemispheric activity affects stuttering
- S2 = there are other factors involved
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

473 KC 3 LING 43

Where Heath and Bernstein diverge is in terms of the ethnographic aspect of their writings. Heath provides much detail into how her recordings were taken and the individual families concerned. Bernstein, however, provides no detailed discourse analysis and although there are some allusions to data having been collected (the middle and working class mothers different approaches in coercing their respective children, for example) it is difficult to assess the validity of Bernstein's conclusions when the empirical materials and the methodology of their gathering is not explicitly defined or discussed.

- S1 = Heath provides discourse analysis
- S2 = Bernstein doesn't provide discourse analysis
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2
A further category that requires discussion is that of practicality: is one language for a country practical or not? It makes perfect sense to support the notion of a community in which all citizens are able to communicate in the chosen language and thus be aware of the national policy but this may be an idealistic view of a complicated situation. Even if there is one official language it does not necessarily mean all the citizens can speak it, so diversity might as well be encouraged and the needs of others supported. According to Kaplan & Baldauf (1997) one national language is a sensible idea because the smaller languages would die out anyway. This thinking is line with the current American attitude which denies all support for immigrants, but this is a severe policy as it enforces such a drastic result instead of letting it happen naturally. There is no reason to think that the minority languages place a substantial threat to English but they are viewed as such. If the minority languages were supported it seems a more positive outcome would happen where the immigrants feel America is a more accepting country that truly is a melting pot of different cultures.

However, although it seems more practical for there to be only one language, this is not true as many countries successfully operate using more than one language.

The lexis used in The Times is rather less sensational, presenting as broadsheets tend to a more sober view of the news item (Thorne, 1997). Instead of lauding Gordon Brown and the new Budget, the stance that The Times takes is more down to earth, with it made apparent on the front page that there will be [QUOTE], [QUOTE], and [QUOTE], and with a more balanced view of the news item presented throughout the text. On the one hand, The Times is cautiously congratulatory, with [QUOTE], [QUOTE], [QUOTE], [QUOTE], [QUOTE] (lines 6, 18, 67, 95 and 100, page 1), [QUOTE]; and [QUOTE], and [QUOTE] (lines 19 and 21, page 6). On the other hand, however, The Times also at times adopts a negative or cynical tone, with examples such as [QUOTE] and [QUOTE] (line 27, page 1 and line 111, page 2) implying that the Chancellor is not in fact all-powerful, in direct contrast to The Sun's buoyant [QUOTE]. In fact, throughout The Times text, Gordon Brown is occasionally presented as being devious or underhand, with a more critical and accusatory tone being employed in the examples [QUOTE], [QUOTE] (lines 31 and 41, page 1); [QUOTE] (line 69, page 2); [QUOTE], [QUOTE] (lines 135 and 192, page 1 [QUOTE]), and [QUOTE], [QUOTE] and [QUOTE] (lines 4, 18 and 86, page 14). There was not much evidence of word play in The Times, although metaphorical language seems to be used as much as in The Sun; however it has a more cynical or pessimistic ring to it when used in The Times, as the examples [QUOTE] and [QUOTE] (line 1, page 2; title, page 14) reveal. Interestingly, the extended metaphor - perhaps influenced by the [QUOTE] accusation by the opposition - is also used in The Times, although the examples [QUOTE], [QUOTE]’ sleight of hand [QUOTE] the element of conjuring [QUOTE] Budget 2007’) seem much more disparaging than the corresponding metaphorical expressions did in The Sun.
One key feature in the construction of a youth identity is the emphasis of, not only what youths actively embrace and affiliate with, but also what they reject. As mentioned above, in many cases it is adult authority which is rejected; however in Bucholtz's (1999) study of [QUOTE] in a Californian high school the rejection is of rather a different kind. Here, Negative Identity Practices are employed by the girls in order to distance themselves from what is perceived as [QUOTE]; while Positive Identity Practices emphasise the girls' group identity as [QUOTE] (Bucholtz, 1999). One key characteristic of the nerd identity is the interest taken in academic pursuits, and dedication to academic success. This is most clearly displayed by the linguistic Positive Identity Practices employed by the nerd girls; whose conversation is marked by the use of hypercorrect phonological and syntactic forms, and by the higher frequency usage of formal register words with Classical roots - such as [QUOTE] and [QUOTE] - in their conversation (Bucholtz, 1999). However, these Positive Identity Practices can be seen, not only in isolated uses of language, but also in the style of extended stretches of discourse. In one example in Bucholtz's (1999) study, one nerd girl initiates a conversation with the question [QUOTE], inviting the others to respond knowledgeably. Instead of admitting to not knowing the answer, the other members of the group respond by making a series of informed and intelligent guesses and further references to academic activities - one girl replies [QUOTE] - in order to try and outdo each other. Where knowledge and intelligence is prized more highly than conforming to accepted adolescent norms, the saving of one's positive face is seen as more desirable than the consideration of another's positive face; hence, several times in the conversation, one girl's attempts to self-repair her own speech error were repeatedly thwarted by another girl who, eager to point out and correct the mistake, completed the repair herself (Bucholtz, 1999).

The Navajo immersion programme was based on a programme first run for Maori speakers in New Zealand. The Maori are the tribes indigenous to New Zealand, before it was settled by Europeans in the late 18th century. At this time, the Treaty of Waitangi was signed by both parties. It aimed to give both parties rights; the Europeans to obtain the surrender of New Zealand to the British Crown and the Maori to be guaranteed ownership of their land and possessions. However, in practise the Europeans had illegally gained almost all Maori land a century later. The effects of this on the Maori included population and health decline and socioeconomic disadvantage. This combined with urbanisation in the late 20th century has lead to the Maori being disadvantaged today. For example, 60% of Maori aged over fifteen have no educational qualifications and so they tend be represented in low-waged occupations.
Gipps outlines two further assumptions of psychometric testing that cause problems (1994:6). The assumption of universality is that the test mark has the same meaning for all students; the test score represents the level of a general ability or construct and this is universally understood. **However**, the flaw is that many constructs such as reading require a number of skills, but only one aspect can be tested. **Therefore** the score does not represent the individual's level of general ability and so cannot be universally understood. The second assumption is of unidimensionality. It is assumed that items used in psychometric tests measure one attribute; therefore multi-dimensional items are excluded. This means that the test measures one attribute. **However**, the interpretations are generalised to the construct and are therefore invalid.

| 1 | S1 = The test measures one attribute                  |
| 2 | S2 = Results are generalised to the whole           |
| 3 | Non concessive contrast                             |
| 4 | S2 & S1 are incompatible                            |

An interesting point about the paper was the dispute and controversy over the content of the LAD. He specifically focuses on the inclusion of syntactic categories and principles. From a subjective point of view several factors came to mind. Firstly, if nativists are in a predicament about what the LAD comprises of then how is it to be analysed objectively? Secondly if they cannot agree about this issue then where do the advantages lie and how are we to assess what is positive about nativism and the innateness of language and where the criticisms and disadvantages of it lie. As mentioned before nativism undermines the role of interaction. **However** there are other “experiences” that have been excluded from its elaborate explanations. For these reason's I feel that at this point it is important to look at counter arguments to that of the nativists such as the social constructivist’s views on language acquisition (Harley: 2001.)

| 1 | S1 = Nativism undermines the role of interaction                      |
| 2 | S2 = Nativism has excluded ‘experiences’ from its elaborate explanations |
| 3 | Other                                                                 |
| 4 | ‘In addition’                                                         |

The research from Varley and Siegal (2000) was only performed on one aphasic man, which could make the results weak in terms of accuracy. The test was also only performed once; this does not give the test accurate results. **However** the findings are interesting as the researchers do suggest that the ability to comprehend and use language is related. There are not many researchers to this date that have found evidence to suggest that language use and comprehension are not linked in some form.

| 1 | S1 = The test was only done once which gives inaccurate results          |
| 2 | S2 = the findings are interesting                                    |
| 3 | Concession                                                            |
| 4 | The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1 |
From 14, every 14 until 252
Then from 264, every 14 until 06
Then 41, every 35 until 356

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>14 SU A LING 14</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The question is why English is so widely used in the Shoujo animes, and not in the Shonen. This question is difficult to answer, one can only speculate as to the reason. Apparently, there exists a trend where English words are used as keywords when denoting a Shoujo anime. In Shonen anime, however, English is for the most part not used at all. That English is used so much in Shoujo anime but not in others is a very interesting phenomenon, and one on which it would be interesting to conduct further research. Nevertheless, to conclude I would claim that the use of English in Japanese anime is a trend that is here to stay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- S1 = Shoujo anime - English used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- S2 = Shonen anime - English not used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Non concessive contrast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Writer reflects balance between S1 &amp; S2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>28 SU A LING 28</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In conclusion, the word whore has been used for hundreds of years to oppress women. This is connected to the patriarchy and control of female behaviour. Despite the fact that derogatory words used towards women are often overtly sexual (Lakoff 1975:24) the use of whore is not only associated with female sexuality, but is a means to categorize “unspecified bad women”. However, some women in the lesbian community have started to use the word whore, inflating it into their own context. This language use is in opposition to the prescribed behaviour for women and it gives a sense of group solidarity. By creating an own definition of whore the lesbian women in the study reevaluate the stigma surrounding the word which makes the addressee powerful and difficult to oppress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- S1 = whore is used to categorize unspecified bad women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- S2 = the lesbian community is inflating the word into their own context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Concession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>42 SU A LING 42</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When talking to someone for the first time, one might think clothes, eyes and voice are among the first things people notice. However, it is the gender, whether the speaker is male or female that registers first and foremost. What we take for granted is the fundamental biological category of differences between male and female. With basic difference as such, it is understandable being able to detect reflection of gender in universal language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- S1 = one might think we notice clothes etc first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- S2 = it is the gender first and foremost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Concession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

| 56 SU A LING 48 |
In a Westminster-style political order that gave the impetus to the constitutions of most English-speaking African countries, democracy is inconceivable without the presence of a loyal opposition; an opposition whose role, inter alia, is to suggest alternatives to government policy. However, in the linguistic world of most Africans, this concept of an opposite instance of political power seems to be very alien. Dr. Joseph Diescho, a Namibian political scientist wrote that [QUOTE], and the [QUOTE]. He goes so far as to say that there is no neutral word for opposition in existing African languages; that in Southern African languages the words that approximate to the Western notion of an opposition do not contain the element of loyalty; that its meaning borders on destroying and eliminating the one being opposed. Little wonder then that the one being opposed often reverts to extra-judicial measures for self-protection.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S1</th>
<th>In western thinking an opposition is a prerequisite of democracy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>In Africa the concept of an opposite is alien</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-concessive Contrast</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writer reflects balance between S1 &amp; S2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The MSN software has a lot of functions and choices for personalization, however, first time users will probably not take advantage of these until after quite some time. As a result, a first time user may be viewed as having a little less colorful personality by long time users who are used to the myriad of unique and different ways of personalizing the MSN windows. Compared to a real life situation, picture three people meeting, the first two are dressed fashionably and are outgoing people who speak their mind; the last person is somewhat shy around people (or at least do not speak in a confident or flamboyant manner), and is dressed in a way that does not stand out in the least. The unfashionable and shy person will quickly pick up what his/her friends are doing, and perhaps mimic them to better fit in. This same scenario is probably one that unfolds daily on the Internet over the MSN. First time users slowly pick up new and better ways of conveying their personality, and perhaps take after users that to them seem admirable and interesting people - just like real life.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S1</th>
<th>MSN can be personalised</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>first time users won’t immediately take advantage of this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concession</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The Golden Age is over - [QUOTE] - the Golden Age, when our children could speak and write properly. When was the Golden Age? What is the Golden Age? The Golden Age was according to language prescriptivists, the time when people could speak and write the English language properly. However, depending on which generation of these language policemen you ask, you will almost certainly not get the same answer in question of when that was. What you will get though, is very likely an answer referring to the time when they themselves were young. In the light of that, and taking many other persuasive evidences into account, James Milroy completely eliminates the myth that [QUOTE].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S1</th>
<th>The Golden Age was a time when people could use language properly, according to language prescriptivists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>You can’t find agreement of when exactly the Age was</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concession</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The writer concedes a claim in S1 (agreement on a Golden Age), but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1 (disagreement on when)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the [QUOTE] hypothesis, native languages, by grouping constructed categories, create a matrix by which perception of the world is construed; furthermore, by which categorization and conceptualizations of different phenomena are restrained. In other words, control, influence and the worldviews of a society can be affected by language (Trudgill, 2000, p.13). Europeans, with similar origins of language have nevertheless become relatively diverse politically, economically and culturally. Bearing in mind the [QUOTE] hypothesis, it is unsurprising that many voice concern for a European Union dominated by the English language. Given that implementing the English language is not just as simple as switching vocabulary and grammar; it is a switch of identity altogether.

