

English Language HOLIDAY HOMEWORK Year 12 2021

FORMAL AND INFORMAL ENGLISH	FORMAL	INFORMAL	
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- 1 /01: 10	Meiki Apted <u>meiki.apted@sssc.vic.edu.au</u>			
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	1. Complete all the questions in this booklet, including providing examples for all			
	sections of the metalanguage bible (Advanced: chose a theme eg. "Animals")			
	2. From your Living Lingo Textbook, write a dot point summary of:			
Holiday Homework Required	2.0 Informal Language (pp28-32)			
(Unit 3 Coursework - due first class back):	2.1 Features of Informal Language (pp 32-48)			
	2.4.1 Conversational Strategies: conversation routines, listening noises,			
	interrogative tags, discourse particles			
	3. Create cue cards for the "Social Purposes" wall terms			
	1. Read Living Lingo pp2-26 "Setting the Scene"			
	2. CREATE CUE CARDS for the key terms from this booklet and Living Lingo			
Recommended Work	3. Read 5 articles in the media about language, watch one episode of "media			
(Unit 3 Homework):	watch" on ABC iview, and follow at least 5 key Australian public figures on your			
	socials (ScoMo, Dan Andrews, Andrew Bolt, Baker Boy, Clementine Ford, Jacqui			
	Lambie, Kyle Sandilands)			
	Kirstin Fox's Metalanguage Guide (aka orange textbook)			
Textbooks	Kate Burridge & Debbie de Laps <i>Living Lingo</i> (aka blue textbook)			
	Study Design: https://www.vcaa.vic.edu.au/curriculum/vce/vce-study-			
	designs/englishlanguage/Pages/Index.aspx			
Key Links:	Past exams + Examiners Reports: https://www.vcaa.vic.edu.au/assessment/vce-			
no, anno	assessment/past-examinations/Pages/English-Language.aspx			
	The Guardian- Mind your Language: https://www.theguardian.com/media/mind-			
	your-language			
	• Exam preparation - advanced/intermediate: Incredible exam prep resource English Language Exam Guide VCE 3rd Edition-Insight- Kirsten Fox Book \$30			
	• Online course: Udemy Online: English Language. Dmitri Dalla-Riva ~\$60			
Additional Resources:	• Exam preparation – beginner: "ATAR NOTES" English Language Units 3&4			
	2018-2022 ~ \$27 Michael Rehfisch, Lauren White, Thushan Hettige.			

Year II Concepts you will need in year 12

Required: Write the definition to each of the following terms, in your own words. Include an example where appropriate.

Recommended: Add the terms to your cue cards and ensure you have memorised them

Linguistics	8	2	
Metalanguage			
Subsystems			
Phonetics			
Phonology			
Morphology			
Lexicology			
Syntax			
Semantics			
Discourse Analysis			
Noun			
Pronoun			
Adjective			
Verb			ş
Adverb			
Conjunction			
Preposition	9		
Article (Determiner)			

The Metalanguage

What is Metalanguage?

Meta = above (Greek)...So 'metalanguage' is literally 'above language' – think about looking in at language from the outside, and discussing it from an analytical viewpoint.

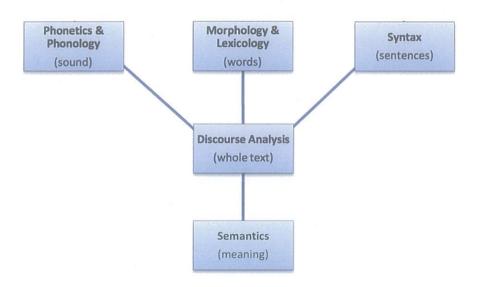
Metalanguage is the specialised vocabulary that is used to refer to a particular area of study (in this case, linguistics, or the study of language itself).

Why do we need a metalanguage?

Metalanguage gives us the tools to deconstruct and describe language itself, so we can analyse it on different levels, such as:

- Words people have chosen to use & what this tells us about their thinking, background or attitudes
- What is being said 'between the lines' ~ implications present within language
- Choice of word order, patterns

The Five Subsystems of Language



The basic tool you need for this subject is the knowledge of the five subsystems of language. These are the component parts of the 'whole' system that is language.

- 1. **Phonology and Phonetics**—the sound system
- 2. Morphology and Lexicology—how we make and classify words and how they are linked
- 3. **Syntax**—making sentences
- 4. **Semantics**—meaning in language
- 5. **Discourse Analysis**—taking apart written and spoken texts

In EL we are given the **text** to analyse, and we must bear these **subsystems** in mind in order to complete a thorough analysis.

We must consider the "bigger picture", step back in order to see how each part/element/subsystem fits together to form the "whole" text. Sometimes this is referred to as a "holistic" approach to analysis.

Usually we grasp the Semantics (or meaning) balloon quickly, without considering how all the parts came together to form it. In EL, we need to take the **text** and explain, deduce, understand, deconstruct, work backwards in order to analyse WHY and HOW a text (written or spoken) has the particular meaning it does.

Lexicology

Lexicology refers to the study of words and their categories.

Lexicon is all the words or vocabulary of a language.

A lexeme or lexical item is a basic unit of meaning in a language that may be a single word or a phrase.

Word classes (parts of speech) are the categories to which words belong based on their formal similarities. The words we know form our own **lexicon** (vocabulary). We know how to pronounce them and their meanings. We also instinctively know what word class a word belongs to even if we cannot name it.

Activity

Read the following passage and answer the questions related to the text:

I put it in the og until I needed it at Christmas. I figured that was a good idea because the proups couldn't smell it and it remained fairly quiffy. Little did I realise, however, that the proups had already ploffered the og and were able to klomble it sitackly.

- I. Where did she put the glack?
- 2. Why did she put it in the og?
- 3. What had the proups already done?
- 4. How did they klomble it?

What do your answers tell you about your understanding of the English Language?

See if you can fill in the following gaps with single English words:

It was a lourn,	creedle	. Not a flichet could be	could be	
\\/ho	it he? Tertis clay	wed down the		

- Discuss the reasons for your lexical choices.
- What is the **genre** of this text? Which genres is it definitely not?

Although your knowledge of word classes may seem a bit hazy to you at this stage, you are a first language speaker and you actually have a terrific working knowledge of how English operates. Once you have developed the metalanguage, you will have all the tools to discuss it.

