



VCE Exam Essentials

Unit 3 & 4
English Language



- ✓ A Complete Guide to the VCE Exams
- ✓ Comprehensive & Detailed A+ Notes
- ✓ VCE Exam Style Questions & Solutions
- ✓ Written by Experienced VCAA Examiners
- ✓ VCAA Examination Standard



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VCE EXAM HIGHLIGHTS

Unit 3 & 4 English Language

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VCE UNIT 3 & 4 EXAM HIGHLIGHTS

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UNIT 3: LANGUAGE VARIATION AND SOCIAL PURPOSE

AREA OF STUDY 2 – FORMAL LANGUAGE

OVERVIEW

OUTCOME 2

On completion of this unit the student should be able to **identify** and **analyse** distinctive features of formal language in written and spoken texts.

KEY KNOWLEDGE

You will need to understand the:

- **Relationship** between the context and the features of language in formal texts
- **Differences** in the nature and functions of formal and informal texts
- **Features** and **functions** of formal writing and formal speech as represented in a range of texts from literature and the public domain
- **Role** of discourse features and lexical choice in creating cohesion and coherence in formal spoken and written texts
- **Use** of various stylistic features in formal speech and writing:
 - Phonological patterning
 - Syntactic patterning
 - Morphological patterning
 - Lexical choice and semantic patterning
- **Use** of formal language for various social purposes:
 - Maintaining and challenging positive and negative face needs
 - Reinforcing social distance and authority
 - Establishing expertise
 - Promoting social harmony, negotiating social taboos and building rapport
 - Clarifying, manipulating or obfuscating
- **Metalanguage** to discuss informal language in texts

WHAT IS FORMAL LANGUAGE?

Formal English is the language of dissertations, research journals, legal opinions, and Nobel Prize acceptance addresses. It asks more of its audience. It is sober, circumspect, and self-conscious. Its vocabulary is refined if not specialised. It is the hardest language to produce, not just because of its elevated content but also because even at its best it can be stiff and flat, and at its worst, arcane and stuffy.

Some of the characteristic features of formal language:

- **It minds its words:**

Word choice probably exerts the biggest influence on formality of expression. Formal writing usually employs a more advanced vocabulary and appeals to a wider-ranging, more enriched experience. *Receive* is more formal than *get*, *purchase* than *buy*, *peruse* than *read*.

- **It follows a roadmap:**

Formal writing usually defines its subject and provides the schema it will follow in discussing it. A pattern or thought syllabus is laid out, often progressing through discrete stages that are understood or agreed on in advance between writer and audience—for instance, the familiar Introduction, Methods, Results, and Discussion (IMRAD) plan favoured by many professional groups and their technical publications.

- **It observes a more intricate sentence and paragraph design:**

The sentences of formal writing are likely to be longer than those in other types of writing. They often employ parallel constructions that balance dependent and independent clauses. Paragraphs are sequenced skilfully and logically, and greater thought is applied to topic-sentence linkage and transitions from paragraph to paragraph.

- **It doesn't cut corners:**

The more formal the language, the fewer the contractions, elliptical shortcuts, and word truncations: *has not*, *will not*, *are not*, *you are*, *he will*, *she is*, *they would*, *let us*, for *hasn't*, *won't*, *aren't*, *you're*, *he'll*, *she's*, *they'd*, *let's*.

- **It prizes information over effect:**

Formal writing is more factual and less personal. Formal writing is plainer, greyer, more matter-of-fact, less adorned with figures of speech, less regional, and usually less colourful.

FEATURES OF FORMAL LANGUAGE

PHONOLOGY

Formal texts use a range of devices for playing on the patterns and sounds of words to create certain stylistic effects. These are chosen to enhance the meaning to be conveyed to the audience.