However, while the concerns and protests against using the English language so dominantly within the European Union are many, there are not many concerns from non-native English speakers towards the preservation of the English language. If the English language were hypothetically to be implemented as the single official language for the European Union, there is no guarantee the end result of the implementation would be the standardized English language utilized today. Furthermore, the possibility for the English language to change significantly is perhaps greater than a change of Europe's indigenous languages.

- **S1** = There are many concerns about English being dominant within the EU
- **S2** = There are not many concerns coming from non-native English speakers themselves
- **Concession**
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

This essay is a case study of the use of emotive adjectives in texts by two journalists, one female and one male, in the celebrity magazine HELLO! More specifically, I have chosen to examine whether there is a difference between the use of descriptive and emotive adjectives in these two texts, as well as if any of the journalists tends to have more adjectives than the other. The two texts I have looked at is [QUOTE] by Elaine Lipworth and [QUOTE] by Peter Robertson, both writing for HELLO! 4

- **S1** = The essay is a comparative examination of use of descriptive and emotive adjectives by a female and male journalist
- **S2** = First an explanation of the differences between descriptive and emotive adjectives
- **Concession**
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 has greater importance than S1

Christopher: Christopher is very silent; he does not say much during the recording section. He is investigating the objects around him, putting things in his mouth, and throwing things. His mother tries to find out what he wants to do and he says: “gonna do”. This is a little premature for his age as he should only be uttering one word. However, this is only happening this one time. Further on, he takes the jack-in-the-box and gives it to his mother which could be a wish for her helping him open it. In other words, he uses gestures to show his wish. When the mother asks him to turn the handle he does it which suggests that he understands better than he can talk. Later, the mother asks Christopher if he can read a book and now he produces a few one-word utterances: [QUOTE], [QUOTE]. When
he starts playing with the jack-in-the-box again he is silent but then he suddenly says: [QUOTE] and points to the wall where, apparently, there is a cat (the mother says [QUOTE], [QUOTE]). Much later Christopher says [QUOTE] about an object which suggests that he has an idea about the different word groups. The section is long and the child utters only a few words and some nonword forms: [QUOTE], so he seems to be a typical example of a child in the one-word stage where he overlaps with babbling.

- S1 = Christopher says a 2 word utterance, which is advanced for his age
- S2 = This only happened once
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent (only once; weak evidence)

140 SUBLING 22

Method

Twelve idioms and expressions were picked out of two textbooks used in Swedish upper secondary school. Both books claim to use both American and British language and the idioms and expressions were picked out of a glossary with words that students are supposed to memorize as homework. The first book is produced in 2003 and the second one in 2005, they are called Common ground level one and level two.

The selected idioms and expressions:

1.

It's raining cats and dogs

2.

Kick the bucket

3.

Suck one's guts

4.

Grit one's teeth

5.

She is due home

6.

Be beneath the notice
7.
Bash the daylights out of someone

8.
Have the fidgets

9.
Take a strong line

10.
Cock one's eyebrow

11.
Stick out like a sore thumb

12.
Turn every table

To investigate however these expressions are common and used by native speakers of English two methods was being used.

On November second a questionnaire was sent out to fifteen American speakers and fifteen British speakers. Twelve Americans and nine British people answered and based on their answers the conclusion of this essay was being made.

- Infelicitous
- Used however instead of whether

May is used in British English in expressions of unfulfilled opportunity in the past, for which American would necessitate might (Algeo, 2006:35); however, in this example, the American version used will which was previously said to be used more often in American. These differences that I have found so far, have all agreed to the grammatical dissimilarities that Algeo (2006) mentions in his book.

- S1 = According to Algeo, Brits would use may and Americans use might in expressions of unfulfilled opportunity in the past
- S2 = This example found an American using will
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

4.2 Concordance lines
Since two out of twenty collocates cannot possibly be used to make generalizations of any kind, a further investigation of in what context the word appears is necessary. This will be done by looking at the concordance lines of extreme. Due to the limitations of this study, the total of 3,628 hits that the word generates in the corpus has here been thinned to 50 examples, randomly selected by the corpus. At first glance, just reading through the examples show that some 24 out of the 50 lines selected use the word with distinct negative connotations. We see examples like: extreme emotional disturbance; acts of extreme cruelty; led his men through extreme hardship; extreme political shifts and disputes; perverse in the extreme. It is worth noting here that there is only one example where extreme occurs as adjective with positive connotations (extreme probity) and even then it is directly followed by a word pair describing something very negative (reckless extravagance). Eight of the concordance lines feature the word used in a general sense. Examples consist mainly of references to spatial positions and weather conditions. Examples include: the extreme thrust position; the figure at the extreme left; the most extreme weather conditions. However, whether the use of extreme to describe weather conditions is strictly nonconnotational is debatable. It could be argued that when extreme collocates with some sort of reference to weather, it is used as a rough synonym of difficult. For the remaining 17 examples, we have to go into more detail and study them individually in larger amounts of context.

- S1 = Examples of collocations of extreme in a general sense include weather conditions
- S2 = It is debatable whether extreme is non-connotational
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

182 SUBLING 31

Personally, I am in favour of the semantic reasoning. It seems logical that Seb has associated min as referring to himself (perhaps during a controversy while playing) then overextended the meaning to include jag due to a lack for better terms. As he discovered that it worked and he incorporated it into a rule-governed system. At last, there are many aspects that would be interesting to investigate further, such as the relationship between the subject pronouns and the object and genitive pronouns. How does Seb distinguish between subject and object position; is it the sentence initial position that decides whether min is subject or object? However, these questions will have to be investigated in another study.

- S1 = There are many aspects that warrant further study
- S2 = They will have to be investigated in another study
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

196 SUBLING 37

The explicit message in the press release is that the campaign aims to “help teens come up with their own plans for avoiding pregnancy” (Press Release). The teenagers taking the quiz get exposed to different sexual situations they might face; this gives them an opportunity to consider what they would do in such a situation. This would reduce the risk of them having a sexual experience they would later regret. Their aim is to decrease the number of teen pregnancies among American teenagers.
However, after an analysis of details in the text it can be claimed that the message is that teen pregnancies should not be prevented one way or another, rather one way. The way sex is portrayed in the press release gives a more biased view of how pregnancies ought to be prevented. The message about sex the campaign wants to convey is that “sex has consequences” (ibid.) It is a short message which is not easily questioned; consequences is rather vague and not explicitly negative. In this context, however, it is not perceivable as anything but negative. That sex has consequences and one being pregnancy is a clear indication that what the campaign is really saying to the youth is that sex should be avoided. Further on in the text this explicit message is formulated differently, still with a harsh tone: “sex is serious, have a plan” (ibid.), another short and powerful message revealing how dangerous sex can be. This is more or less a paraphrase of what is mentioned as the number one reason for having sex without protection, “(we) weren't planning to have sex” (ibid.). The context from which the latter quote is taken is the single time where contraceptives are mentioned; the teenagers forgot about protection, since “it just happened” (ibid.). Thus, contraceptives are mentioned as something that failed to protect many teenagers; a message that enhances the previous statements on sex as having consequences and being serious. These facts at hand, the message is clear; a teenager certainly should take this quiz to get some guidance on how to avoid this serious business, sex.

- S1 = The aim is to decrease teenage pregnancies
- S2 = Analysis of the text shows the message refers to only one way to avoid unwanted pregnancies
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

The purpose of this paper is to see how women are depicted in rap lyrics from the United States and the United Kingdom. Hip hop is very widespread and influential; we are exposed to the music on radio, on TV and even in many commercials targeted toward young consumers. Hip hop is produced in many countries and in many languages but has its roots in the United States; American rap albums are sold in great quantities throughout the world, often in greater quantities than the native hip hop. However, whereas US hip hop functions as a forerunner of all hip hop, many rap artists from other countries have developed their own style and incorporated their own “street language” and expressions, something that is most prominent in UK rap. The intention of this research is to find out whether US rappers are more misogynous, or rather, have worse attitude toward women than their UK counterparts.

- S1 = US hip hop artists often sell more than native artists
- S2 = rap artists from other countries have developed their own style
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

On a second level there is the intrusion of English into Spanish through many words and expressions, and which is clearly seen in certain contexts, such as those of computing or music. Most of these words are accepted by the Spanish Royal Academy. This also happens the other way round, although less frequently. However, this is changing since nowadays Latin and Spanish culture are on fashion.
so it is fashionable to use words and expressions in Spanish, just as happened years ago with English in Spanish-speaking environments.

On the third and last level there is what I would call pure Spanglish, because, although it is a paradox taking into account the origin of the tongue, it is in this level where the real mixture between both languages occurs, as opposed to the [QUOTE] that occurs in the other two levels. The data shows that this kind of mixture can appear due to many different reasons, not just among illiterate immigrants, as has been said for many years.

- **S1** = There is an intrusion of English into Spanish
- **S2** = This is becoming less common
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

### 238 SUBLING

The relevancy of the beginning of the Eyewitness statement is disputable, although the interviewer obviously judged it necessary to be included. However, this introductory segment is ostensibly the result of the preceding discourse baring trace of the Eyewitness being extensively questioned. Although this is highly speculative, since there is no direct evidence such as audio recordings or transcripts to support this claim, it does however account for the difference in length between the Eyewitness and the Police statements.

