English Language
HOLIDAY HOMEWORK
Year 12 2023

Teacher/Subject Coordinator Contact:	Meiki Apted meiki.apted@sssc.vic.edu.au Staffroom: School library
RECOMMENDED	**REVISION** **1.** Complete "Year 11 Concepts you will need in year 12" and "Metalanguage" **PREPARATION** **2.** Read Living Lingo pp2-26 "Setting the Scene" **3.** Start to follow key Australian public figures on your socials (ScoMo, Dan Andrews, Andrew Bolt, Baker Boy, Clementine Ford, Jacqui Lambie…) **EXTENSION** **4.** Record 30 seconds of spontaneous chat, and transcribe it.

REQUIRED	**PREPRATION FOR AOS1 - SAC 1**
	1. From your Living Lingo Textbook, write a dot point summary of:
	    2.0 Informal Language (pp28-32)
	    2.1 Features of Informal Language (pp 32- 48)
	    2.4.1 Conversational Strategies: conversation routines, listening noises, interrogative tags, discourse particles
	2. Complete the metalanguage bible

Textbooks	• Kirstin Fox's *Metalanguage Guide* (aka orange textbook) • Kate Burridge & Debbie de Laps *Living Lingo* (aka blue textbook)
Key Links:	*Study Design:* https://www.vcaa.vic.edu.au/curriculum/vce/vce-study-designs/englishlanguage/Pages/Index.aspx *Past exams + Examiners Reports*: https://www.vcaa.vic.edu.au/assessment/vce-assessment/past-examinations/Pages/English-Language.aspx *The Guardian- Mind your Language:* https://www.theguardian.com/media/mind-your-language
Additional Resources:	• **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 • **Exam preparation – beginner**: "ATAR NOTES" English Language Units 3&4 2018-2023 ~ $27 Michael Rehfisch, Lauren White, Thushan Hettige.

Year 11 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
Metalanguage
Subsystems
Phonetics
Phonology
Morphology
Lexicology
Syntax
Semantics
Discourse Analysis
Noun
Pronoun
Adjective
Verb
Adverb
Conjunction
Preposition
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
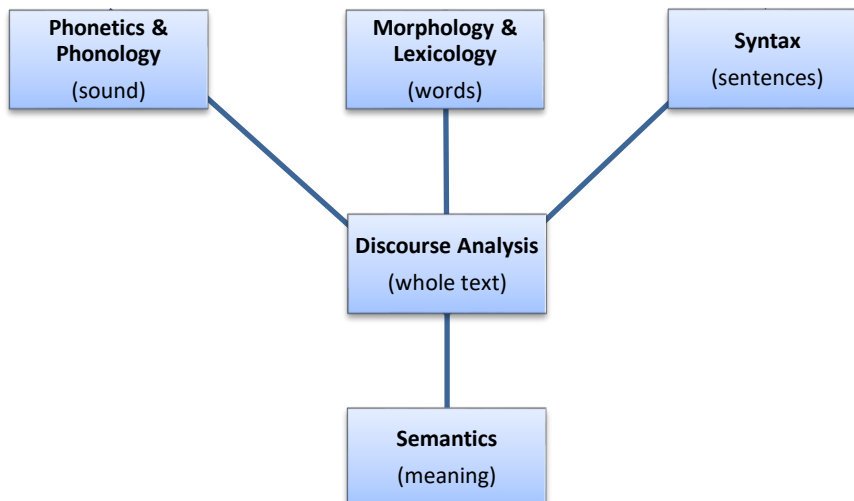
The basic tool you need for this subject is the knowledge of the five subsystems of language. These are the component parts of the 'whole' system that is language.

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.

1. 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 _____. _____, the gronger plonked. Who _____ it be? Tertis clowed _____ 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
1. 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.