	Definition/Example(s)	Role of this Feature in Formal Texts
Alliteration	The repetition of the same or similar consonant sounds, generally in the initial position/beginning of words. For example, ' <i>Help Labour Build a better Britain</i> '.	Used a lot in advertisements, captions and headlines to make the text more eye-catching and memorable
Assonance	The repetition of the same or similar vowel sounds in the medial position. For example, ' <i>doom/wound and gleam/sheen</i> '.	This is a poetic device which is used to make words sound sonorous and musical and is often used to create a grave or pensive tone.
Consonance	The repetition of a consonant in the medial or final position. For example, ' <i>Beanz Meanz Heinz</i> '.	This device draws attention to a product name in advertising or enhances meaning.
Onomatopoeia	It refers to a sound of word that directly links to the meaning. For example, ' <i>The books fell on the table with a loud thump.</i> '	The emphasis on the sound quality focuses the reader's or listener's attention on the aural aspects of the discourse, thus creating another dimension to the meaning.
Rhyme	It refers to exact or partial repetitions of sound, usually at the end of a poetic line. For example, ' <i>Do not go gentle into that good night/Rage, rage against the dying of the light</i> '.	This kind of sound patterning can be used to draw attention to certain words. It creates a kind of end focus and be used in a conclusive way to signal the end of a poem or a speech dramatically.

LEXICOLOGY & MORPHOLOGY

Formal texts often involve careful lexical choices. It can be influenced by the context or audience or governed by the subject-specific nature of a topic which requires technical or specialised lexis. Formal language also includes lexemes that are elevated and prestigious or considered to be of 'high' style.

Some of these elevated lexemes or stylish words come from Latin or French. It is important here to consider the influence of French and Latin on English.

Most of the French words that were introduced into the English language belong to the domains of art, fashion, law, administration, religion, military, food and drink, etc. These words carried prestige, class and style and were associated with aristocracy. They contributed to the creation of a system of stylistic levels of English. French words that had similar meanings began appearing side-by-side with native English words, but usually diverging in meaning and style. The French words were considered to be more refined, nuanced and stylish to the English counterpart. For example, *stink* and *stench* are English, *aroma* and *fragrance* are French; *house* is English, *mansion* is French; *bloomers*, *drawers* and *girdle* in English are *lingerie*, *petticoat* and *negligee* in French.

Latin words were also introduced into English. Most of these words were professional or technical terms, belonging to the domains of religion, medicine, law and literature. They also included words which were borrowed by a writer in a deliberate attempt to produce a 'high' style. For example, *client*, *testimony*, *homicide*, *prosecute* etc. (administration and law); *library*, *solar*, *scribe* etc. (Science and learning); *diocese*, *immortal*, *pulpit*, *requiem* etc. (Religion)

This simultaneous borrowing of French and Latin words led to a highly distinctive feature of Modern English vocabulary – sets of three items all expressing the same fundamental notion but in differing meaning or style.

COMPOUNDING

Compounding involves the combination of two or more free morphemes (free morphemes are those that can occur on their own as separate words). For example, *gentleman*, *outpatient*, *baby-sit*, *stress-free*, *skin-deep*, *over-react*, *underachieve*, *sleepwalk*. Sometimes compounding happens when two nouns are taken from Latin or Greek: *pathology*, *optometry*, *psychology* etc. Such words appear in more learned and scientific texts.

AFFIXATION

Affixation resembles compounding, but it involves bound morphemes (bound morphemes are those that cannot occur on their own as separate words), such as prefixes and suffixes. For example, morphemes like '-y', '-ment', '-ed', 'un-'. Very often the effect of affixation is to change the part-of-speech category of the word – to form a noun from adjective or verb, to form a verb from a noun or adjective. For example, '**be**-friend' or '**en**-danger' are nouns '*friend*' and '*danger*' that are changed to verbs by adding the prefixes '*be*-' and '*en*-''. Some affixes are highly productive and achieve popularity. For example, all the '-ise' words: *prioritise*, *personalise*, *diarise* etc.

INITIALISM

Initialism is when words are created from the initial letters of a sequence of words (or, in some cases, of parts of words). There are two types: **acronyms** are formed by initialism in a way that picks initials that spell out a pronounceable word (for example, *NATO* – *North Atlantic Treaty Organisation*). An **abbreviation** is pronounced simply by uttering all the letters (for example, *CIO* – *Chief Information Officer*).