- **S1** = The highly speculative claim, due to lack of evidence, that the Eyewitness statement is longer as they were extensively interviewed
- **S2** = It is a very feasible account of the difference in length between the statements
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

### 252 SUBLING 50

**2.4 years**

At the age of 2.4 years the children still say a lot of one and two word sentences but longer sentences are beginning to appear more frequently as well. Child 1, who was the one who had the most developed speech in stage 1, was the most developed in this stage too. She sometimes said long, grammatically correct sentences, but she also, like the others, mostly spoke one to three word sentences. She varied a lot in the level of her speech, sometimes she said a sentence correct and than said a sentence with a lot of errors if you compare it to an adult sentence. She already had acquired the word is in the earlier stage, where she said it half of the times. Here, she says it some more times but not always. She often says sentences such as for example: [QUOTE], [QUOTE] and [QUOTE], which are grammatically correct. However, other times she says sentences like [QUOTE], leaving out is, and [QUOTE], leaving out have. So at this stage, she is not consistent in her use of function words. Sometimes she uses them and sometimes not.

- **S1** = Sometimes she is grammatically correct
- **S2** = Sometimes she makes mistakes
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

### 264 SUBLING 53
Further in the paragraph, he writes, “the congressional Democrats seem guided not by what is best for our nation and its security, but by what will best position them to maintain their newfound congressional majority... and satisfy left-wing groups like MoveOn.org.” “Us” could now be interpreted as our nation, and “them” the congressional Democrats. However, it is more likely that the author refers to our nation that supports sending in additional troops (non-Democrats/Republicans/us) into Iraq versus the congressional Democrats (them).

- S1 = ‘us’ = our nation
- S2 = our nation = supporters of additional troops

The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1.

The most shocking reason to why there is a difference in speech between lower-middle-class, working-class and upper-middle-class in New York City, is because the people in the upper-middle-class change their pronunciation to speak more [QUOTE] English. The lower middle class and working class however do not because through time they have always used a more roughly verbal communication. However, one detail that plays a large role in the difference of New York English in the question of the social class is the pronunciation of the letter r. Peter Trudgill did an experiment where he went to three different shopping malls, one of high, one of medium and one of low ranking; and asked them, for example, [QUOTE]. The answer would then be [QUOTE]. Through this experiment he got out the following results, 38 per cent of the assistants in the high ranking malls used no /r/ in their pronunciation, 49 percent in the middle ranking used no /r/ and an entire of 83 percent of the assistants in the low ranking stores did not use any /r/ in their pronunciation. The reason for this is that [QUOTE] 3. This is the exact opposite of RP English, so clearly changing the pronunciation too much can have disturbing results. The prevocalic /r/ started out as an upper-middle-class pronunciation in the early years of New York City. It was at that time copied from “the prestigious London” but did however later move down in classes and is now used by lower-middle-class and working-class speakers.

- S1 = the prevocalic /r/ started off as a feature of upper middle class pronunciation
- S2 = it later became a feature of lower social classes

Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2.

As the European Union bring more and more people from different language backgrounds together, the English language is gaining ground as a lingua franca in mainland Europe (Modiano, 2003). When English is used as a lingua franca among non-native speakers (NNS), distinct varieties emerge based on the needs and common experiences of the participants as well as on influences from their first languages (Jenkins et al., 2001; Modiano, 2003). These varieties have traditionally been seen as [QUOTE] and sub-standard, [QUOTE] (Modiano, 2003: 35). However, Modiano (2003) claims that this view is becoming irrelevant.
| S1 | NNS varieties of English were seen as sub-standard |
| S2 | This view (S1) is becoming irrelevant |
|   | The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1 |

2.4 Analysis

Quite the opposite of the original idea proposed in this essay, it would seem that the amount of curses, based on the results presented here, isn't at all dependent on the familiarity between the users. To begin with, the users of MB-A displayed few signs of knowing each other well, yet the amount of cursing per post was the highest of all the sampled message boards. The high amount of cursing, however, can be partly blamed on the reputation MB-A has earned itself. In his book Why We Curse, Jay argues that no word is inherently good or bad. Rather, he writes, [QUOTE] (1999:148)

Considering the design and reputation of MB-A it is not hard to draw the conclusion that the message board itself serves, consciously or not, to undermine the generally presupposed law that swearing is wrong. For example, whenever a user edit something he has written previously, a note will be added at the end saying [QUOTE] The freedom to curse is also in many cases compared to the freedom of speech, as Battistella notes; [QUOTE] the reason for the excessive cursing might be because of the freedom it grants the user?

However, MB-B presents a vastly different scenario, yet still contain close to the same amount of curses. Being much more of a community than MB-A, MB-B presents yet another puzzle. In difference to the somewhat sombre relations that can be seen in the thread of MB-A, the users at MB-B seem to know each other on a more personal level. However, if one is to delve further into the actual quantities and types of curses used, a pattern can be perceived. In MB-A, obscenities and epithets were most prevalent, while MB-B contained mainly vulgar and obscene curses. Furthermore, most of the obscenities written on MB-A carried some relevance to the topic being discussed, while most of the curses on MB-B were written provocatively and teasingly. It becomes abundantly clear that the methods employed to gather this data are simply not too in-depth to allow a good insight into the subject.

- S1 = MB-A users didn’t know each other well
- S2 = MB-B users were more of a community
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

2.1 Criteria for group selection

As the fringe groups are both quite easily recognisable and expected to be rather rare, the main issue to focus on is the distinction between MPB and MPZB. I have developed a couple of criteria for this purpose, and it seems curious that most of them are ones that nudge a game from MPB and towards MPZB, since MPZB is supposed to be the standard group. It has turned out, however, that when it comes to simple traits that actually have an easily definable impact on the plot/puzzle dichotomy, the MPZB group has most of them.
Note that a good part of this selection is in the spirit of Graham Nelson's oft-quoted [QUOTE] from the The Craft of Adventure essay (chapter 3).

Features that nudge a game towards MPZB: A score system (meaning that certain actions give points to the player; this seems to have no [QUOTE]); hunger puzzles (meaning that the PC dies within a set number of turns if the player does not find food; arguably low storytelling value); unwinnability (the possibility that some mistake of the player's makes a game unwinnable, that is, forcing the player to start over); lack of a hint system (many modern games have inbuilt hint systems that the player can rely on for nudges in the right direction); emphasis on constantly saving and restoring because of sudden deaths; red herrings; and so forth.

Features that nudge a game towards MPB: inbuilt hint system in text; emphasis on NCP; lack of red herrings; emphasis on settings unrelated to puzzles; lyrical/poetic language; often a smaller amount of locations; et cetera.

- **S1** = The criteria for deciding which group a game belongs to is based on determining what nudges a mostly plot based game into a mostly puzzle based game
- **S2** = The MPZB group has the most easily definable traits
- **Concession**
  - The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

Naturally just as it is impossible to claim that newspaper texts are objective on the grounds that subjectivity is intrinsic to the expression and discussion of opinions, it is similarly impossible to claim objectivity in the analysis of texts. Simply by choosing an article a selection has been made which is dependent on the subjectivity of the author and an analysis is necessarily dependent on the judgement of the analyst. However, in this study the aim is to establish that differences exist between texts reporting on the same event, and thus making judgements about the ideological differences is immaterial to the success of the study.

- **S1** = It is equally impossible to claim objectivity in writing articles as much as in analysing said articles
- **S2** = Judgement about ideological differences is immaterial to this study
- **Concession**
  - The writer concedes a claim in S1 (anticipates objections), but S2 has greater importance than S1 (shows S1’s irrelevance)

5.0 Conclusion.

From this method no significant differences can be seen between the female reporters use of adjectives when writing about women's sports and when writing about men's sports. 70% of the most used adjectives were the same and the others can not be said to be gender specific. We can see a clear tendency to describe the team more when writing on women's sports and performance more when writing on men's sports. These results in large support the hypothesis presented in the beginning of this essay. However, the methodology is somewhat flawed. For one, a more extensive look at all adjectives and descriptive phrases would be necessary for a complete picture to occur. Choosing only...
the ten most common presents great limitations for the results of this research but was necessary due to time and other restrictive circumstances. Other limitations was that the method did not take into account if the articles described won or lost games, something that might push the results in one way or the other. The inclusion of both individual and team sports might also flaw the result. However, these aspect was disregarded as the study aimed for a comparison of the total discourse presented by the sport sections female staff and not just how they described one event or another. The field of women's sports writing and their description of male and female sports is an area of great research potential as most studies now focus on the discourse and are indifferent to its creator. Does the discourse of female sports writers differ from that of men, and how, that is a very interesting question for further study.

- S1 = The study’s methodology is somewhat flawed
- S2 = Certain areas were ignored to obtain a picture of the discourse in its totality
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent S1/ has greater importance than S1

6 SU A LING 05

The subconscious language switch among bilingual people

When people decide to move from their own country and start a new life in another part of the world, learning a new language is usually an outcome. Many see this as a great challenge and an opportunity to grow. The purpose is to speak the foreign language spontaneously and fluently; a process which requires a lot of practice and time. Many people become bilingual, and surprisingly, speaking the second language turns out to be the most natural thing. However, using the new language every day cannot prevent those certain moments when immigrants involuntarily are going to react in their native tongue. Moreover, the unconscious process of choosing one or the other language can be a mystery. What kinds of situations give rise to this reaction and why does the phenomenon occur? There are several circumstances in particular that affect immigrants’ sudden language switch and these are going to be discussed in this essay.

First of all we have to distinguish this aspect of language switch from the close related code-switching. Trudgill (2000, p. 106) describes code-switching as a rapid process of switching from one language to another when the situation demands. In the Bilingualism Reader (2000, p. 16) Wei emphasizes that this occurs consciously to some extent and varies depending on the type of person addressed. This essay, however, focuses on the circumstances existing when bilingual people living abroad subconsciously react in their native language and, above all, when they are alone.

- S1 = Code switching is conscious to some extent
- S2 = subconscious language switch is in focus here
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

41 SU A LING 41

In all three languages the politically correct term for a homosexual male is homosexual (Eng) - homosexuell (Swe) - homosexuell (Ger). The politically correct term in all three languages derives from the same Latin word. However, looking up the taboo expressions for that word in the Alternative Dictionary very different expressions are found.

38
As it stands there is a visible gap in translation and room for error and misunderstandings that does not exist to the same extent when meeting face to face and engaging in communication. The simplest way of overcoming this gap would be to employ the use of a net-telephone software and a webcam, effectively making the conversation face to face with facial expression and tone of voice present.

The text-based communication, however, works rather well all things considered. It is also a personal choice to what degree you allow your language to be simplified whilst on the Internet, talking through a medium such as the MSN messenger. A user could still write longer more fluent sentences but make up for it by learning to type faster, for example.

The syntactic structure of the construction is simple: a verb phrase with predicator and the noun face as a direct object, fourteen times appearing with some determiner before it, mostly a possessive pronoun; the verb appears in non-finite clauses either in infinitive, as a distinct verb-group (40 cases), as an object predicative (7), with a tensed auxiliary verb (18), or as a present participle (23), seldom in a tense form (1). As an idiomatic interpretation of a combination of familiar words it works on one level with few units and does not form an appropriate object for applying the Construction Grammar method.

These limitations indeed make this study of the face concept an incomplete hybrid, but the power and use of face in communication gave it a distribution and development which deserve great interest from sociolinguistic points of view; without an adequate text, however, this implies observing cultural features of linguistics more than linguistic features of cultures.

Sara Thorne's chapter The structure of English (1997: 39:47) has been of great value when looking at sentences dealing with verbs and adjectives respectively. In this chapter she discusses various matters which contribute to the structure of sentences, such as mood and cohesion. Since the
language in the type of picture books studied in this essay is not very complicated, there will be no focus on analysing the categories mentioned above (dealing with complex grammatical features, figures of speech or cohesion) simply because there are too few such examples in the text. However, it has been noted that the grammatical mood of the sentences in the text has an important influence on the personification of George and will therefore be studied more closely.