English Word Classes (Parts of Speech)

You must know the function of each word in the sentence and know it by its grammatical name:

- Noun
- Pronoun
- Adjective
- Verb
- Adverb
- Conjunction
- Preposition
- Article

Activity

I. Identify the words in the following sentences (without looking if you can, but there IS a cheat sheet on the next page if you need to refer to it):

Where the Forest Meets the Sea by Jeannie Baker (1987)

My father knows a place

we can only reach by boat.

Not many people go there,

and you have to know the way through the reef.

When we arrive, cockatoos

rise from the forest

in a squawking cloud.

My father says there has been a forest here

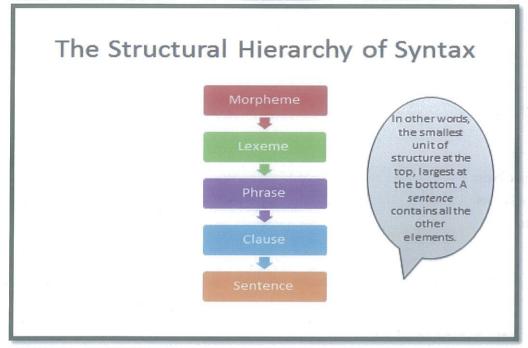
For over a hundred million years.

My father says there used to be crocodiles here,

and kangaroos that lived in trees.

Maybe there still are.

Syntax



We can't store in our head every possible sentence in the English language. Instead, sentences composed by combining <u>separate units</u> according to grammatical rules. So — we just have to learn the rules!

The study of sentences and their structures is called SYNTAX

Parts of a Sentence

SUBJECT: the person/thing the sentence is about **PREDICATE**: what is written/said *about* the subject E.g. The barbie / had its hair cut

The Phrase

A single word or group of words that act together as a unit. A unit that is 'smaller' grammatically than a clause (further down the hierarchy)

A phrase:

- Can't stand alone as a complete grammatical sentence or clause
- Can behave like (and do the work of) an adjective, adverb, noun or verb
- Doesn't usually contain **a finite verb** (one that changes its form to allow for variation in number, tense and person)

Phrase Types

Phrases are always named after the part of speech category of the word that is most important in them. There are 5 phrase types (remember – the open class words + preposition):

- Noun phrase (the cat's mother)
- **Verb phrase** (ran wildly down the stairs)
- Adjective phrase (really very beautiful and quite extraordinary)
- Adverbial phrase (quite well)
- **Prepositional phrase** (at the far end of the table)

Test for phrase type

Can you replace the phrase with a single word and not alter its basic meaning in a sentence? That word will usually be the 'head word' which can identify the phrase type Example: "The beautiful sky of blue" (Can be replaced with just 'sky' (noun), so this is a noun phrase)

Phrase structure

Phrases are made up of:

- **Head word (h):** the main word
- **Pre-modifiers (m):** words that come before the head word and modify or change it in some way
- Post-modifiers or Qualifiers (q): words that provide extra information after the head word

CLAUSES

A clause is a group of related words containing a NOUN and a VERB Clauses are the main structures used to compose sentences (every sentence has a main clause but it may also have subordinate clauses). Clauses generally contain a finite verb and are usually a coherent group of words.

MAIN CLAUSE: can stand alone

"He threw the letter down"

DEPENDENT CLAUSE: can't stand alone, relies on M.C "The girl screamed / [because she saw a ghost]"

SENTENCE STRUCTURE

SIMPLE SENTENCE: made of one main clause (noun + verb)

COMPOUND SENTENCE: made of two or more S.S. joined (either by conjunction or comma/semicolon).

COMPLEX SENTENCE: made of Main Clause + one or more Dependent Clauses (e.g. girl + ghost example)

Try this quiz for recognising a phrase or a clause:

https://arts.uottawa.ca/writingcentre/en/hypergrammar/building-clauses

NOTE: There are a range of grammar quizzes on this website. Spend some time trying them out.

Phonetics and Phonology

Sounds carry meaning for human beings. A siren grabs our attention. We can tell the difference between a cry of joy and a cry of terror—one will capture our attention, the other will alarm us. We can make noises to indicate that we are feeling tired or impatient, angry or amorous. We can make noises to show that we agree or disagree. A cough may be used to gain attention or may indicate nervousness, but it is only the sounds of speech that are called phones. It is this level, the level of speech sounds, that is of interest to phoneticians. Some of the others are of interest to other areas of linguistic study (pragmatics) and to discourse (conversation) analysis.

Phonetics and phonology both contain the Greek root phone meaning 'sound'.

Phonetics is the study of human speech sounds. Each language has different speech sounds. Even within the English language; New Zealand English for example, contains some different speech sounds from Australian English—notably in the vowel sounds, a New Zealand back may sound like beck. Other languages may have sounds that English doesn't—for example, Bantu clicks—or they may not have sounds that English does. Swedish has no /z/, for example, so speakers of Swedish will tend to pronounce lazy as lacy. Most learners of foreign languages experience some difficulties with speech sounds that do not occur in their own language—that is, with the phonological differences.

Phones are the physical units of sound produced by speech organs; that is, all the different sounds used in all the different languages in the world.

Phonetics is concerned with the actual physical sounds that human beings utter in making intelligible speech. It is concerned with the mechanics and acoustics of speech, such as where we make sounds in the mouth or the places of articulation.

Phonology is the study of the sound systems and the different patterns of sound that can occur in a language. For example, most English speakers would guess straight away that the sentence Sekejap lagi saya nak keluar is not English. Although the individual phonemes may occur in English, this particular combination is not English. (In fact, sekejap lagi saya nak keluar is Malaysian for I'm going out in a minute.)