SEMANTICS

- Words have varying degrees of formality and status within the language. Words that belong to the same semantic field have different meanings associated to each of them because some words are newer or more 'posh' than the other. For example, the following words all have similar meanings, but differ in association because they belong to separate styles of English:
 - *Domicile* (official/technical)
 - *Residence* (formal)
 - *Abode* (archaic/poetic)
 - *Home* (general)
 - *Digs* (colloquial)
 - *Gaff* (slang)
- Words also have different shades of meaning. While words have a denotative meaning, some words have connotative meaning. Connotation refers to the socially acquired meaning of a word. It offers an insight into social attitudes of the time. For example, the words *black*, *white* and *coloured* have various connotations, especially when talk about 'race'.
- Certain words have a tendency to occur together. These words are called collocations. For example, a word like *clear* can be found with a number of nouns: *clear sky*, *clear conscience*, *clear idea*, *clear road*. In each of these examples, the word *clear* has a slightly different meaning because of the word that it accompanies.
- Figurative or Metaphorical Language is an important part of formal texts because it allows a speaker or writer to combine everyday language with devices that create special semantic effects. Some of these are:
 - Metaphor is used to compare or describe one thing in terms of another, creating an implicit comparison. It usually involves substituting one thing with the other. For example, 'The old man was a **cunning fox**'; The child was a **mischievous young monkey**.
 - Simile is an explicit comparison between two things by using a marker such as the prepositions *like* or *as*. For example, 'The teacher did not miss anything; she had **eyes like a hawk**'; His brain was **as sharp as a tack**'.
 - Personification is the term used when an object or idea is given human qualities. For example, 'The **winter settles** down.'
 - Oxymoron uses two apparently self-contradictory statements which contain some kind of deeper meaning below the surface. For example, '*delicious poison*'; '*Robin Hood was an honest thief*'.

SYNTAX

PHRASE

Phrase is a single word or group of words that act together as a unit but that do not contain a finite verb (a verb that is marked for tense, number and person). It functions in a sentence like a single part of speech. It cannot stand as a sentence on its own because its message is not complete.

Noun Phrase	<i>A long walk through the bush</i> is good exercise.
Adjectival Phrase	I like the flowers <i>in your garden</i> .
Phrasal Verbs	The manager <i>brought up</i> the same arguments.
Adverbial Phrase	The students worked hard <i>to pass their examination</i> .
Prepositional Phrase	The driver <i>of the bright-red sports car</i> .



CLAUSE

Clauses are the main structures used to compose sentences. There are five types of clause element (Subject + Verb + Object + Complement + Adverbial) and each has a different function and place in a sentence.

Subject	Verb	Object	Complement	Adverbial
<p>Noun phrase, pronoun or a clause</p>	<p>Actions, processes, states, etc.</p>	<p>Direct Object (directly affected by the verb)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> I bought a Surface. <p>Indirect Object (indirectly affected by the verb – <i>indirect object usually is followed by the direct object, but sometimes it follows the direct object - if that is the case then the indirect object is preceded by to</i>)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The school gave us all a Surface. (The School gave a Surface to all of us) 	<p>Provides extra information about the subject or object – they can be an adjective phrase, a noun phrase, a pronoun, a numeral or a clause:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Surface computers are the best. Surface computers cost around \$2000. The Surface computer on the table is hers. The Surface Computer is where Microsoft resurfaced... 	<p>Provides extra information about time, manner and place – ask the questions <i>why?</i>, <i>when?</i>, <i>where?</i> and <i>how often?</i></p> <p>Adverbials can be adverb phrases, prepositional phrases or clauses</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Surface computers are the best of all the laptops. I am sending Surface Computers to all High School teachers today. Teachers received their Surface Computers when they attended their Induction Program. <p>There can be more than one adverbial in a sentence: Once in two weeks, all teachers attend a meeting on Tuesdays, where they use their Surface Computers, to plan for the forthcoming Conference.</p> <p>Position of adverbials</p> <p>An adverbial can change its position in order to create different kinds of emphasis (try changing the position of the earlier sentence).</p> <p>Or try this one: Actually, we went to the library on Mondays.</p>

SENTENCE

A sentence is a grammatical construction that makes sense on its own. In writing it begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop or an exclamation or question mark.