- S1 = There will be no focus on matters which contribute to the structure of sentences, e.g. complex grammatical features etc
- S2 = Grammatical mood will be studied
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

181 SU B LING 31
Ricard, Girouard and Gouin-Decarie (1999) hypothesize that children need to understand the meaning of pronouns before they can master them as children learn in cognitive as well as linguistic ways. Translating this theory onto this study would mean that Seb does not produce the correct pronouns in subject position because he does not understand them. However, this was not the case. The experiment that I performed in order to establish the nature of Seb's comprehension of 1st person pronouns clearly suggested that he understood the different meanings of the pronouns. One example is that he was capable of telling the difference between min and din. When showed one of his sweaters and asked if it was my (the researcher's) sweater he shook his head and said that it was his. As Seb repeatedly referred to himself as min it would not have been surprising if he had thought that I asked if the sweater was his. Finally, it is worth mentioning that the pronouns that Seb used to express the objective form were mainly correct, as were the genitive forms he used in their right context.

- S1 = There is a theory that states Seb does not produce the correct pronouns because he does not understand them
- S2 = Seb clearly understood the meanings of the pronouns
- Non concessive contrast
- S2 & S1 are incompatible

216 SU B LING 43
According to Piaget's theory of the development of intellectual abilities in children (2001), at the pre-operational stage (2-7 years), [QUOTE] (Mijus and Reynolds, 2005, 16). In brief, at this age, 2-7 years, the child can solve concrete problems; however, he/she still have difficulties in understanding hidden meanings. So introducing figures of speech can cause confusion for these children and prevent them from understanding the real meaning of the text. In addition, at the concrete operational stage (7-12 years) [QUOTE] (Mijus and Reynolds, 2005, 16). According to Piaget, it is not until 12+, the formal operational stage, [QUOTE].

- S1 = Children can solve concrete problems
- S2 = Children can have difficulties in understanding hidden meanings
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

251 SU B LING 50
Presentation
When children are about 1.11 years their speech consists mainly on one - or two word utterances. However, some children are able to produce sentences consisting of about five words. The characteristics of this stage in the development is that children often repeat one word over and over again and this word often refers to something they have seen or want to have.

- S1 = Children at 1.11 mainly produce 1 or 2 word utterances
- S2 = Some children can produce 5 word utterances
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

### 286 SUBLING 60

#### 4 Analysis

The evidence might seem ambiguous at the first glance, as table 1 (extracts from appendices 6 and 9) below shows; out of the 1,245 lemmas represented in the ECV 581 were not matched by any lemma from the JetSet lexicon - a little less than 47%.

However, several patterns can be found, of which the most apparent ones are those of nouns and verbs. These word classes are subjected to the most changes over time, whereas most of the other word classes stay intact or nearly intact. For instance, lemmas similar to [QUOTE] and [QUOTE] (see appendix 9) were probably not particularly frequent prior to the IT boom of the 90's. In addition, [QUOTE] and [QUOTE] are lemmas that are barely used in the 21st century.

- S1 = The evidence might seem ambiguous at the first glance
- S2 = Several patterns can be found
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1

### 321 SUBLING 74

#### 3.2 Potential problems

Upon examining these results, a person might easily get the impression that the proposed hypothesis has been completely validated, but this might be taking things too far. To really be sure, a larger amount of games would certainly need to be examined, and it should be said that my process of dividing these examples into groups turned out to be very difficult: in each year, there was at least one borderline case, and so there exists the risk of statistical inaccuracies. In particular, the year 2006 had a few games that could have gone either way, really. To take an example, Floatpoint by Emily Short could perhaps be moved to the MPB category; it has a well-developed storyline, with multiple choices of ending that gives the impression that the author intended for the game to be a story rather than a puzzle. However, to me the piece seemed traditional in form to the extent that that was what became the general impression.

- S1 = Floatpoint had characteristics of a mostly plot based game
- S2 = To the author the game had a traditional mostly puzzle based form
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/has greater importance than S1
In a way another question is answered here, the question of the double bind problem. One interpretation of this answer is that the reason for the lack of experience in this area is caused by the lack of women in the business, and the lack of women in the business can be a cause of the necessity to adopt a masculine approach to survive in it. This interpretation is made possible by the interviewee’s experience of there only being women with strong masculine approaches in this kind of business, however, this is only the input of one man, and the interpretation of the answer is partly based on external facts.

- S1 = The interpretation is based on the interviewee’s experience of the only women involved having typically male approaches
- S2 = It was the input of only 1 man
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1 (there was only 1 woman with masculine approaches), but S2 has greater importance (lack of evidence)

Idea Level
Nevertheless / Nonetheless

KC
6 x Nevertheless 1,8,5,2,9,6
4 x Nonetheless 1,2,4,5

1 KC 2 LING 02

[QUOTE] Having , selected this as the research question for this assignment , it soon became apparent that there are several layers and like anything in psycholinguistics the question has associated with it many complexities. Also, it appears that the nativist's arguments are multi faceted themselves and can be approached from a numerous number of perspectives. In addition to this as you delve into the main components of the theory, it is difficult to differentiate where the boundaries lie between the separate parts. Therefore, how is one to know what the advantages are if the components themselves are obscure in there explanation and prove tedious to decipher? Furthermore, the question itself leads to several other questions. For example, you have to think [QUOTE] and [QUOTE]. These questions inevitably direct you to other aspects of nativism as these ideas themselves can be treated in isolation and looked at specifically. As a result, trying to grasp the ideas involved with this theory and then relate it to the question has not been a simple exercise. Nevertheless, I have attempted to justify their beliefs or more precisely the advantages.

- S1 = It is difficult to grasp nativist theory
- S2 = The author attempts to justify their beliefs and advantages of the theory
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1 (it is difficult to grasp nativist theory), but S2 cancels it to some extent/S2 has greater importance than S1
Quirk (1990) believes that the findings of the above mentioned report also have a wider significance, arguing that if British students uneducated in Standard English will struggle in their careers, still more so will those non-native speakers of English educated in a variety of English other than Standard English. He points out that non-native speakers such as Nigerians or Malaysians learn English, not only to communicate with fellow Nigerians or Malaysians, but to communicate with the global community of native speakers of English; and for optimal intelligibility and comprehension, Standard English must be the variety used. This point is however refuted by Kachru (1991), who states that localised varieties of English are becoming more and more used as tools of interaction amongst various non-native speakers, such as between Germans and the Japanese; and that with such a vast diversity of cultures, localised varieties’ language strategies pertaining to politeness, persuasion and phatic communication are often more effective than the equivalents in Standard English. Quirk (1990) continues his case for Standard English by giving the example of a psycholinguistic study conducted by Coppieters (1987, in Quirk, 1990), in which non-native speakers of French who had lived in France for a mean number of seventeen years nevertheless showed poor competence in some basic aspects of French grammar, such as forming the passé composé. Quirk (1990) concludes that, in order to minimise such errors in English, native and non-native teachers must keep in constant touch with Standard English when teaching English as a foreign language. Indeed, Quirk appears incredulous that several of the non-native speakers of French had maintained high professional positions in France for so many years. Seidlhofer (2005) however takes an opposing view, stating that despite the occasional number of errors being made, the non-native speakers were still perfectly intelligible to the native speakers of French, and that the assertion of their own identity by making the occasional deviation from the norm was more important than striving to attain native-speaker competence. Kachru (1991) also attacks Quirk’s (1990) argument, stating that it is simply not practical for a teacher of English to be in constant contact with Standard English, especially so considering that it is necessary in most places to conform to local norms and speech strategies.

- S1 = non-native speakers of French had lived a mean of 17 years in France (implied that they should not make mistakes)
- S2 = these NNS made basic grammatical errors (counter to expectations)
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

The idea of a country that is united by a common language has been an influential policy for some nations. However although the notion of “one nation, one language” could be seen as a better way for a country to exist, it is nevertheless not applicable to every country. For instance, it would not be reasonable for a small country such as Luxembourg, which is landlocked by France, Belgium and Germany, to promote only one language as each of the neighbouring countries have an impact and so Luxembourg has three official languages: French, German and Luxembourgish. This situation illustrates that one nation’s policy may not be suitable for another, but a country that does promote monolingualism is the United States of America. The US seems the ideal country with which to explore the advantages and disadvantages of a monolingual language policy as English has been the majority language over the last two hundred years, but this situation could potentially change due to factors such as globalisation and immigration. The current position of the US on English monolingualism has various merits and demits: this essay will attempt to divide these into different
areas such as the history of the US, the notion of an American identity, a resident's personal sense of identity, practicality, cost and personal advantages. Although these are some issues that are complex and fall into more than one of these categories, it is hoped that such a division will give a clearer framework in order to discuss the relative merits and demerits of the American situation.

- S1 = “one nation, one language” is a good way for a country to exist
- S2 = it doesn’t suit every country
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

2 KC 3 LING 04

Through the theoretical work which has been carried out in this field and how this has tied in with the data, it can be seen how many useful and relevant conceptions have been put forward to help make sense of the influences of these changing modes and the effects they have on making meaning in society. They also highlight how every individual is responsible for encoding the various modes they are presented with in order to derive meaning from them, however, this generally takes place subconsciously, with there being little evidence of mindful activation of these codes. Nevertheless, a consideration of their occurrence needs to be observed in order to understand, how contextual and social beliefs play a part in meaning-making processes, and how this may be changing the interpretations and understandings of the modern world.

- S1 = there appears to be little evidence of mindful activation of certain codes
- S2 = a consideration of activation of codes is necessary
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

9 KC 3 LING 53

Kachru (1991) notes also that Quirk (1990) makes no distinction the Outer Circle and Expanding Circle varieties of English - namely between English spoken as a second language (ESL) and English spoken as a foreign language (EFL) - categorising both the two only as native or non-native varieties; yet several years previously he acknowledged the distinction, describing EFL users as those living in countries [QUOTE], and describing ESL users as those living in countries [QUOTE] (Quirk, 1985: 1, 2; in Kachru, 1991). Seidlhofer (2005) also finds Quirk's (1990) latter lack of distinction startling, noting that without such a distinction, recognised and established [QUOTE], such as Indian English are placed on the same footing as non-institutionalised performance varieties such as Japanese English, which are usually rather restricted in their usage (Kachru, 1992). One further contradiction can be noted in Jenkins (2003), where Quirk (1982, in Jenkins, 2003) proposes a model for teaching English as an international language called [QUOTE], which, although heavily prescriptive, was not the full form of Standard English that he advocates in his 1990 argument. Kachru (1991) stresses that Quirk's (1990) [QUOTE] - that is to say, Quirk's desire for Standard English to be used when teaching ESL and EFL, and his lack of acknowledgement and recognition of variation within such non-native forms - must be tempered by several [QUOTE], that linguistic, sociolinguistic and educational realities combine to render Quirk's (1990) concerns unreasonable and illogical.