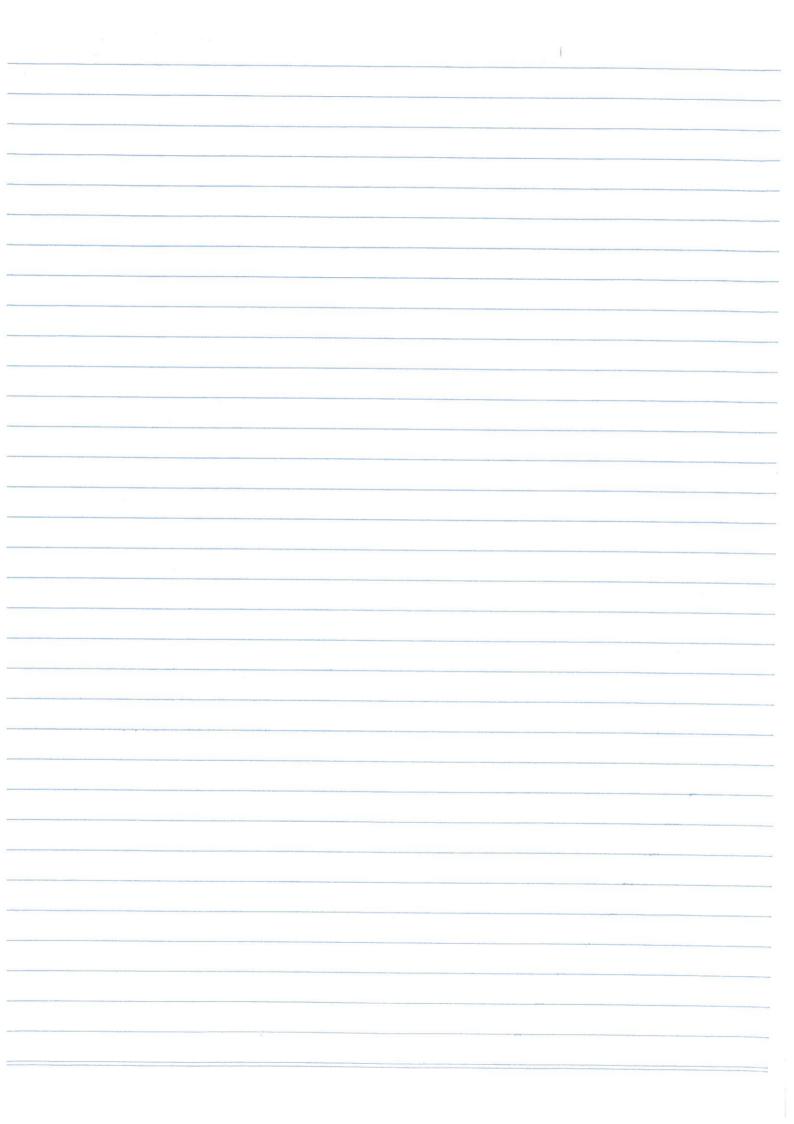
The IPA

Phonemes are the minimal distinctive sounds in a language. Phonemes are usually meaningless on their own because most words are comprised of more than one phoneme—for example, /t/, /p/, and /v/ have no meaning in isolation—and only become meaningful when combined together in various ways—/tvp/, /ppt/, /vpt/. Australian English has 44 of these abstract sound units, but only 26 letters of the alphabet to represent them. This is one of the reasons why English spelling can be so frustrating; the letters don't always match the pronunciation.

Consider the following—although, bough, cough, enough, thought, through. How many vowel sounds are represented by ou?

A **diphthong** is a vowel where there is a single, noticeable change in quality during a syllable — for example /e/ to /i/ in /beɪ/ 'bay'.

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YOUR METALANGUAGE BIBLE BY SUBSYSTEM

Mitax... How phrases & clauses are put together in sentences. Anything to do with sentence structure.

Anaphoric reference: Use of pronouns to refer *back* to something already mentioned in the sentence or text.

Example: The <u>revision lectures</u> were excellent. Everybody got something out of them. Your example: Cataphoric reference: Use of pronouns to refer forward to something that has not yet been mentioned. **Example:** They were great. Everybody got something out of the revision lectures. Your example: Declarative sentences types: Sentences that make a statement (declare something). Example: It was a lovely day. (Hey, that's a cataphoric reference too!) Your example:

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Example: "Give me those eggs".
Your example:
Exclamative sentences types: Sentences that express a strong emotion. They often start with 'what' or 'how'.
Example: "How on earth did you come up with that answer?!" (can sometimes overlap with other sentence types ie. This one is also interrogative They do not always end with an exclamation mark)
Your example:
Interrogative sentence types: Sentences that pose a question.
Example: "What do you think of all this metalanguage?"
Your example:
Deixis/Deictic expressions: Uses words like 'here', 'there', 'this' and 'that' to point to something outside the text. Only makes sense when in context.
Example: "My house is over there".
Your example:

Imperative sentences types: Sentences that give a request, command or

direction (tell someone what to do).

Ellipsis: Words left out of a sentence. More of	common in informal texts.
Example: "Coming?" instead of "Are yo	ou coming?"
Your example:	
:	
Simple sentence structures: A sentence mad clause.	e up of one main/independent
Example: (Micheal likes wearing his ha	t.)
(main)	
Your example:	
Compound sentence structures: A sentence reclauses linked by a coordinating conjunction of	nade up of two or more main or sometimes a comma.
Example: (We could go to the park) or (we could visit the museum.)
(main)	(main)
Your example:	

Complex sente least one subo		s: Sentences made up of one main clause and at
Example	:: (I decided th	at) (the essay was not that hard after all.)
	(sub)	(main)
Your example:		
		e structures: Sentences made up of at least two subordinate clause.
Example	:(I decided the	at) (the essay was not that hard after all) and (the
	(sub)	
exam was pret	ty good.)	
Your example:		
Listing: Placing i	items one afte	r another separated by commas.
Example: thai curry.	: I told my stu	dents that I like eggs, shiraz, chocolate, pizza and
Your example:		

Parallelism: Sentences and/or phrases that have a balanced struct	ıre. You
could say the structures reflect one another.	

Example: 'It was the best of times, it was the worst of times.' (this also uses antithesis/antonymy in 'best' and 'worst'.

Your example:
Punctuation: Used to help structure the syntax of a text and mark expression. Includes commas (,) full stops (.), question marks (?), exclamation marks (!), quotation marks ("'), brackets (), colons (:), semi colons (;), apostrophes (') and dashes/hyphens ().
Example: "I told you not to do that!" said Miss O'Meara to her very loud class. Why wouldn't they stop talking? She thought that maybe it was the weather; it was unusually hot for winter and a heatwave was predicted for the coming week.
Your example (write something using lots of princtration). Okay?

Syntactical a	ambiguity: Whe	en more than	one possible	meaning is	created
through the	use of syntax, u	usually punct	uation and se	entence stru	cture.