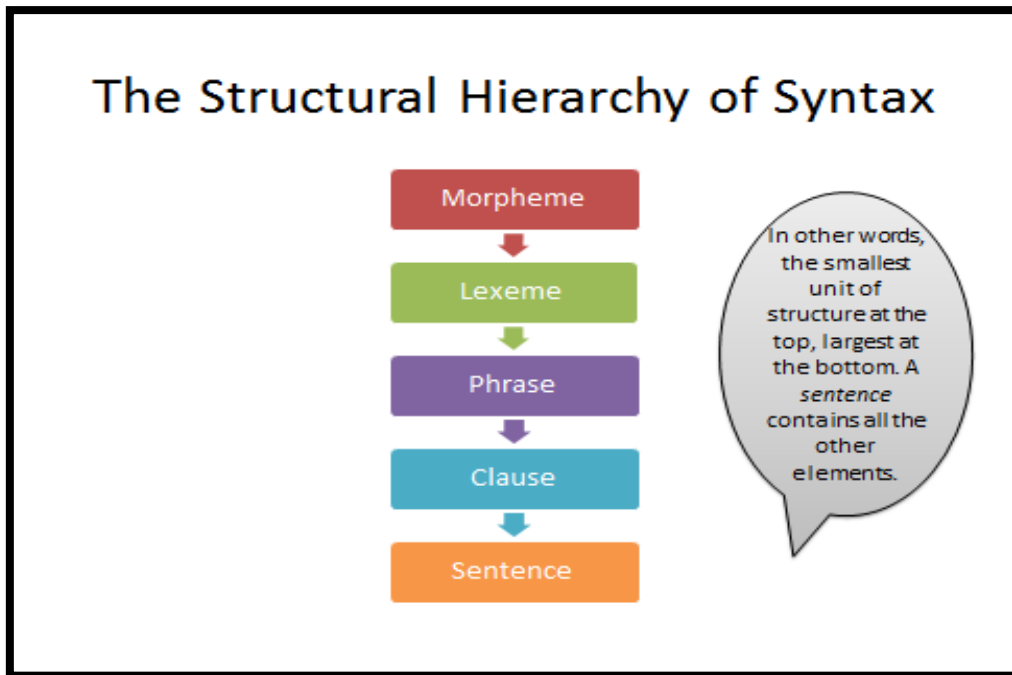My father says there has been a forest here

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
      S   P

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 /ɒ/ have no meaning in isolation—and only become meaningful when combined together in various ways—/tɒp/, /pɒt/, /ɒpt/. 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'.

AOS1 Notetaking – required textbook
*There are some in T4; take photographs

From your Living Lingo Textbook, write a dot point summary of:
- 2.0 Informal Language (pp28-32)
- 2.1 Features of Informal Language (pp 32- 48)
- 2.4.1 Conversational Strategies: conversation routines, listening noises, interrogative tags, discourse particles