Quirk (1990) nevertheless maintains that for world-wide intelligibility, only Standard English should be taught and spoken. He notes his shock at the suggestion in a previously published article.
that children from Spanish-speaking homes in New York should be taught a [QUOTE] variety, rather than Standard English, as it is the former variety that the children identify with. Quirk (1990) also expresses incredulity at the comments made several months previously at one of his lectures, where a young British teacher questioned how a phrase such as [QUOTE] could be considered as [QUOTE] when it could nonetheless be perfectly understood; and why a student should be corrected for making a statement such as [QUOTE] when it is in fact used legitimately in several English dialects. Yet both the writer of the article and the teacher had valid points. The very idea that all forms and varieties of English must be mutually intelligible is negated by several linguists; Smith (1992) states that one's usage in a variety of English need only be intelligible to those who are to be communicated with, giving the example of English-speaking Filipinos who use the variety amongst themselves with no need or wish to use it in a wider community; of course, those who do wish to communicate with speakers of other varieties of English need to be familiar with the norms of other varieties (Bamgbose, 1998). Bamgbose (1998) further notes that, while intelligibility was once regarded as a one way process, with the non-native speaker striving to be understood by the native speaker, viewpoints have shifted, with native speakers being not necessarily the best judge of intelligibility in any case. The view that all varieties must be mutually intelligible seems especially far-fetched when one considers, as Kachru (1992) does, that even speakers of different British varieties of English, such as Cockney English and Edinburgh English, often have difficulty understanding one another. And, according to Jenkins (2000, in Jenkins, 2003), there can surely be no justification for referring to an item as an error if it is produced and understood by the vast majority of the world's L2 speakers of English. How, then, do such [QUOTE] instead become recognised as being part of an institutionalised variety?

- S1 = Attacks on Quirks belief in the furthering of ‘Standard English’
- S2 = Quirk maintains that for worldwide eligibility ‘Standard English’ should be taught
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

6 KC 3 LING 52

3.0 Concord

After having used Wordlist to discover which adjectives seem to be used most frequently for each text collection, I thought it would be interesting to further investigate how variedly these are used by using Wordsmith's Concord tool. In this section, I used the [QUOTE] and [QUOTE] applications to discover respectively which words each adjective collocates with most often; and in what phrases the adjectives appear most often. Although my hypothesis had not so far been proven - both wordlists each have four adjectives in their top 100 most frequent words; and in fact, the four David Copperfield adjectives appear lower down in the top 100 than the Broadsheet texts' - I nevertheless predicted that Concord would show the David Copperfield adjectives to be used more variedly and creatively - for example, with a wider range of nouns and other content words - than the Broadsheet adjectives.

- S1 = the hypothesis that David Copperfield would show greater adjective use than the broadsheet(s) was not proven
- S2 = A further prediction was made that David Copperfield would show greater variety and creativity of adjective use
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance
Imitation

Although Chomsky's views on language acquisition are widely accepted, not all linguists agree with him. The theory of imitation is one of the simplest arguments put forward for language acquisition. This theory suggests that children simply learn a language by imitating the adult language around them. It is a fact that children do imitate particular parts of adult behaviour but imitation alone cannot be the only factor for explaining child language acquisition. For example, if children do in fact imitate what they hear then how does this theory explain the mistakes that children make that adults do not make? Also if children do try to imitate the language they hear, they can only do so if they already have the correct grammatical construction otherwise they are unable to do so (Harley 2001). Nonetheless, while this theory is inadequate in explaining how a child acquires a language it can be used to emphasize the importance imitation plays when acquiring accent, manner and particular choice of vocabulary (Harley 2001).

Learning theory

- S1 = Imitation theory is inadequate in explaining how a child acquires a language
- S2 = Imitation theory can be used to emphasize the importance imitation plays for describing how a child acquires accent and choice of vocabulary
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent (the assumption that the theory is totally worthless)

My data is gathered from newspaper articles selected to supplement “Payouts threat to low-cost air fares“ (Metro, October 16th 2003) which was originally discussed in a King's College lecture. I chose to supplement this data with other newspaper articles in recognition that compounding in these is especially frequent (Carstairs-McCarthy 2002), and to make my data more representative of standard British-English usage. It was thought that, owing to editorial preferences, a single source could be over-representative of some compounding processes and under-representative of others. Consequently, the LexisNexis database was searched for newspaper articles containing the words “European” (and) “air”] (and) “flight” published on 15th or 16th October 2003. This located articles in the Guardian, the Times, the Daily Express, and the London Evening Standard in addition to the data contained in the original lecture handout. It will be noticed, however, that there are no “red-top” tabloids among those represented in my data. This may be considered an unfortunate omission in view of my suggestion that my data should be “representative”; nonetheless, my search returned no articles published in “red-top” newspapers on those days.

- S1 = tabloid articles should have been part of the research to make it representative
- S2 = No tabloid articles were found
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent (it was impossible to be totally representative)

This study focused on investigating the common assumption that WS sufferers' syntactic abilities have been spared and, while they may be inclined to use marked lexical items, they are able to generate and understand grammar as well as an unimpaired person. Three grammatical tests were administered to young adult native English speaking WS subjects - focusing on testing abilities in terms of subcategory constraints, auxiliary markers and phrase structure rules. The results (see Appendix 1) proved interesting in that (as all the tests administered measured syntactic ability and WS sufferers are thought to have intact grammatical abilities) they appear to suggest that in fact WS subjects do struggle when presented with syntactic challenges. As can be seen from the results in the subcategory constraint section of the experiment, WS participants appeared to have substantial trouble dealing with the position of prepositions when they are out of place or omitted/wrongly included.

A second strand to the study focused on subjects correctly selecting the most accurate description for a situation depicted on a photograph from a selection of three - an accurate description, a reverse distractor response and a semantic distractor response. Again, perhaps surprisingly, Karmiloff-Smith et al found that WS participants found it hard to select the correct option, making errors 24% of the time compared to hardly any errors made by the unimpaired participants. Karmiloff-Smith et al suggest that these results point to the fact that WS sufferers do not function normally when it comes to accessing syntactic principles. This in turn provides evidence for further sub-fractionation of the language processing/generating functions of the brain, as it separates areas of syntax that WS subjects could function under at normal level, and those which caused them clear difficulty.

Karmiloff-Smith and her colleagues did suggest that some of their results could be attributed to the fact that the subcategory constraint test involved aspects of syntax which have come to be thought of as governed in the brain more by lexical functions than grammatical functions and, as WS subjects display clear abnormalities in the area of lexical retrieval, this could account for some of the errors. This point is possibly supported further by the results of Karmiloff-Smith's 1997 study into French WS sufferers, who could not cope with gender specificity when applied to nonce nouns. Karmiloff-Smith et al also suggested that the photograph test involved the employment of memory functions when WS subjects are known to struggle with cognitive tasks of that nature (Karmiloff-Smith et al in Pinker 1999). Nonetheless, this study clearly raises some important points concerning the nature of syntactical ability in WS sufferers.

- S1 = Some of the results can be attributed to non-syntactical elements
- S2 = The study raises important points in the syntactical ability of WS sufferers
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

5 KC 3 LING 43

Considering that Bordieu's writings bear a similarity in many ways to the views of Bernstein, it is feasible that one could level some of the same criticisms at the two. In his 1992 critique of Bordieu's notions of Habitus, Practice and Field, Jenkins poses the awkward question: “…if sociologists such as Bordieu can set themselves goals and objectives, which they then pursue, why can this not also be true for their research subjects”. One could ask the same question of Bernstein (himself the product of a working class home): how can he claim that the working class regulated are incapable
Bernstein suggests in his text that upward mobility is obtainable if the regulated is regulated in a way conducive to social mobility i.e. he accounts for this with the further deterministic notion that if the working class child is fostered in an environment where upward mobility is considered a possibility, due to outside circumstance (re-housing, shifts in social trends etc.) he can go on to “bigger and better things”. Nonetheless, the parallel with Bordieu's apparent shortcomings are still pertinent to note.

- S1 = Bernstein does accept that an idealised version of regulation can be positive
- S2 = Bernstein is susceptible to the same criticism as Bordieu; how did he manage social mobility despite the regulation his working class
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

SU

Nevertheless x 7 1,6,11,16,21,26,31
Nonetheless x 3 4,8,12

Nevertheless

1 SU A LING 09

In contrast, 11 out of 40 students felt they knew how they should address their teachers and none had felt awkward while addressing them. What is interesting is that the address-forms used by these 11 students did not correspond. Seven students stated that they mainly addressed their teachers by first name while three students used Mr/Mrs/Miss + surname and one student switched between first name and Mr/Mrs/Miss + surname. This suggests that there must be a difference in preference of address between the teachers at the Stockholm University.

Nevertheless, all of the 11 teachers (out of 19 asked), eight Swedes and three of American descent, that participated in the study preferred to be addressed by their first name by students, with the exception of one Swedish teacher who equally favoured first name and title + surname.

- S1 = The evidence suggests that there is a difference amongst teachers in how they prefer being addresses
- S2 = The survey found that teachers prefer to be addressed informally
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

6 SU A LING 28

For the lesbian women interviewed the use of the taboo word whore gives the strength and freedom to create own norms. The most severe taboos in society is associated with sex and sexual morality (Trudgill 1974:19), especially derogatory terms used towards women. Nevertheless the taboo word whore occurs frequently in sections of the lesbian community which makes the taboo pattern change. Acceptability is governed by social context (Lakoff 1975:14) and individual norms can make words move from taboo to acceptable (Iorio n.d). There are, however, differences within that community as well which is seen in the different answers to question 6 in the interviews (Appendix 1). Woman A claimed that [QUOTE], woman C had a similar answer, while woman B said [QUOTE]. Woman A, B and C answered to question 2 that they use the word often. This shows
that, despite the fact that they use the word themselves, to woman A and B whore is still taboo in some situations while to woman C the word has completely lost its force.

- S1 = The most taboo words are especially derogatory towards women
- S2 = The taboo word ‘whore’ is frequently used in the lesbian community
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

11 SU A LING 73

Sociolinguistic subcultures could be referred to when trying to explain why men and women use widely different conversational techniques, as do Maltz & Borker. They claim that because boys and girls developed their language skills in same-sex peer groups, without any feedback from adults, they exaggerated the behaviour they thought especially masculine (report-talk) and feminine (rapport-talk) which ultimately led to such different ways of employing the language that it causes misunderstandings between the sexes (Maltz & Borker, 1982, p.203-204). They have a valid argument of course. It seems like a reasonable explanation to why men and women have such different views on how to express themselves. Nevertheless, this explanation fails to address the question of why this conception of male/female speech occurred. It seems obvious that gender structures have contributed in shaping the perception of male/female speech and many linguists support this view. Maltz & Borker (1982) mention Fishman, who argues that gender-role definition is the key: [QUOTE] and Robin Lakoff who agrees: [QUOTE] (p. 199). Thus, she holds the view that the sociolinguistic world does not only reflect the gender-roles, they also contribute in preserving them. Furthermore, if gender structures were not at work here then why is it that women are so often labeled as gossipy and over-talkative while men are not? After all, it has been proven that women do not talk or gossip more than men - they just do it differently (Tannen, 1992, p.77-78).