Example: People who eat fast food often gain weight. (the ambiguity is

created through the lack of a comma one side of often – therefore it is syntactical, not lexical ambiguity) Your example: Nominalisation: When a word that is usually a verb is converted into a noun. **Example:** There was a sharp increase in the submission of practice essays the closer it came to the exam date. (increasing is the form usually used as a verb). Your example: Coordination: When two or more words, phrases or clauses are evenly balanced on either side of a coordinating conjunction (and, but, or, neither, nor, either). Example: The girls and the boys; Ran and jumped; The day was wet and the trip was ruined. Your example:

Example: I go to restaurants where I can get a good meal.
Your example:
Front focus: The 'new' or surprising/interesting information comes first in the sentence, giving it more attention. 'New' before 'given/old' information.
Example: That morning, the train departed on time.
Your example:
,
End focus: The 'new' or surprising/interesting information comes last in the sentence. 'Given/old' information before 'new'.
Example: I gave John a brand new pen.
Your example:

Subordination: A combination of clauses that are not in balance with one

another. Subordinate clauses joined to a main clause by a *subordinating*

conjunction.

Passive voice/sentence: When the subject of the sentence is not directly responsible for the action or the person/thing creating the action is not known
Example: The bank's money was counted up at the end of the day.
Your example:
Active voice/sentence: When the subject of the sentence is directly responsible for the action of the sentence.
Example: The bank tellers counted up the money at the end of the day.
Your example:
Coordinating conjunction: A conjunction that joins words/phrases/clauses of equal value (and, or, but, nor, neither, either)
Example: The girls and the boys; Ran and jumped; The day was wet and the trip was ruined.
Your example:
Subordinating conjunction: A conjunction that joins phrases/clauses of unequal value (while, as, before, where, so that, because, as, if, unless, although)

Example: I go to restaurants where I can get a good meal.

Your example:
Main/independent clause: A clause that can stand alone and function as a sentence successfully.
Example: I went to the park.
Your example:
Subordinate/dependent clause: A clause that cannot stand alone as a sentence. It requires a main clause to be present.
Example: I went to the park that you showed me last sonner
Your example:
Phrase: Small groups of words that makes up neither a main or a subordinate clause.
Example: noun phrase – the green tree; adjectival phrase – very blue;
adverbial phrase – quite slowly; verb phrase – has gone.
Your example (one of each)

Semantics The study of meaning in language.
Colloquialism: Lexemes that are particular to certain regions and/or countries.
Example: bloody, cobber (worker/mate), mate, hard yakka (hard work), sheila, (girl), dickhead (idiot – often used affectionately!)
Your example:
Denotation: The official dictionary/standard meaning of a word. What a word literally means.
Example: Green - Of the colour between blue and yellow in the spectrum, like grass, seawater, emerald, olive etc.
Your example:
Connotation: The associations/extra meanings a word carries. Sometimes said to be 'loaded' words.
Example: Green – carries associations like 'naive', 'new to something', 'feeling sick', 'something that is fresh.
Your example:

Example: knowledge and interest; love and money; safe and sound; full-time staff; canteen lady.
Your example:
Euphemism: When a mild or indirect term is given in place of a harsh/offensive/confronting one.
Example: Some collateral damage took place during the combat.
Your example:
Dysphemism: When a direct/offensive/confronting word is given in place of a milder/indirect one.
Example: Did she finally kick the bucket?
Your example:

Collocation: Words within a phrase that are predictably associated with one

another. They often overlap with idioms and clichés.

Personification: When an inanimate object is given human char	acteristics.
Example: The sun's rays shone happily forth.	
Your example:	
Metaphor: Creates an idea of something by saying that someth something else. Uses symbolism to represent what something is relies on connotations.	
Example: You are my sunshine , my only sunshine . (relies connotations of 'sunshine' as being good, happy and healthy)	on the positive
Your example:	
·	
Simile: Comparing one thing with another by saying something something else.	g is 'like'
Example: 'He went in his ice-bound boots like a man on j slabs. He wagged his bag like a frozen camel's hump' (Dylan Thor Christmas in Wales)	
Your example:	

Example: You're a dickhead mate.
Your example:
Taboo: Ideas that we are not usually comfortable talking about openly. Euphemisms are often used to help us to talk about topics like <i>sex, death and bodily functions</i> more easily.
Example: I'm just going to the 'little girls' room'. I'm sure you can come up with many more creative examples for this one ©
Your example:
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Doublespeak: Not saying what you really mean. Talking around the topic so that you are not actually lying but nor are you being very clear.
Example: 'We are moving forward' (Julia Gillard during the 2010 election campaign)
Your example:

Slang: Informal, distinctively non-standard language that is often associated

with a particular age/social/gender group. Slang is always changing and

doesn't always last. Slang often overlaps into colloquial language.

Pun: A play on words. Usually makes use of a double meaning or a	mbiguity.
Example: In equations involving square numbers, I can never root of the problem. (Pun is on square & root – a play on 'square r	find the
Your example:	
Vagueness: Being unclear about what you mean. Not really answer question.	ring a
Example: 'What are you doing at lunchtime?', 'Oh, I don't kn	low'.
Your example:	
*	
Oxymoron: Words or phrases that are put together because they a contradictory.	re
Example: civil war, fun homework, exciting salad, honest poli	itician

Idiom: A common saying.
Example: It's raining cats and dogs.
Your example:
Jargon: Specialised language belonging to a particular field/domain.
Example: Can you please make sure the crema on that latte is perfect.
(uses jargon from the semantic field of coffee/coffee making)
Your example:
Irony: A form of figurative language where the actual meaning is the opposite of the stated meaning. It is often used for humorous effect. Can often cross over with/make use of oxymoron & sarcasm.
Example: 'It is a truth universally acknowledged, that a single man in possession of a good fortune, must be in want of a wife'. (Jane Austen; Pride & Predjudice) This quote makes use of irony as it is actually saying that all these rich men do not necessarily want a wife but the women want their money.
Your example:

Ambiguity: When there is more than one possible meaning to a sentence/word. Lexical ambiguity is created by a word. Syntactical ambiguity is created by the sentence structure/use of punctuation.