SENTENCE TYPES

Type	Definition/Role/Text Types	Example(s)	Structure
Declaratives	Used to provide information and make remarks. Most formal texts (both written and spoken) consist mainly of statements.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Silk is one of the strongest, most flexible materials produced in the natural world. He has been sick all week. 	Subject is followed by the verb group, often containing an auxiliary ¹ .
Imperative	Used to get things done, generally either by requesting information or by asking for goods or services. They perform a range of functions: <i>instruction, invitation, suggestion and advice</i> . They are found in texts such as written procedures.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Tell me his name!</i> [request information] <i>Pass the salt, please.</i> [request for goods] <i>Hold this for me.</i> [request for service] 	Starts with the base form of the verb, generally omitting the subject.
Interrogative	Used to enquire about something, to request information, or to probe. It stimulates interaction, but can be found in written texts as well, particularly in the dialogue sections of a narrative or as rhetorical questions.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Are you OK?</i> <i>How do you know her last name?</i> <i>What is it like to be old?</i> <i>Why is that, Mr David?</i> 	<p>Yes/No Questions begin with the auxiliary verb followed by the subject</p> <p>Wh- Questions begin with one of the interrogative words: 'when', 'what', 'where', 'why', 'how'</p>
Exclamative	Used to express, surprise or make an emphatic statement.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> He's so generous! We had a great time! 	In structuring exclamations in the written mode, we can just use a statement followed by an exclamation mark. Sometimes they are formed by using the structure How + adjective! or What + noun group!

¹ Auxiliary verbs are 'helping' words used in a verb group to form tenses, voices, express modality.

SENTENCE STRUCTURES

Simple	Compound	Complex
<p>Contains <u>one main or independent</u> clause. It has only <u>one finite verb</u>. NOTE: Simple sentences are simple in terms of structure and may not be in terms of content and they are not necessarily short sentences. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ‘The cook made a large stew for the evening meal.’ • ‘A striking quality of this passage, and indeed of this whole volume, is its beautifully compressed, poetic language.’ 	<p>Contains <u>two or more main or independent</u> clauses. Each of these clauses is capable of standing on its own and conveying a message. Each has equal status and provides equally important information.</p> <p>These clauses may be linked together in a sentence using <i>coordinating conjunctions</i>: ‘and’, ‘but’, ‘so’, ‘or’, ‘yet’, ‘and so’, ‘not only...but also’, ‘neither...nor’, ‘either...or’</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ‘The children often watched television but they preferred the cinema.’ • ‘They all stopped talking and [they] listened. Note: in this sentence ‘they’ can be omitted in the second clause.’ 	<p>Contains one main or independent clause expressing the main message and another clause or clauses elaborating on that message in some way. While the main clause is independent, the other clause cannot stand on its own – it is dependent on the main clause for its meaning. Main or independent clauses are joined to a subordinate or independent clause using <i>subordinating conjunctions</i> – ‘after’, ‘since’, ‘through’, ‘because’, ‘in case’, ‘unless’, ‘although’, ‘as well as’, ‘instead of’ etc.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ‘The metal rod expanded because it was heated.’ • ‘If the box breaks, the beads will spill everywhere.’

SYNTACTIC STYLISTIC FEATURES

NOMINALISATION

Writers often describe a process by changing a verb (even a whole clause) into a noun. This is called 'nominalisation'. It allows writers to include more ideas in a single sentence and hence makes the text more formal.