- S1 = Men and women have different techniques in conversing as a result of exaggerated gender specific behaviour in childhood as a result of adult feedback
- S2 = This doesn’t explain why there exist different conceptions of male/female speech
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

16 SU B LING 07

Descriptive adjectives, on the other hand, can be used in propositional utterances. That is, they can say something factual about a person or an entity. When someone utters a descriptive adjective it can be verified or falsified. For instance, when a person says [QUOTE] he or she utters a descriptive proposition that is verified by the very fact that grass is green. There are no personal opinions in descriptive adjectives; they are merely mirroring the real world. Nevertheless, descriptive adjectives can sometimes be used as emotive adjectives.

Sometimes colours are used that way, especially when they are used metaphorically. For instance, if a person says [QUOTE], then he or she uses the descriptive adjective blue metaphorically and the meaning of this expression is rather that they feel that life is sad or miserable.

- S1 = Descriptive adjectives mirror the real world rather than used affectively
- S2 = Descriptive adjectives can be used as emotive adjectives
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1
The differences in American and British English - A comparison of the same chapter from the Bible

Table of contents

1. Introduction

This essay has the purpose to show that there are more differences in American and British English than is generally discussed. It is acknowledged that there are differences both in the vocabulary and in the grammar of these two varieties of the same language; however, do we know to what extent and how frequent these dissimilarities are? How immense are these differences and are there typically American or English words and grammatical patterns? There are only a couple of grammatical differences that creates perplexity (Algeo, 2006:2); nevertheless, this topic is nonetheless worth investigating. To provide more information about this topic, I will compare two versions of the same original text.

- S1 = There are only a couple of grammatical differences between UK & US English
- S2 = The differences between UK & US English are worth exploring
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

Since only two animated Disney films have been analysed in this essay, it would not be fair to make a general conclusion concerning the construction of gender in Disney films. Further study is obviously needed here. It would also be interesting to investigate how the male protagonists are depicted in these films. Nevertheless, judging by the primary material in this essay, Snow White and The Little Mermaid, the Walt Disney Company seems to give a rather limited portrayal of women and affirm gender stereotypes. As previously stated, millions of children watch these films, and their conception of gender will, presumably, be influenced by them. For this reason, I find that it is important to convey the message that girls can do whatever they want - they do not have to behave in a certain way and their main purpose in life does not have to be to get married and have children. Hopefully, there will be animated Disney films in the future that do just this.

- S1 = Further study is needed to investigate the portrayal of male roles in Disney films
- S2 = The primary research here shows that there is a limited portrayal of female roles, hence affirming gender stereotypes
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

It is obvious that there is a clear diversity in speech and pronunciation between the different class-speakers of New York City, diversities that have changed over time and will keep on changing in the future. It is clear that these differences occur everywhere but more so in New York City because everyone there has different histories and backgrounds, it is nevertheless a fairly new city.

- Infelicitous
In 1850 in England and Wales, 31 per cent of the bridegrooms and 46 per cent of the brides were not able to write their names in the marriage register. By 1900 this percentage was about three units, which still not necessarily means that they were all highly literate, *nevertheless*, they were likely on their way to becoming closer to being literate to some extent. *Considering this*, there would not likely have been a linguistic peak before that time. So when was this Golden Age? As Milroy asks, could it have been in the 40's, 50's or 70's? It could not possibly, since the complaints seem to have been current even then. Before 1944, English and Welsh residents were not even entitled to secondary education and to also eliminate any possibility of a Golden Age between 1945 and 1960, Milroy quotes a letter in a newspaper which refers to the 50's, where far too many were illiterate if there was to have been a Golden Age. Finally James Milroy says: [QUOTE] (p. 58) [QUOTE] (p. 61)
replaced with the recommended use of near synonyms, which for big would have been [QUOTE], [QUOTE], [QUOTE], [QUOTE], etc.

- S1 = Students are advised to avoid ‘dull’ words
- S2 = The dull words ‘good’ and ‘big’ were searched for
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

Still

KC

KC 3 LING 22

Plot: Expected patterns are seen in the plot, such as [QUOTE] being seen only at the beginning of the play. [QUOTE] seems quite a common theme from analysing the plot, with small localised bursts occurring frequently throughout the span of the play. [QUOTE] is also fairly global, as is [QUOTE]. Both seem continuous themes. “Woo” is also seen as another theme which is central to the plot throughout, although not particularly concentrated. Still, instances are seen throughout the play. Other keywords such as [QUOTE], [QUOTE], [QUOTE] and [QUOTE] are seen sporadically throughout the plot.

- S1 = The theme of ‘wooing’ is not particularly concentrated
- S2 = Instances of the theme ‘wooing’ can be seen throughout the play
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

SU

SU A LING 19

Swedes cursing in English

An area that most students of other languages find difficult to approach is the more colourful parts, like curses and profanity in general. This is not a subject taught in school, and it is hardly common that a native speaker of a language explains when and why to use a specific curse. The Swedish people usually have a basic knowledge regarding English vocabulary, but when it comes to the sensitive parts of language, for example which expression to use when you hit your thumb with a hammer, the Swedes are not well versed in which curse you would use in English. Fortunately, the problems involved in trying to curse in English are known to many Swedes, and they would rather use a Swedish expression or stay quiet. Still, it is safe to assume that if a Swedish person would have to express sudden pain or dismay with a profane word in English, he or she is likely to use a curse that either would seem silly or childish or a curse that would be highly inappropriate and insulting.

- S1 = Swedes tend to stay quiet or curse in Swedish rather than English
- S2 = Profane usage by Swedes is likely to sound childish or insulting
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1
* Dumb in English can have several different meanings: [QUOTE] (Oxford Dictionary & Thesaurus, p. 186) As the synonyms indicate, the word is not only used in an offensive way but also to describe mute people. [QUOTE] deaf and dumb [QUOTE] Therefore it is not only to be counted as a word of offence; still a discussion seems to be going on about the appropriateness of the word as people unable to speak of course should not be associated with being stupid as the use of the same word could indicate.

- S1 = ‘Dumb’ can mean ‘idiot’ or ‘lacking hearing’
- S2 = A discussion is taking place as to whether the ‘idiot’ usage is appropriate
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

Stina, the youngest participant, was born in 1989 in Umeå. By this time the attitude towards dialects and slang had become much more liberal. Quite opposite to when her father grew up, dialects were now considered something to treasure. When Stina moved to Stockholm, she was only 12 years old and adapted quickly to the local Stockholm dialect. Throughout her compulsory education, the teaching has been very liberal. The teachers have been very accepting of slang and faulty grammar. Still, she speaks quite well and educated, but still utilises a lot of Swenglish vocabulary.

- S1 = Stina’s education has been liberal, her teachers allowing slang and faulty grammar
- S2 = She sounds well educated
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXAMPLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It does seem to be a fact that idioms and schemes are the most useful weapon for anyone that wishes to catch our attention. They are used in almost any environment and for almost any purpose; still they can stand on their own and works perfectly well in that order. As noted before it can be problematic to use idioms or schemes if the speaker does not master the English language but that is no reason not to encourage the use of these constructions. They certainly enrich any language and perform an important role.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- S1 = Idioms and schemes are found in almost all discourses
- S2 = Idioms and schemes can be found in individual lexical units
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

Comparing the use of emotive adjectives of the texts by Elaine Lipworth and Peter Robertson did not support the thesis of John Fry, that is, that women use more emotive adjectives than men do. The study Deborah Tannen and her students did is not supporting my case study; Lipworth use a lot more adjectives than Robertson does, still, both of these authors writes for the same audience. The assumption that men and women differ a lot in their use of adjective is not supported in this case.
Lipworth's language is, indeed, more flowery than Robertson's is. Still, Peter Robertson does not write short memorandums.

- S1 = Lipworth’s language is more flowery than Robertson’s
- S2 = Robertson doesn’t write short memorandums
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

82 SUBLING 22

10. **Cock one's eyebrow**

Textbook explanation: To raise one's eyebrow

This was quite interesting, because there were no matches on Google. In the questionnaire, eight out of nine British people had never heard the expression. The Americans were a bit more familiar with the expression, though no one of them would use it in their everyday language or even on occasion, at least more than half of them had heard the expression before.

The fact that no matches were found on Google can be an indicator of that this is an expression used in speech and according to the result of the questionnaire foremost by Americans. Still, there are no pointers to this in the glossary of the textbook.

- S1 = ‘To cock your eyebrow’ is a spoken expression mainly used by Americans
- S2 = The textbook doesn’t mention this
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

88 SUBLING 29

So, the question that arises is why does the 2001 speech contain rhetorical devices when they are not really needed, and also, why does the 2005 speech lack them when Bush really needs to persuade the audience into believing that he is right? Perhaps the thesis did not sustain all the way. But still, it is evident that Bush in his second inaugural address is trying to justify the American presence in Iraq, he just does not use traditional rhetoric to get his point across.

- S1 = Bush didn’t use rhetoric in his speech in Iraq
- S2 = Bush did justify the US presence in Iraq (without rhetoric)
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

128 SUBLING 62

**Not bad-looking**: A positive phrase that can only exist in the negative

1. Introduction

Some words and phrases only occur in the negative, like for example not budge, not as much as a red cent and didn't lift a finger. But not all such phrases are used in a negative context. The adjective bad-looking, which has a negative sense, seems to always occur in connection with the
adverb not which is used to negate the sentence, phrase or word that it modifies. Still the phrase expresses something positive

- S1 = The phrase ‘bad looking’, which has a negative sense, always seems to occur with ‘not’; also negative
- S2 = The phrases is positive

Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

141 SUBLING 69

To try to apply these metaphors to reality a speech made by George W. Bush will now be considered. He gave it in 2007, and the issues discussed are thus relevant today. A stance frequently used by Bush is to do with [QUOTE]. In this speech Bush says: [QUOTE]. In this statement [QUOTE] is metaphorical, and neither [QUOTE] nor [QUOTE] are defined. This makes it easy to apply to different situations and circumstances. [QUOTE] can be viewed in terms of [QUOTE]. The metaphor [QUOTE] is thus applied here, as the native state is seen as a person that can have an enemy, which is another person (state, that is). The [QUOTE] can also be applied here, since [QUOTE] is portrayed as acting in a heroic way by fighting an [QUOTE]. Another sentence in the speech that shows these metaphors in applied form further is: “The evil that inspired and rejoiced in 9/11 is still at work in the world. And so long as that’s the case, America is still a nation at war”. Here “the world” is portrayed as an innocent victim, and is threatened by “the evil”. Still, this “evil” is being portrayed as an enemy without a face. So by claiming that a concrete person or country lies behind this evil would be disastrous. Firstly, because all people in this country would probably be generalized to belong to this [QUOTE]. Second of all, by being portrayed in this way this state is likely to be viewed as inherently evil, with whom reasoning is completely out of the question. At the same time America is portrayed as the hero that will save the world from this inherent evil. This, then is further strengthened by statements within the speech such as: [QUOTE]. Here Bush refers to Sunni extremists, and goes on to say that they are [QUOTE]. The question here is not whether these people actually are terrorists or not, but whether they are portrayed in an unrealistic way. Obviously, the answer is yes. They are basically being portrayed as a personification of pure evil, as people who are insane, committing random evil crimes. America, on the other hand, is portrayed as actor of the higher good, as heroic and diplomatic. This is for example evident from the following extract: [QUOTE]. Throughout his speech Bush also refers to [QUOTE] who help each other out basically. With this he is referring to allied states that help America. This further shows how [QUOTE] metaphor can be applied. Except from the [QUOTE] metaphor, and [QUOTE] one, Bush uses personification in the end of this speech. Personification is the kind of metaphor in which [QUOTE] (Alm-Arvius, 2006, p. 105). Bush does this through conceptualizing abstract notions that he believes (or wishes) characterize America, and portray them through concrete individuals. Courage, kindness, heroism, faith and economic growth are the concepts personified through American individuals who have shown them in exceptional ways. This further strengthens the positive view on America as a whole and united unit that always does the right thing, and that should seek to expand its [QUOTE], which equals to economic growth. It is thus obvious that the American President is using the established metaphors, given above, in order to affect the public emotionally. In several ways the public is being blinded by these metaphors, since they have their effect without people being especially aware of them, and that is why they are so dangerous. Previous research within this field, carried out by George Lakoff, made him come to the conclusion that [QUOTE] (Lakoff, 1991), since these metaphors backed up
the killing of thousands of innocent people in war.