2.0 Informal Language (pp28-32)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____\

2.1 Features of Informal Language (pp 32- 48)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

**2.4.1 Conversational Strategies: conversation routines, listening noises,
   interrogative tags, discourse particles**

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____
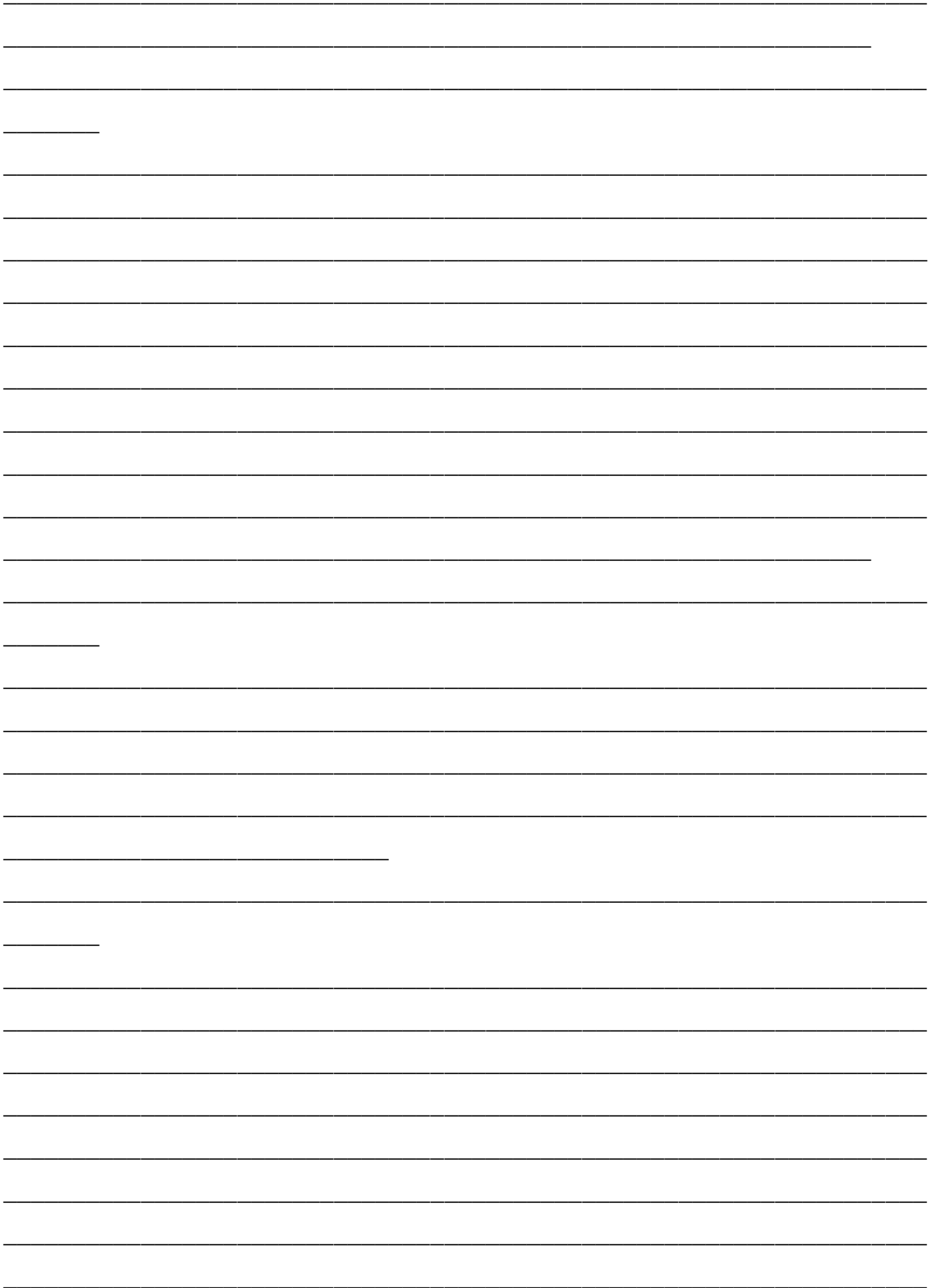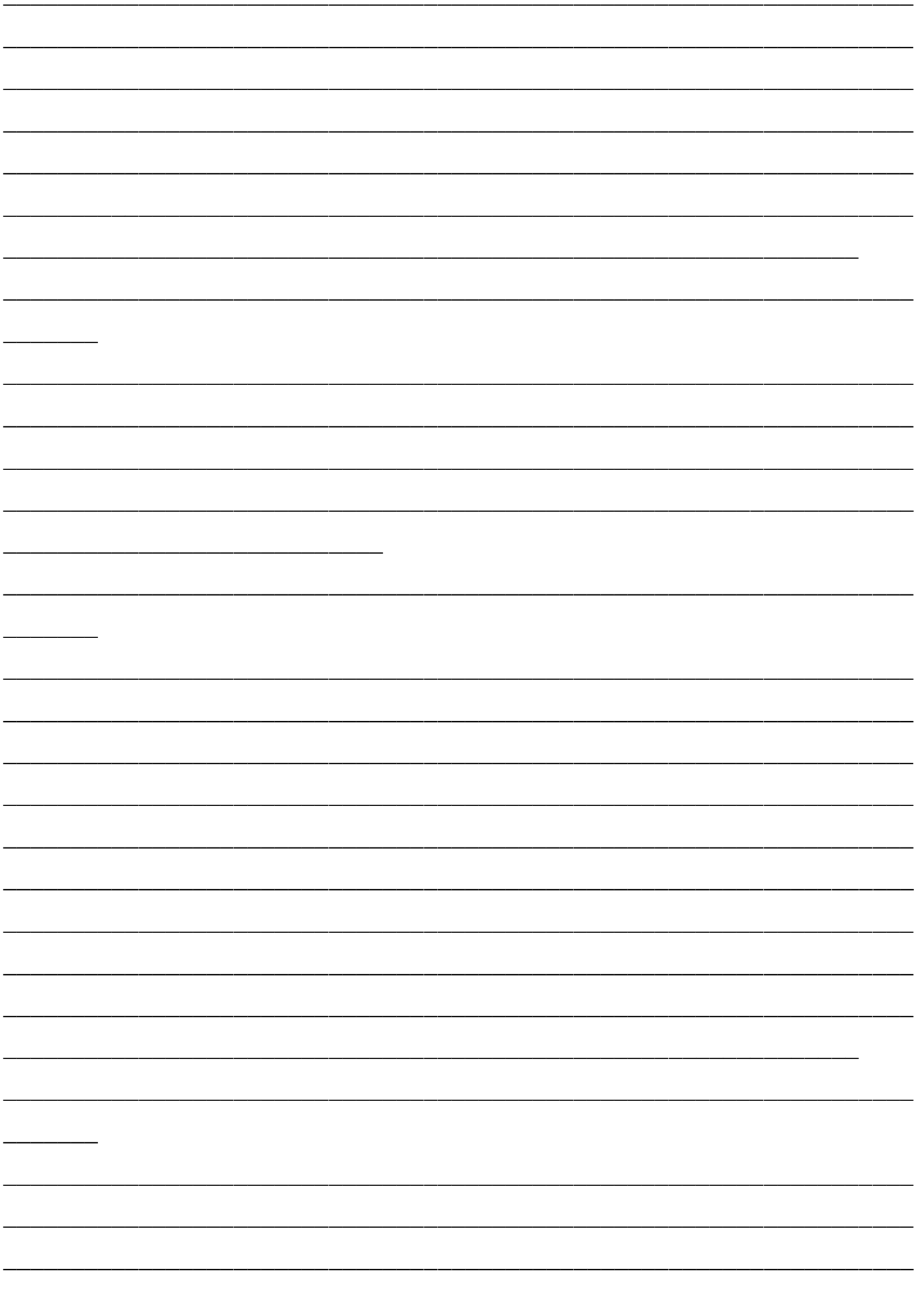
YOUR METALANGUAGE BIBLE BY SUBSYSTEM