Example: Do you want a woman vicar? (lexical); 10 year old student

suspended by head (lexical); Local man finds Picasso drawing in shed (lexical); People who eat fast food often gain weight (syntactic – meaning would become clear if there was a comma somewhere)
Your example:
Cliche: A saying that has become so common and overused that it has ceased to really mean anything at all. Cliches can often overlap with idioms.
Example: We'll leave no stone unturned.
Your example:
Synonymy: use of words that are similar in meaning (synonyms)
Example: I would like to be buried in a tranquil, peaceful and quiet graveyard.
Your example:

Example: I want to be loud but I also enjoy some quiet.
Your example:
Overstatement/hyberbole: Exaggeration. Making something sound more than it is.
Example: Those eggs are the best in the whole wide world!!
Your example:
Political correctness: Communicating in a way that ensures no-one is discriminated against particularly in regard to race, religion, geneder, sexual orientation and disability Can also fit into discourse .
Example: 'hearing impaired' for deaf; 'firefighter' for fireman.
Your example:

Antithesis/Antonymy: Use of words/phrases that are opposite in meaning to

each other.

Example: Don't we all feel that enough is enough?
Your example:
Exclusive language: Language that deliberately excludes and differentiates the audience from the speaker/writer. Can also fit into discourse .
Example: We regret to inform you that we no longer require your
services.
Your example:

Inclusive language: Language that includes its speaker/writer and audience. .

Can also fit into discourse.

Phonology The study of sound systems and the distinctive sound patterns in a language.
Phonetics The study of how humans produce sounds eg. How we articulate vowels & consonants.
Accent: Distinctive pronunciations that mark regional or social identity.
Example: I went to the shop for six dollars worth of fish and chips (insert New Zealand accent here – e sound instead of i).
Your example:
Consonance: Repeated patterns of consonant sounds within words.
Example: Beanz Meanz Heinz (from a popular Australian advertisement for baked beans)
Your example (Note: Not alliteration.)

Assonance: Repeated patterns of vowel sounds within words

Example: ...their **flowers** the tenderness of **silent minds**

And each slow dusk drawing down of blinds. (Wilfred Owen 1893-1918, 'Anthem for Doomed Youth)

Your example:
Assimilation: When two phonemes that are next to each other are influenced by each other, making the sound more alike.
Example: Pronouncing 'did you' as 'didju' or 'want you' as 'wanchu'.
Your example:
Phoneme: Smallest unit of sound there is.
Example: a, b, c, d(plus the extra sounds that some letters have — there are 26 letters in the alphabet and 44 phonemes)
Your example:
3 1

Prosodic features: The use of stress, pitch and intonation to indicate variations in sound. Volume (loud or soft) and tempo (fast and slow) are also prosodic features. Always read spoken transcription symbols carefully!! Stress - When emphasis is placed on a certain word to make it stand out. Usually indicated by italics. Pitch - The level of a sound - low, medium, high. May be a high and squeaky pitch, may be low and deep or rising and falling. Rising pitch /, falling pitch\ Intonation - Describes a change in pitch. May be rising / or falling\. Example: A: Ye=ah but don't you reckon she shouldn't/ B: I really don't\ Your example: Epenthesis: When sounds are added into a word. (AKA insertion.) Example: Pronouncing the word 'known' as 'knowan' Your example:

Example: Get the 'budder' out of the fridge.	
Your example:	

Flapping: The 'd' sound often heard in place of the 't' sound.

Morphology The study of how words are structured/formed.
Lexicology The words themselves eg. your lexicon (vocabulary).
Morpheme: The smallest unit of meaning.
Free Morpheme: A unit of meaning that can stand alone as a word.
Example: dog, able, word, free, star, gravy, car.
Your example:
Bound Morpheme: A unit of meaning that cannot stand alone as a word Used to add meaning to free morphemes.
Example: -ness, -un, -ing, -er, -ish, ish, dis.
Your example:
Derivational Morphology: Uses morphemes to create new words by adding prefixes or suffixes or both. Often changes the word class also.
Example: unreal, redraft, sadly, unacceptable, subconsciously; exploit (verb) — exploitation (noun); joy (noun) — joyful (adj.)
Your example:

Inflectional Morphology: Uses morphemes to change the form of a word without changing the word class. It involves plurals, possessives and changes in tense.
Example: cats; the girl's lunch; doing; walked.
Your example:
Prefix: A morpheme attached to the start of a word. Does not always change the word class.
Example: hyper-, be-, re-
Your example:
Suffix: A morpheme attached to the end of a word. Suffixes often, but not always, alter the word class.
Example: -ation, -ful, -ship
Your example:

Affix/affixation: A collective term for both prefixes and suffixes.
Example: See prefix & suffix.
Your example:
Deictic expressions/deixis: Words used to point to something outside of the text that is not otherwise mentioned.
Example: This is nice; These are lovely; That is worth reading.
Your example:
Word classes:
Closed class (function words):
Determiner: Come before nouns in sentences and indicate (determine) the amount of something or who possesses it. Includes the articles the, a & an. Numbers also count as determiners. If it doesn't come before a noun then it is not acting as a determiner.
Example: The book; my book; This week; More chocolate?; Every student; Six cows escaped; That book is worth reading.
Your example:

Example: I, you,her, he, she, it, we, them, they, theirs, me, us, our yours, myself, himself. Your example:	rs,
Your example:	
Conjunction: Are joining words.	
Example: and, but, your, neither, nor, either, or (coordinating conjunctions); when, while, as, before, until, after, since, if, unless, as, the like, though(subordinating conjunctions)	ian,
Your example:	
Preposition: Indicate the relationship between elements of the sentence Example: at, on, by, opposite, under, in, on, from, for, through, to	
Your example:	V GI G G

Open class (content words):
Nouns: Naming words for people, places and things.
Example: chair, table, happiness, hockey, stories, mice, tarantulas.
Your example:
Adjectives: Describe nouns.
Example: The stallion was pure white; She was the cleverest; The larg balloon.
Your example:
Verbs: Words that describe actions and states of being.
Example: I think therefore I am; The cow jumped over the moon.
Your example:
Adverbs: Describe and/or add information to verbs.
Example: The cow jumped quickly over the moon; I was thinking slowly
Your example:

· Albitich (Rg. 30 t)

use of a particular word/s.
Example: Former supermodel makes fortune in underwear . (Can't tell is it means the underwear business or making money by wearing underwear).
Your example:
Lexicon: A vocabulary.
Example: All the words you know!; 'I am so glad to now have all this metalanguage in my lexicon.
Your example:
Lexeme/lexical item: Any word.
Example:
Your examples (one noun, one vers, one advers, one preposition)

Lexical ambiguity: When the ambiguity in a sentence is created through the

Lexical choice: The words that are chosen in any given text/conversation.	
Example: Well, why don't you choose what to write?	
Your example:	
	-
Repetition: Repeating a particular word/s for a certain effect. When sentend patterns are repeated this then becomes a syntactical feature also.	ce
Example: 'To be or not to be, that is the question' (Hamlet, William Shakespeare)	
Your example:	
Spelling: The letters used to form words.	
Example: Is it encyclopedia or encyclopaedia??	
Your example (A commonly confised spelling):	
	_

Diminuitive: Often uses an affix to indicate that something is smaller or daintier. Is also commonly used in Australia as an affectionate nickname for people or things. (But why is it such a long word?? Weird...Maybe it should be called a 'dimmy'?)