For example, read the following two sentences and note the difference:

*'Germany **invaded** Poland in 1939. This caused France and Britain to declare war.'*
*'Germany's **invasion** of Poland in 1939 caused France and Britain to declare war.'*

Notice the differences here when the verb is being nominalised:

- Susan's mother visits her daughter's teacher to explain Susan's absence from school. She says to the teacher:
 - Susan missed school this morning because she had to go to the dentist.
- Alternatively, Susan's mother writes a note that states:
 - Susan was unable to attend school this morning because of a dental appointment.
- A more formal letter to explain Susan's absence might look something like this:
 - The reason for Susan's absence from school this morning was a dental appointment.

Nominalisation has three main advantages:

- It means that written texts may be organised very logically.
- It can enrich written texts and allow the writer to be economical and flexible. For instance, the noun phrase a dental appointment could be expanded to a lengthy dental appointment or even a six-monthly dental appointment. In this way, nominalisation allows the writer to 'pack' a lot of information into one noun phrase. This is of particular advantage in scientific and technical texts.
- It allows a discussion of more abstract concepts by taking the focus off the action and making the action into a concept or idea.

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LISTING

Listing always has an accumulative effect and enables a writer or speaker to create a range of impressions. If conjunctions are used to co-ordinate groups of words, a list is said to be **syndetic**, if commas are used instead, the list is described as **asyndetic**.

'If you traverse its 155 kilometre length you'll find soaring cliffs, dense forest, towering sand dunes, wetlands and massive arcs of bone-white beach.'

ANTITHESIS

Antithesis is the technique of placing two words or ideas in opposition to create a contrary effect.

'Leeds was working class, was built on work; Watermouth was bourgeois, built on tourism, property, retirement, pensions.'

PARALLELISM

Parallelism is when phrases, clause and sentence structures are repeated to give a sense of balance and reason to a discourse. Parallelism involves the repetition of a series of similar grammatical structures, most often for stylistic reasons that underline the semantic structure of the text. Parallelism may also emphasise similarities or differences between each grammatical sequence in the overall construction.

'Big gap. Huge gap. No gap.'

This advertisement consists of three parallel noun phrases, each consisting of a modifier and a noun. Using adjective modifiers, the first two parallel structures draw our attention to the differences between the sizes of the gap, while the third structure contrasts with the first two. Sometimes the parallel structures are reinforced by the use of conjunctions such as:

- *And; neither ... nor, either ... or, not only ... but also*

or by the use of identical prepositions:

- *for richer, for poorer, in sickness and in health ...*
- *for better or worse ...*
- *for king or country*
- *not for love (n) or money*

INFORMATION FLOW – AT SENTENCE LEVEL

Information flow is concerned with the structural features of sequences of sentences within larger texts: how writers go about packaging their messages to create the text as a unified whole. It deals with the ways in which bits of information is distributed in a text, in order to provide the right sort of cues to help the audience interpret a text appropriately. This has to do with choice. The writers constantly draw on the lexical and grammatical resources of the language for different expressive or communicative ends, choosing lexical items and constructions that are best suited for getting their messages across.

Language can be manipulated by writers and speakers to draw our attention to key features of their discourse by using slightly different language patterns. One of the stylistic areas to be considered is FOCUS. In a traditional sentence, subject (THEME) comes first followed by the predicator and any other appropriate clause elements. However, it is possible to change the focus by using a range of devices.

CLAUSE TYPE: There are seven types of clause, in which the clause elements are combined in different ways:

Clause Type	Elements		
	SUBJECT	VERB	
Type 1			
Example	They	purchased.	
Type 2	SUBJECT	VERB	DIRECT OBJECT
Example	They	purchased	a Surface Computer
Type 3	SUBJECT	VERB	INDIRECT OBJECT
Example	The High School	gave	teachers
Type 4	SUBJECT	VERB	SUBJECT COMPLEMENT
Example	The Surface Computers	are	the best.
Type 5	SUBJECT	VERB	OBJECT
Example	The High School	considered	Surface Computers
Type 6	SUBJECT	VERB	ADVERBIAL
Example	Surface Computers	are being used	for teaching purposes.
Type 7	SUBJECT	VERB	DIRECT OBJECT
Example	The High School	considered	Surface Computers
			ADVERBIAL
			for teaching purposes
			OBJECT COMPLEMENT
			a Surface Computer.