Syntax... *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 <u>them.</u>

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Cataphoric reference: Use of pronouns to refer *forward* to something that has not yet been mentioned.

Example: <u>They</u> were great. Everybody got something out of the <u>revision lectures.</u>

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:

_____

_____

_____

Imperative sentences types: Sentences that give a request, command or direction (tell someone what to do).

    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 <u>there</u>".

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Ellipsis: Words left out of a sentence. More common in informal texts.

> *Example: "Coming?" instead of "Are you coming?"*

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Simple sentence structures: A sentence made up of one main/independent clause.

> *Example: (Micheal likes wearing his hat.)*
>
> (main)

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Compound sentence structures: A sentence made up of two or more main clauses linked by a coordinating conjunction or sometimes a comma.

> *Example: (We could go to the park) or (we could visit the museum.)*
>
> (main)   (main)

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Complex sentence structures: Sentences made up of one main clause and at least one subordinate clause.

Example: (I decided that) (the essay was not that hard after all.)

(sub)   *(main)*

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Compound/complex sentence structures: Sentences made up of at least two main clauses and at least one subordinate clause.

Example:(I decided that) (the essay was not that hard after all) and (the

(sub)

exam was pretty good.)

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Listing: Placing items one after another separated by commas.

Example: : I told my students that I like eggs, shiraz, chocolate, pizza and thai curry.

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Parallelism: Sentences and/or phrases that have a balanced structure. 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 punctuation) Okay?

_____
_____
_____

Syntactical ambiguity: When more than one possible meaning is created through the use of syntax, usually punctuation and sentence structure.

> *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:

_____

_____

_____

Subordination: A combination of clauses that are not in balance with one another. Subordinate clauses joined to a main clause by a *subordinating conjunction.*

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:

_____

_____

_____

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 summer

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:

_____

_____

_____

Collocation: Words within a phrase that are predictably associated with one another. They often overlap with *idioms and clichés.*

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:

_____

_____

_____

Personification: When an inanimate object is given human characteristics.

Example: The sun's rays shone happily forth.

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Metaphor: Creates an idea of something by saying that something *is something else. Uses symbolism to represent what something is like. Often relies on connotations.*

Example: You are my sunshine, my only sunshine. (relies on the positive connotations of 'sunshine' as being good, happy and healthy)

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Simile: Comparing one thing with another by saying something is 'like' something else.

Example: 'He went in his ice-bound boots like a man on fishmonger's slabs. He wagged his bag like a frozen camel's hump' (Dylan Thomas, 'A Child's Christmas in Wales)

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.

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 *sex, death and bodily functions* 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:

_____

_____

_____

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:

_____

_____

_____

Pun: A play on words. Usually makes use of a double meaning or ambiguity.

Example: In equations involving square numbers, I can never find the root of the problem. (Pun is on square & root – a play on 'square root')

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Vagueness: Being unclear about what you mean. Not really answering a question.

Example: 'What are you doing at lunchtime?', 'Oh, I don't know'.

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Oxymoron: Words or phrases that are put together because they are contradictory.

Example: civil war, fun homework, exciting salad, honest politician...

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

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:

_____

_____

_____

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

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:

_____

_____

_____

Inclusive language: Language that includes its speaker/writer and audience. . Can also fit into discourse.

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:

_____

_____

_____

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(is not an 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:

_____

_____

_____

IPA: International Phonetic Alphabet. You do not need to know this in any detail. You just need to be aware of it and what it is for.

Example: /b@i/ to represent the word buy.

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Rhythm: When a particular sound pattern is repeated. Often occurs in conjunction with rhyming.