Example: barbie – barbequeue; dimmy – Dim Sim; cigarette – cigar; Robbo – Robert; Maccas – McDonalds.
Your example:
Neologism: A made up/new word. Often combinations or variations on existing words.
Example: 'floordrobe' (when clothes are more often kept on the floor than in the cupboard).
Your example:

Discourse... The overall text/conversation. Discourse features are ones that affect the text as a whole and are generally discussed in terms of the overall text/conversation.

Non-fluency features: Anything that interrupts the flow of a discourse. More often associated with spoken language. Includes repairs, long pauses, voiced hesitations, overlaps, repetition, pause fillers. Of course, you need to decide if these things are acting as non-fluency features depending on the **context**.

Adjacency pairs: Are sequences of utterance that create a recognisable structural pattern. They are most often questions & answers but can also be openings/ closings or greetings/farewells. They always: follow each other, are produced by different speakers, have a logical pattern, conform to a pattern.

Example: X: 'It was lovely to see you'

Y: '

Your example:

Grice's cooperative maxims:

Quality: The idea that the truth is being told to the best of someone's knowledge.

Quantity: An appropriate amount of information for the particular context, audience & discourse.

Manner: Communicating in a way that is as clear as possible; avoids ambiguity and obscurity.

Relevance: Keeps the content of the discourse relevant. Does not bring up unrelated ideas/information.

* Coherence: How understandable a discourse is to its intended audience. This also fits into semantics as it deals with levels of understanding of meaning.

· FICCE Format, Logical ordering, Inference, cohesion, conventions, consistency

Inference: When a statement relies on some kind of previous knowledge for it to make sense.

Example: What with too much rosin and the soundpost breaking, it was impossible to play. Relies on existing knowledge of the violin to make sense.

This also fits into semantics as it deals with levels of understanding of meaning

* Cohesion: How a discourse is effectively linked together through

"IF CARS CRASHED"

- Information Flow
- + cataphonictanaphonic reference, substitution
- collocation, repetition, a whonging, synonymy, hypernymy, ellipsis, deixis

Paralinguistic features: Communication that uses gestures, posture, facial expressions and laughter.

Minimal responses/backchanneling: Little response given in a conversation. They usually, but not always, indicate that a person is listening to the speaker (or wants the speaker to think they are).

Example: Q: '... and then the paint got dryer and dryer.'

U: 'Mmm...'

Your example:	

Topic management: The way a speaker 'manages' or 'controls' the topic of conversation. Things like adjacency pairs, rising/falling intonation, use of pauses and backchanneling can help manage a topic.

Turn-taking: The manner in which speakers in a discourse take turns to speak.

Holding/sharing/handing over the floor: If a speaker has 'the floor' it means they are in control of the conversation and are the ones currently speaking. When it is someone else's turn to speak you would 'hand over the floor' and if speaking is shared then the 'floor is shared'.

Discourse particles/markers: Little words that don't have a lot of meaning out of context but are used to signal something within a discourse. They can indicate a change of topic, ask for confirmation, open a new topic or indicate a speaker's desire to keep talking.

Example: well, anyw	yay, so, you know, like
Your example:	
formal the discourse, the increases the social distar	
Topic Loops: When a speconversation previously.	aker 'loops' (goes) back to a topic that was part of the
Example: A: 'I have	e some apples for sale at my house'.
B: 'Oh yee	ah. Hey, do you want to come out on the weekend?'
A: 'Yeah si	ure. What do you want to do?'
B: 'Oh I do	n't know. Hey, about those apples, how much are
they?'	
Your example:	3 T

Latching: When one utterance comes directly after another with no break at all in between. This often happens when people who are close are talking as they are good at predicting which direction the conversation will take. A good example of this is sporting commentary, where the discourse is unscripted but the participants are well practised at predicting what should come next.

Social distance: The level of 'distance' between a text and its audience or between two or more speakers. For example, there is a greater level of social distance (you feel further away from each other) between you and the prime minister than there is between you and your close friends.

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TEXT TYPES

Monologue: A discourse that only involves one speaker. Like a speech, poem or

Dialogue: A discourse that involves two or more speakers.

Interview: A discourse where one person is asking the questions and the other is answering them. Like a TV or radio interview.

Unscripted: A discourse that is completely unprepared. The participants have no idea what they are going to say beforehand.

Semi-scripted: The participants may have some idea of what the topic will be and a loose outline of what they will say but do not read something out 'word for word'.

Spontaneous: When a conversation just happens on the spot without any preparation. Like if you bumped into a friend down the street you would have a conversation without thinking about it first.

Scripted: When you know exactly what you are going to say before you say it. Like if you gave an oral presentation and read directly from a piece of paper.

Also playscript
Also playscript
Alm script
Newspaper
andde

conversation interview presentation

FUNCTIONS

Phatic communication: A social conversation, often between friends.

Face-to-face conversation: A conversation that requires you to physically be in the same place as the other person.

Referential: Informative. A revision lecture is 'referential' in function because it is informative.

Transactional: When an exchange of some kind is being made. If you went to the corner shop to buy milk your purpose would be transactional.

Expressive: When the purpose is to express an inner emotion or feeling. Poetry and some stories are expressive in nature.

COMMUNICATION STYLES

Frozen: A style that is very set in its ways and does not change. It also does not allow for much interaction with other participants. If there is interaction it is very formulaic and symbolic. A wedding ceremony, the Australian constitution and a church service are all examples of the frozen style.

Formal: Often pre-prepared still but what is said is not as set as with the frozen style. Words are chosen carefully however and there is generally still quite a lot of social distance created by politeness in this style. A job interview, a dinner party with people you don't know that well and a news report are all in the formal style.

Consultative: The style used most often for everyday interaction. It is still polite but not quite as formal. It still makes use of Standard English and is the style you would use in class when talking to your teachers for example.