- **S1** = The world is at threat from evil
- **S2** = This “evil” is an enemy without a face
- Concession
  - The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

147 SU B LING 74

* Mostly Plot Based (MPB): these games are much closer to the standard IF format: they use puzzles, they generally include a greater number of locations than the HPB ones; still, they tend to be more lenient with PC (player character) deaths; they often emphasise NPC (non-player characters); and so forth. Coming up with examples is much harder here (I’ll go into the reasons in the next section), but one possible such is Suzanne Britton’s Worlds Apart, wherein a certain amount of puzzling and item-hunting exists, but only to further the plot, which is related in regular large chunks of prose. In fact, Emily Short argued in her review that the game could be described as [QUOTE], so the lines tend to blur in that direction as well.

- **S1** = MPB games are closer to the Interactive Fiction format
- **S2** = MPB games are lenient with PC deaths, emphasise NPC etc
- Concession
  - The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

Yet

KC

1 KC 2 LING 05

Imagine then, that the word [QUOTE] is to be learnt by a normally developing infant. Let us imagine that our infant is aged between 12 and 18 months, as this is the age at which infants start learning words (Harley:2001). And let us imagine that our infant is with his mother, and that she is holding a cup. [QUOTE], says the mother, and the label / [PHON] / is duly mapped in the infant’s mind against the referent object known as a [QUOTE]. However, in order for our infant to accurately map the label / [PHON] / against its referent, the infant must already know that the cup is the object to which his mother’s utterance refers. How does our infant know this? The probability of an infant randomly mapping novel labels to correct referents is very small, and yet it is possible for infants aged between 16 to 19 months to learn a word after only one exposure (in Baldwin:1991). Consequently, it is evident that an efficient non-linguistic communicative mechanism underpins the birth of language acquisition.

- **S1** = The probability of infants mapping novel labels to correct referents is small
- **S2** = Infants can learn words after only 1 exposure
- Concession
  - The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

8 KC 2 LING 11

In any case, the numerical gap is impressive; approximately 1.13 billion people speak Chinese as their mother tongue, whereas about 372 million speak English. And yet, English is still the world’s second most common native language, though it is likely to cede second place within fifty year to
the South Asian linguistic group whose leading members are Hindi and Urdu. In 2050, according to a model of language use, that The English Company developed, the world will hold 1,384 million native speakers of Chinese, 566 million of Urdu and Hindi, and 508 million of English. As native languages Spanish and Arabic will be almost as common as English with 46 million and 482 million speakers respectively. And among young people aged fifteen to twenty-four English is expected to be fourth in place, behind not only Chinese and Hindi-Urdu languages but also Arabic, and just ahead of Spanish. It is undeniable that English speakers now have lower birth rates, on average, than speakers of Hindi, Urdu, Arabic and Spanish.

- S1 = There is a huge gap between NS of Chinese and NS of English
- S2 = English has the world’s second highest number of NS
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 has greater importance

Finding there to be no significant results during psychophysical tasks yet significant results in the electrophysical research, indicates that despite there being normal FM functioning, dissimilarity in aural behaviour may be present in dyslexics.

- S1 = no significant results during psychophysical tasks
- S2 = significant results in electrophysical research
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

Summary

The two curriculum I have looked have a variety of differences which give insight to both their different strengths and weaknesses, and their attitude towards grammar teaching. The main strengths of Welsh curriculum lie in the fact that they have slightly different approaches to the teaching of grammar in relation to speaking and writing. This shows that they are aware that there are different genres of language which require different rules. The Californian curriculum on the other hand, with one set of rules for both speaking and writing, does not acknowledge any difference between the two genres. The main strengths of the Californian curriculum is the fact that it contains a wide scope of targets for students to learn. They appear to show a finer understanding of the English grammar system. I find that the Californian curriculum is much more precise, clear cut and informative than the Welsh. Overall the Californian curriculum is extremely informative and regimented. The Welsh curriculum on the other hand is less informative yet appears to flexible enough to allow teachers to be slightly more autonomous in their teaching. These are points that are most likely reflected in the teaching system. I would expect that the style of grammar teaching in Wales is one that differs from school to school, where grammar teaching is almost hidden under the guise of general literacy of speech tasks. Whilst in California I would expect that there is a set order for teachers to follow, and possibly even an allocated time slot where grammar is taught.

- S1 = The Welsh curriculum is less informative
- S2 = The Welsh system is flexible
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2
It is also possible for us to explain the existence of developmental dyslexia within the connectionist model. It is thought that developmental dyslexia occurs because of a failure to develop normally, therefore we can assume that different types of dyslexia occur due to a failure to develop certain aspects needed for successful running of the connectionist model successfully. Manis et al. 2005 run through the possible different impairments which could account for phonology. Firstly, the problem could be in the subject's ability to set the weights, if we can not set the weights needed to compute the words we come across, we will not be able to read them successfully. Secondly, there could be an impairment in the subject's visual perception, this would mean that their orthographical input would be impaired. This idea is supported by the long held claims that visual impairments are the underlying cause of some people's dyslexia. However, these claims have not been proved and it is unclear how close the relationship. Thirdly, there could be an impairment in the ability to use phonological knowledge. This would affect the reader's ability to work out correspondences between orthography and phonology. Lastly, there could exist a ‘resource limitation’ by this Manis et al. 2005 meant that there could be limitations in the amount of hidden units the reader's model possessed. As the hidden models are very important in dealing with the pronunciations of exception words, it was felt that a deficit in this area could account for the problems found in phonological dyslexia. Seidenberg and McClelland tested this theory by varying their model to include just half of the hidden units it usually contained. When tested the model scored well on pronouncing regular words yet performed poorly when reading non-words. Manis et al. 2005 Connectionist model has no part of it that is specific to non-words, therefore it inadvertently predicts that where there is severe impairment there will be problems in both areas. This is something that has been documented in patients with severe dyslexia. The dual route models on the other hand does not account for the fact that irregular words can be affected by the same thing that affects non-word naming.

26 KC 3 LING 34

Conclusion

At the most simplistic level, one can see that there must be some dissociation of cognitive function and linguistic function within WS. WS subjects present with a very low IQ relative to unimpaired people of a comparative age, yet they remain largely able to produce fluent, grammatically accurate speech and are able to understand complex grammatical processes like embedded relative clauses, recursive phrases, passives and conditional clauses. This would seem to be undeniable support for the hypothesis that there must be separate cognitive processors dealing with language and other functions.

31 KC 3 LING 43

In conclusion, I would assert that Bernstein is at times own worst enemy in that, more than anything...
Accusations of his theory concerning restricted and elaborated codes as contra-working class diatribe arise (I believe) chiefly from Bernstein's failure to present his ideas clearly enough. As Bernstein himself asserts some of his writings in this article are [QUOTE] As my criticisms above suggest, I could not concur with Bernstein's theories, yet of course neither can they be dismissed wholesale. I would say that perhaps I am being generous in my interpretation of Bernstein's work, attempting as I have to see the meaning the author apparently intended rather than be influenced by the interpretations made by critics.

- S1 = The author cannot concur with Bernstein’s theories
- S2 = They cannot be dismissed wholesale
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent; S2 has greater importance than S1

Kachru (1991) also counters other aspects of Quirk's (1990) argument. While Quirk (1990), despite acknowledging the movement to accept non-standard varieties to be motivated by idealistic and humanitarian reasons, declares himself to be dissatisfied with what he terms to be liberation linguistics, Kachru (1991) notes that Quirk's (1990) own stance appears to be ideologically motivated and can be related to the concept of deficit linguistics, which is concerned with inadequate competence in areas of language such as vocabulary, grammar, and phonology. Kachru (1991) further picks holes in Quirk's (1990) argument by giving several examples of where he has appeared to contradict himself. For example, one of the main thrusts of Quirk's (1990) argument is that there are no institutionalised non-native varieties of English; yet, in previous years, in Quirk et al (1972:26; 1985:27-28; in Kachru, 1991) the view is expressed that varieties such as those found in South Asia, Southeast Asia and West Africa... are so widespread in a community and of such long standing that they may be thought stable and adequate enough to be institutionalized and hence to be regarded as varieties of English in their own right rather than stages on the way to a more native-like English.

- S1 = Quirk has argued there are no institutionalised non-native varieties of English
- S2 = Quirk has argued there are non-native varieties of English
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent (ie his lack of consistency)

In many cases, however, conforming to a shared group identity can in fact result in the loss of individuality (Widdicombe and Wooffitt, 1995). This can be seen in Cutler's (1999) case study of [QUOTE], a white adolescent boy who became drawn to the urban black youth identity of New York. Here, Positive Identity Practices were used to identify with black hip-hop culture, while Negative Identity Practices were used to rebel against (predominantly white) adult authority figures; and against his own, white, middle class upbringing. Throughout his teenage years, Mike developed his youth identity to form a close affiliation with the sub-culture, identifying with it even so far as to accuse his mother of racism directed against black people, and to engage in illegal activities such as experimenting with drugs, spraying graffiti tags on walls, and having frequent run
ins with the local police (Cutler, 1999); Negative Identity Practice examples in response to his white middle class upbringing and to adult authority respectively. Being white and middle class, Mike was especially keen to employ Positive Identity Practices to deny his background - giving out his brother's Brooklyn telephone number than his own middle class neighbourhood number - and to identify himself with the sub-culture group; yet in the process of doing so became more of a group member and less of an individual. In what Fox (2004) terms the [QUOTE], youths strive to construct an individual, non-conformist identity, but do so within the structured, rule-governed boundaries of their chosen social group or sub-culture; with core or [QUOTE] members of the established group often being quick to label new or peripheral members as being shallow (Widdicombe and Wooffitt, 1995); an example of this being the derisive terms [QUOTE] and [QUOTE] used by prototypical Goths. Thus, youths will strive to employ as many Positive Identity Practices, in terms of language, appearance and practices, as possible in order to fit in.

- S1 = Mike was keen to employ positive identity practices
- S2 = The process resulted in him being less of an individual
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

Figure 1: Fiction wordlist

As predicted, many of the gender words appear at the top of the list: he (6), she (11), her (15), his (17), and him (28). The others are of medium-frequency like Mrs (181) or low frequency like Mr (220), Miss (318) and Ms (8146). The numbers of instances show that he is 1.5 times more frequent than she (18270 and 12358 respectively). Although her (10422) is fairly equally matched to his (9465) as a possessive pronoun, it is more frequent than him (4928), possibly suggesting that women are more often placed in the object rather than subject role in a sentence. Additionally, Mr and Mrs are also fairly equally matched (528 and 643 respectively) but interestingly Mrs is much more frequent than Miss (339), possibly suggesting that married women are either represented or titled more often than single women. The low number of instances of Ms can probably be attributed to the fact that it is a more modern yet less common term compared to Miss.