Example: There once was an old woman who lived in a shoe, she had so many children she didn't know what to do.

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Rhyme: When specific words have mostly the same sound as other words. When they are used together it called rhyming. Rhyming creates *rhythm.*

Example: The cat sat in the hat on a mat.

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Elision: When phonemes (sounds) are missing from words.

Example: Stop lookin' out the window and talkin'!!

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Alliteration: When words grouped together all start with the same letter.

Example: It is incumbent upon us to instill interesting ideas in the young.

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Onomatopoeia: When words sound like what they are.

Example: moo, hiss, bang, crash, kapow!, meow, crunch, snap, crackle, pop.

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

<u>Prosodic features:</u> 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 <u>you</u> reckon she shouldn't/

B: I really don't

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Epenthesis: When sounds are added into a word.(Add Intrusion)

Example: Pronouncing the word 'known' as 'knowan'

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

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

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

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

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:

_____

_____

_____

Pronoun: Are words you can use instead of nouns.

Example: I, you, her, he, she, it, we, them, they, theirs, me, us, ours, yours, myself, himself.

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, than, like, though...(subordinating conjunctions)

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Preposition: Indicate the relationship between elements of the sentence.

Example: at, on, by, opposite, under, in, on, from , for, through, towards.

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

<u>Open class (content words):</u>

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 large 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:

_____

_____

_____

Lexical ambiguity: When the ambiguity in a sentence is created through the use of a particular word/s.

*Example: Former supermodel makes fortune in **underwear**. (Can't tell if 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 verb, one adverb, one preposition)

_____

_____

_____

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 sentence patterns are repeated this then becomes a **syntactical feature** also.

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:

_____

_____

_____

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**.

Example: 'I-I-I just, just don't know what to um s-say...'

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

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:

_____

_____

_____

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.

Example: 'I-I-I just, just don't know what to um s-say...'

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

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:

_____

_____

_____

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, anyway, so, you know, like...

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Politeness: The level to which participants are polite to each other. The more formal the discourse, the higher the level of politeness usually is. This usually increases the social distance.

Topic Loops: When a speaker 'loops' (goes) back to a topic that was part of the conversation previously.

Example: A: 'I have some apples for sale at my house'.

B: 'Oh yeah. Hey, do you want to come out on the weekend?'

A: 'Yeah sure. What do you want to do?'

B: 'Oh I don't know. Hey, about those apples, how much are

they?'

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

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.

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
— novel
— playscript
— film script
— newspaper article

— conversation
— interview
— presentation
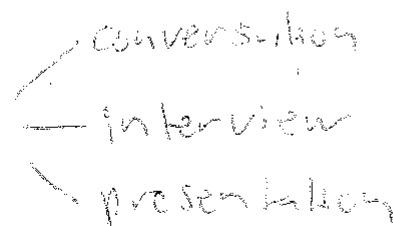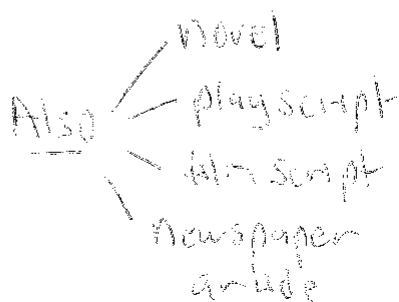
FUNCTIONS

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.

Example: '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

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

Example: 'The rain in Spain falls mainly on the plain' (imagine a very posh person saying this – think the opposition lawyers from 'The Castle')

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Ethnolect: An accent/language variety that comes out of English as a Second Language being influenced by a person's first language. Articles and pronouns are often omitted.

Example: 'My friend, he come to your house, he drop bomb' (Farouk from 'The Castle' – Lebanese ethnolect)

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

Idiolect: Your own individual speech variations. Some of these things may also fit with gender, social or age related variations also.

Example: 'I told you to, like get the thingy out of the shed.'

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

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!!)*

Your example:

_____

_____

_____

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 CARTS - Statement and give an example

MODE:
REGISTER:

FUNCTION:

CONTEXT (situational + cultural)
AUDIENCE:
PARTICIPANTS:

PURPOSE:
TEXT TYPE:
SEMANTIC FIELD:

BODY PARAGRAPHS:

NOTE: This has been upgraded to MRS F CARTS > See course overview for details

EXTENSION TASK:

Record ~30 seconds of casual conversation. Ideally record real people (friends, parents etc.) - if this isn't possible, unscripted spontaneous chat on the internet will also work.

Transcribe, including as much detail as possible (esp. non fluency features and prosodic features)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____