Casual: Much more informal. Makes use of slang, colloquialisms and idioms. This is the style you would use when talking to people you know.

Intimate: This style is reserved for people you are particularly close to such as your boyfriend/girlfriend, husband/wife and really close friends you have known for a long time.

LANGUAGE VARIETIES

Broad Australian: The Australian accent most associated with 'being Australian' and is often how the rest of the world thinks we all speak! It has long, flat vowels, is often more associated with country/rural areas and makes use of many colourful dysphemisms and idioms.

Fxample: 'Flat out like a lizard drinking mate.' (imagine Daryl Kerrigan from 'The Castle' saying this)

Your example:

General Australian: The accent in the middle of the Australian accent continuum. It is in between broad and cultivated and is most associated with Standard English.

Example: 'Hi, how are you going?'

Your example:

Cultivated Australian: The Australian accent that sounds more British than Australian. This is what many Australians aspired to sound like earlier in our

Example: 'The rain in Spain posh person saying this — think	in falls mainly on the plain' (imagine a very the opposition lawyers from 'The Castle')
Your example:	
Ethnolect: An accent/language value Language being influenced by a pare often omitted.	ariety that comes out of English as a Second person's first language. Articles and pronouns
Example: 'My friend, he co 'The Castle' – Lebanese ethnolect)	ome to your house, he drop bomb' (Farouk from
Your example:	e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e
Idiologia Vous aurain III III	
fit with gender, social or age relat	ech variations. Some of these things may also ted variations also.
Example: 'I told you to, like	get the thingy out of the shed.'
Your example:	

history, especially in the early-mid 20th Century. It has strong associations with

class, education and snobbery.

Dialect: A variety of language that is specific to a certain area or social group. Different to colloquialisms in that a dialect is more varied from the standard and also has more distinctive vocabulary and grammar.

Example: Southern Italian dialects, Scottish English, Aboriginal English.

Standard Australian English (SAE): The manner of speaking/writing that we see as 'correct' or 'proper' English here in Australia. What is considered to be 'standard' can change with the times.

Example: 'Damn it' used to be considered unacceptable language, it is now considered to be quite standard.

American English: The variety of English spoken in America (containing many of its own variations also).

Example: Please feel free to use the **bathroom** (toilet). Use the **faucet** (tap) to wash your hands and then we will have **jello** (jelly) for dessert.

British English: The variety of English spoken in Britain (this really *English* Standard English – *Scotland, Wales & Northern Ireland all have their own very distinctive varieties*).

Example: I can't find the **sellotape** (sticky tape) or the **tippex** (liquid paper). Can you look under the **duvet** (doona) for me? **Cheers** (thanks).

Other national varieties: Varieties of English spoken in many other countries.

Example: Indian English, Singaporean English (Singlish), New Zealand English.

Teenspeak: Variety of English associated with teenagers today.

Example: 'She is so totally as hot as Beyonce'. (Think Jami'e King from Summer Heights High or some of your friends, maybe even yourself!!)

Y	our example:
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-	

ANALYSIS TOOLS

Context: The overall situation a text/conversation occurs within.

Example: The Principal's speech took place in the context of a school assembly, at McGuire College, in Shepparton, Australia.

Content: What is contained within a text/conversation.

Example: The content of the Principal's speech was the wearing of school uniform.

Function: What a text/conversation is for. What is the point of it?

Example: The function of the Principal's speech was to **inform** and **persuade**. It was certainly not supposed to be **entertaining**.

Mode: Whether a text is spoken, written or signed.

Example: This handout is in the written mode.

Audience: Who the text is aimed at/intended for.

Example: You are the audience for this handout.

Principle of Appropriateness: The idea that people always make an effort for texts/conversations to be suitable for the context, mode and audience.

Example: Even though he swore a lot, the register used by Daryl Kerrigan in the garage scene did adhere to the **Principle of Appropriatness** because it suited his audience.

Register: The level of formality/informality you communicate with depending on the **context** and **audience**. The register you use is your response to the **Principle of Appropriateness**.

Example: The Principal's **register** was quite formal as she was very serious about school uniform.

ANALYTICAL COMMENTARY INTRODUCTIONS

· MR F CAPPTS - Define each one & give an example

MODE: REGISTER:

FUNCTION:

CONTEXT (situational + cultural) .

AUDIENCE:

PARTICIPANTS:

PURPOSE:

TEXT TYPE: SEMANTIC FIELD:

BODY PARAGRAPHS:

· social purpose

o register

· discouse & stylistic feators MR FCAPPTS

All features
linked to
elements of
MR F (APPT)

Social purposes learning wall

intimacy /'ɪntɪməsi/ ♣

noun

close familiarity or friendship. "the infimacy between a husband and wife"

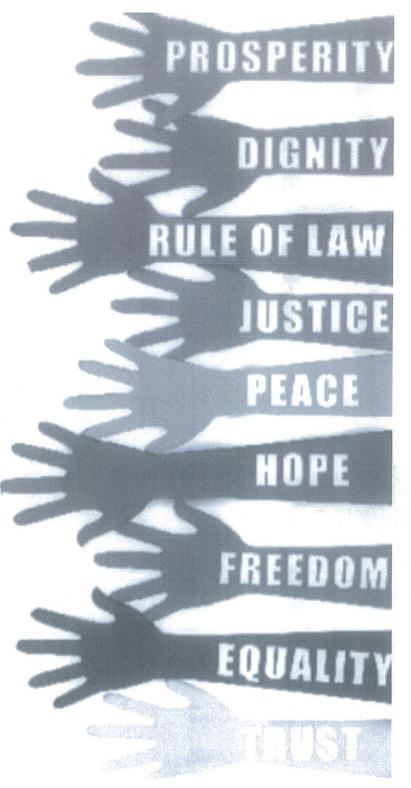
comradeship, companionship, amity, affection, mutual affection, warmth, warm feelings, synonyms: closeness, togetherness, affinity, rapport, attachment, familiarity, confidentiality, close association, close relationship, close attachment, close friendship, friendliness, understanding, fellow feeling; More

a cosy and private or relaxed atmosphere.
 "the room had a peaceful sense of intimacy about it"

Intimacy is not purely physical.

It's the act of connecting with someone so deeply, you feel like you can see into their soul.