- S1 = Ms is a modern term
- S2 = Ms is less common than Miss
- Non-concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

The early Anglo-Saxons were pagans and only possessed a runic alphabet, yet they turned out to be the strongest of the four groups. The Saxons did not conquer all of England since Wales, Scotland and Cornwall remained Celtic.

- S1 = The early Anglo Saxons were pagans with only a runic alphabet
- S2 = They were the strongest group
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1 (they weren’t advanced), but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1
As we will read in this essay, the speech given by the former American president Bill Clinton and the strategies encompassed within; how he captured the attention of his audience the people of America and the world, to feel sorry for him but yet still appreciate him both as a president and as a human being.

- S1 = Clinton got the world to feel sorry for him
- S2 = The world appreciated him
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1 (a negative feeling), but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

Table 1. adjectives describing beauty/appearance. TIME 1923-2007.

However, these results are not entirely straightforward. For example, good-looking and attractive seem to be more equally distributed between the sexes. Yet, we need to take into consideration the proportions between how often men and women occur in the corpus as a whole. A search for man and woman respectively give us 103,568 hits for man and 25,925 hits for woman. However, in these numbers we will have to consider the possibility that man is used as in [QUOTE] or [QUOTE]. The phrase a man occurs 20,718 times and a woman 7,592 times. A search for the man generate 14,170 hits, and the woman 2,502 hits. (TIME 1923-2007) These numbers indicate a major imbalance between how often men and women occur in the magazine; at the least we could say that men occur three times as often as women, but the discrepancy is probably greater than that. Therefore, the fact that adjectives describing beauty seem to be used more often to refer to women can be said to be a veritable truth. Considering the fact that the word man occur at least three times as often as woman, it is quite remarkable that we for instance get 150 hits for beautiful woman and only 8 hits for beautiful man. Even the adjectives that seem more [QUOTE], like attractive and good-looking can thus be said to be used to describe women to a greater extent than men.

- S1 = The terms ‘good looking’ and ‘attractive’ appear to be equally distributed for men and women
- S2 = We need to find how frequent ‘men’ and ‘women’ are respectively mentioned in the corpus
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

This investigation does not signify anything but the use of the two words as referred to in the BNC. yet I consider it a (small but) first step on the way to improving my teaching. It matters to the outcome of my research that the data of my investigation may be skewed due to two factors: the limited amount of sources (the BNC only) and the limited categories available herein used for the purpose of my investigation.

- S1 = This research only concerns 2 words
- S2 = It will help the researcher’s teaching
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1
2.2 Target Audience

Early in this article, it can be contended that the author alienates readers who side with the congressional Democrats - readers who are against sending additional military troops to Iraq. Evidence of this can be seen in his criticism of them by the use of words like “the left”, and “Bush haters”. Yet, in paragraph 6 he pleads with the readers to “give this strategy a chance”; [QUOTE]; and, [QUOTE]. One way of interpreting those propositions is to assume that the author is addressing politically conservative Washington Times-readers who have not yet made up their minds whether to support the plan or not, by appealing to their patriotism. Another possible target audience is the group of readers who are serving, or have once served their country in uniform by (again) appealing to their sense of patriotism. These readers could be affiliated with any political party or none at all.

- S1 = The author is critical of readers against the war in Iraq
- S2 = The author pleads with readers who may be undecided
- Concessive
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

Table 4. The use of linking words/phrases (After the model in GWAE, p. 17).

What can be noticed is that the use of the contrasting linking word however is well established and well-liked, used eight times in the examined material by four of the writers, not seldom twice in the same paragraph. The commonly use of however has the omitted comparable expressions like: On the contrary, on the one hand... on the other hand, despite, in contrast or nevertheless; expressions which are very rarely used or not used at all by the writers. Yet, beginning a sentence with but is frequent and appears six times in the text. When arguing a point the sentence can have the following structure:

[EXAMPLE]

- S1 = Formal contrastors are rarely used
- S2 = Starting sentences with ‘but’ is common
- Non concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2

2.4 Analysis

Quite the opposite of the original idea proposed in this essay, it would seem that the amount of curses, based on the results presented here, isn’t at all dependent on the familiarity between the users. To begin with, the users of MB-A displayed few signs of knowing each other well, yet the amount of cursing per post was the highest of all the sampled message boards. The high amount of cursing, however, can be partly blamed on the reputation MB-A has earned itself. In his book Why We Curse, Jay argues that no word is inherently good or bad. Rather, he writes, [QUOTE] (1999:148). Considering the design and reputation of MB-A it is not hard to draw the conclusion that the message
board itself serves, consciously or not, to undermine the generally presupposed law that swearing is wrong. For example, whenever a user edits something he has written previously, a note will be added at the end saying [QUOTE] The freedom to curse is also in many cases compared to the freedom of speech, as Battistella notes; [QUOTE] the reason for the excessive cursing might be because of the freedom it grants the user?

However, MB-B presents a vastly different scenario, yet still contain close to the same amount of curses. Being much more of a community than MB-A, MB-B presents yet another puzzle. In difference to the somewhat sombre relations that can be seen in the thread of MB-A, the users at MB-B seem to know each other on a more personal level. However, if one is to delve further into the actual quantities and types of curses used, a pattern can be perceived. In MB-A, obscenities and epithets were most prevalent, while MB-B contained mainly vulgar and obscene curses. Furthermore, most of the obscenities written on MB-A carried some relevance to the topic being discussed, while most of the curses on MB-B were written provocatively and teasingly. It becomes abundantly clear that the methods employed to gather this data are simply not too in-depth to allow a good insight into the subject.

- S1 = MB-B presents a different scenario to MB-A
- S2 = There is the same frequency of cursing
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent (different scenarios don’t necessarily mean different levels of cursing)

In order to make this study as clear as possible, some brief background information and definitional information on the two main components of this study: direct loans and translation loans, will now be presented. Translation loans, which are defined as entire English words which have been directly translated into Swedish, have, according to Mall Stålhammar, increased in proportion since the 19th century and are today a firm part of the more general Swedish vocabulary (Stålhammar, 2004, p. 96). As a result, the general public is likely to constantly stumble upon English translation loans, even though they are by their nature at times quite difficult to point out. Certainly, these are words which involve semantic change as they are often either entirely translated as in guldkantad, samvälde, ekonomiförpackning and kreditkort, stemming from the English lexical items gilt-edged, commonwealth, economy packet and credit card. At other times, translation loans are only partially translated and combined with an existing, established word such as in the words of blisterstål, kvarterdäck and filfisk, stemming from blister-steel, quarter-deck and filefish. Yet, most of the time translation loans are always subjected to Swedish spelling, morphological and pronunciation rules. Direct loans, on the other hand, are lexical units which have not been exposed to much semantic change and are thus imported with no or few changes (Stålhammar, 2004, p.92). For instance, most often the spelling, morphology and pronunciation of the original English lexical unit has not been altered and words such as email, website, feedback, coach, duty-free, sightseeing, etc, thus retain their original English semantic characteristics even when incorporated into the Swedish language. Naturally, there are direct loans which have been exposed to minor spelling adaptations such as the loss of mute final - e, as well as direct loan words which are pronounced according to Swedish rules such as jeans, campus, tennis, jazz, juice, studio, status, etc. Yet, a general characteristic of direct loans is the maintenance and tendency to prefer the original English spelling which adds to their most often highly visible character. For instance, according to Mats Stålhammar, the advantage of these words lie in the fact that they have not been altered and are
therefore much easier to detect as evidence of foreign input (Stålhammar, 2004, p. 94). Due to new and improved means of communication, the influx of direct loans into the Swedish language increased greatly during the 20th century (Hartmann, 1996, p. 38). Even though translation and direct loans are both examples of lexical borrowing from another language, in this case English, it is clear that the former is more adapted to Swedish spelling and pronunciation while the latter is more or less taken over wholesale from English.

- S1 = Translation loans are originally English words
- S2 = They are subjected to Swedish spelling, etc
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent/ S2 has greater importance than S1

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2.1 Translation Loans

Although the first examined article [QUOTE] did not contain any translation loans which exactly correspond to the lists given by Mall Stålhammar and Magnus Ljung, it still appeared to comprise several words borrowed and directly translated from the English language. For instance, movie-related lexical items such as teveprogram (tv show), filmdebuten (movie debut), filmstjärna (film star), serien (series) and roll (role), all appear to be words of English origin that have successfully been incorporated into the Swedish lexicon. To specify this claim, the original English words are shown in parenthesis. Furthermore, additional words such as hänger (hang), dejt (date), glamourös (glamorous), branschen (branch), magasin (magazine), karriär (career), press (pressure), stil (style), and röda mattan (red carpet) were also retrieved from this article (Lundblad, 2007, p. 32-36). In total, this article thus appeared to provide us with fourteen translation loans, all of which have been semantically changed to suit Swedish spelling, morphological, and pronunciation patterns. Yet, despite their semantic changes, the spelling of most of these words certainly hints of their English origin as words such as serien, glamourös, magasin, stil, etc, retain a very similar spelling to the English loanword. In the second examined article [QUOTE] a rather steady amount of translation loans were also found, reaching a total of eleven. Among these were webbtjänst (web service), entreprenör (entrepreneur), seminarier (seminars), nätet (the net), telefontjänst (telephone service), bransch (branch), fotograf (photography), nätverk (network), kollektionen (collection), nätverka (to network), and musikindustrin (music industry) (Lundblad, 2007, p. 116-120). Once again, it is interesting to see how most of these words correspond very closely to the original English loanword, with minor spelling changes. Altogether, it appears as if these two articles have provided us with approximately twenty-five translation loans, yet taking into account that a couple of these words may be faulty examples.

- S1 = There appear to be 25 translation loans in the 2 articles
- S2 = 2 of these loan words may be faulty
- Concession
- The writer concedes a claim in S1, but S2 cancels it to some extent (some of them are faulty)

56 SU B LING 76

In contrast to the articles examined in the magazine, yet in line with the previous scrutiny of translation loans, the political newspaper Svenska Dagbladet, contains very few direct loans. For instance, the first article [QUOTE] only contains five English-based direct loans, namely vice, post
, tv-studio, position and blogg (Eriksson, 2007, p. 7), while the second article [QUOTE] contains four: tv-team, webb-tv, film and videoblogg (Lundin, 2007, p. 36). Noteworthy is also the fact that although the direct loan vice maintains its original form vice, it is pronounced differently in Swedish, along with most of the other mentioned words. Also the word blogg has received an extra -g, while webb in webb-tv has received an extra -b. Even though each article only consists of one page, the extremely few direct loans uncovered here still seem to make a clear point - direct loans are not to be taken for granted in all written Swedish language. Yet, together these nine direct loans manage to surpass the four translation loans found in the same articles.

- S1 = SD is in contrast to the magazine articles
- S2 = SD is in line with the previous scrutiny of translation loans
- Non-concessive contrast
- Writer reflects balance between S1 & S2