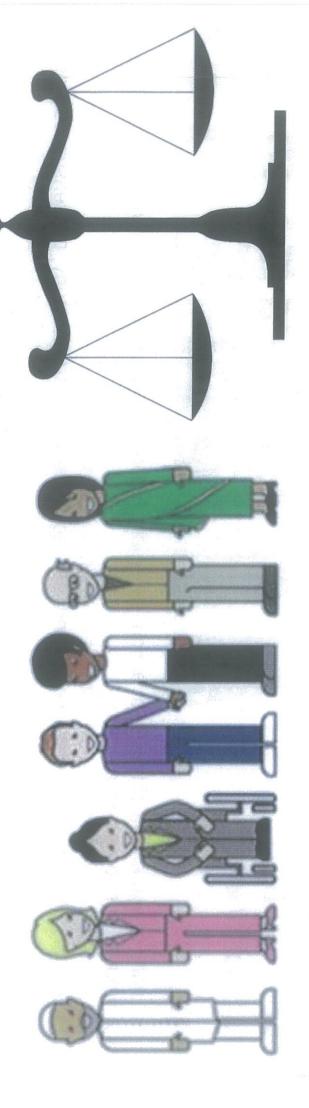




soli dartti/ ◆)

1. unity or agreement of feeling or action, especially among individuals with a common interest; mutual support within a group.

synonyms: unanimity, unity, like-mindedness, agreement, accord, harmony, consensus, concord, concurrence, singleness of purpose, community of interest, mutual support cooperation, cohesion, team spirit, camaraderie, esprit de corps "there was a great feeling of solidarity between us all" "factory workers voiced solidarity with the striking students"



equality

/ı'kwolrti,i'kwolrti/ 4)

noun

synonyms: fairness, justness, equitability, impartiality, even-handedness, egalitarianism, equal 1. the state of being equal, especially in status, rights, or opportunities. rights, equal opportunities, non-discrimination, More "an organization aiming to promote racial equality"



the power or right to give orders, make decisions, and enforce obedience. "he had absolute authority over his subordinates"

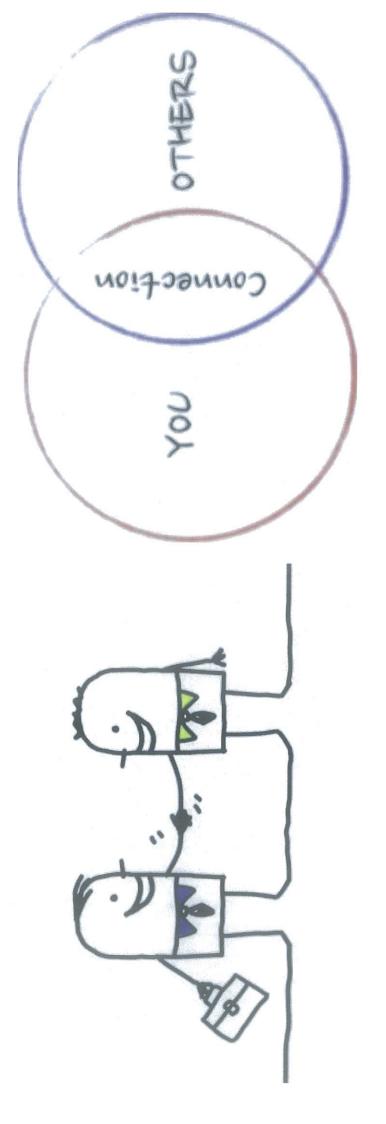
synonyms: power, jurisdiction, command, control, mastery, charge, dominance, dominion, rule, sovereignty, ascendancy, supremacy, domination; More



expert skill or knowledge in a particular field.

"technical expertise"

synonyms: skill, skilfulness, expertness, prowess, proficiency, competence;



Building Rapport

Rapport is a state of harmonious understanding with another individual or group that enables greater people, by having things in common, this makes the communication process easier and usually more and easier communication. In other words rapport is getting on well with another person, or group of

taboo

a social or religious custom prohibiting or restricting a particular practice or forbidding association with a particular person, place, or thing.

synonyms: prohibition, proscription, veto, interdiction, interdict, ban, restriction, boycott, non-'many taboos have developed around physical exposure" "the taboo against healing on the sabbath" acceptance, anathema

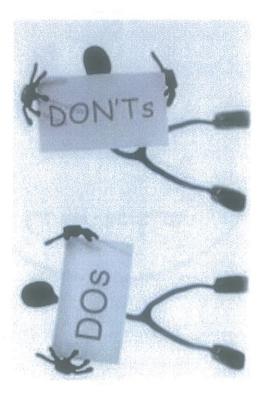
adjective

 prohibited or restricted by social custom. "sex was a taboo subject."

synonyms: forbidden, prohibited, banned, proscribed, vetoed, ruled out, interdicted, outlawed, not permitted, not allowed, illegal, illicit, unlawful, impermissible, not acceptable,

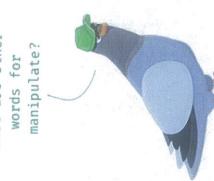
restricted, frowned on, beyond the pale, off limits, out of bounds. More





manipulate /mə nrpjulert/ ♣)





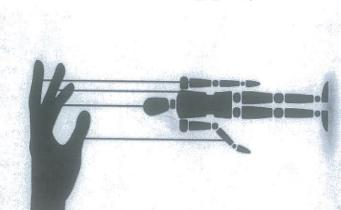
control, handle, influence,





synonyms: exploit, control, influence, use/furn to one's advantage, manoeuvre, engineer, steer, control or influence (a person or situation) cleverly or unscrupulously. "the masses were deceived and manipulated by a tiny group"

direct, guide, twist round one's little finger, work, orchestrate, choreograph "the government fried to manipulate the situation"







clarify /ˈklarɪfʌɪ/ ◆

verb

synonyms: make clear, shed light on, throw light on, elucidate, illuminate, make plain, make make (a statement or situation) less confused and more comprehensible. "the report managed to clarify the government's position" simple, simplify, More



"Send this contract back to legal. It needs more obfuscation."

obfuscate

/'pbfnskert/

verb

"the spelling changes will deform some familiar words and obfuscate their etymological origins" synonyms: obscure, confuse, make obscure/unclear, blur, muddle, jumble, complicate, garble, muddy, cloud, befog; muddy the waters make obscure, unclear, or unintelligible.







Social Harmony

As an ideal, it means the people who live around and near each other get along and cooperate to make everything

better for everyone