FOCUS

FRONT FOCUS OR FOREGROUNDING

The device of placing a clause element other than the subject at the front of a sentence is called FRONTING or FOREGROUNDING.

Consider this example, 'The teachers meet once a fortnight every Tuesday.' See how the various clause elements can be moved to create focus differently each time.

THE TEACHERS	MEET	ONCE A FORTNIGHT	EVERY TUESDAY.
<i>Subject</i>	<i>Verb</i>	<i>Adverbial</i>	<i>Adverbial</i>

Consider this sentence:

EVERY FORTNIGHT	THE TEACHERS	MEET	ON TUESDAYS.
<i>Adverbial</i>	<i>Subject</i>	<i>Verb</i>	<i>Adverbial</i>

Sometimes **objects** or **complements** are also moved.

THE HIGH SCHOOL	BOUGHT	15 SURFACE COMPUTERS	LAST YEAR.
<i>Subject</i>	<i>Verb</i>	<i>Object</i>	<i>Adverbial</i>

Consider this:

15 SURFACE COMPUTERS	THE HIGH SCHOOL	BOUGHT	LAST YEAR.
<i>Object</i>	<i>Subject</i>	<i>Verb</i>	<i>Adverbial</i>

Take this example:

THE HIGH SCHOOL	IS	THE FIRST DIGITAL SCHOOL	IN MELBOURNE.
<i>Subject</i>	<i>Verb</i>	<i>Complement</i>	<i>Adverbial</i>

Now consider this:

THE FIRST DIGITAL SCHOOL	IS	THE HIGH SCHOOL	IN MELBOURNE.
<i>Complement</i>	<i>Verb</i>	<i>Subject</i>	<i>Adverbial</i>

OR

THE FIRST DIGITAL SCHOOL	IN MELBOURNE	IS	THE HIGH SCHOOL.
<i>Complement</i>	<i>Adverbial</i>	<i>Verb</i>	<i>Subject</i>

END FOCUS

End focus is when put new information is placed towards the end of a sentence, thus emphasising the end rather than the beginning.

THERE CONSTRUCTION

There is used as a dummy subject to delay the introduction of the real subject of the sentence.

- Surface Computers are available in the High School.
There are Surface Computers available in the High School.
- A number of Surface users are extremely happy.
There are a number of extremely happy Surface users.

IT CONSTRUCTION

It is also used as a dummy subject

- Surface Computers are used in Nossal School.
It is Surface Computers **that** are used in Nossal High School.
- What we use in Nossal High School are Surface Computers.
It is Surface Computers **that** are used in Nossal High School.

PASSIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

- The teachers use only Surface Computers during their fortnightly meeting. (ACTIVE)
- **Only Surface Computers** are used during their fortnightly meetings (by the teachers). (PASSIVE)

CLEFT CONSTRUCTIONS

Cleft constructions are **simple sentences** that are expressed as **complex sentences**. They are usually created by introducing an **'it-cleft'**. Cleft constructions are used to shift the focus of interest.

- *'I love money.'* (Simple sentence) **becomes** *'It's money that I love.'* (Complex sentence).
- *'I heard the news from John.'* (Simple sentence) **becomes** *'It was from John that she heard the news.'* (Complex sentence).
- *'I started on this new line of work after meeting Jim.'* (Simple sentence) **becomes** *'It was meeting Jim that really started me off on this new line of work.'* (Complex Sentence).

INFORMATION FLOW – AT TEXT LEVEL

The sequence of elements in a text must display some kind of mutual dependence and form a unified whole. The way the elements of a text are woven together to create a unified whole is formed by two sets of properties known as coherence and cohesion:

- *Coherence* refers to the implicit logical connectedness within a text.
- *Cohesion* refers to the explicit language features that connect or bind a text together.

To identify the connections of coherence and cohesion in a text, we look both at the elements **within** a sentence and **across** sentences. Indeed, in a single sentence, text coherence and cohesion are created principally through the conventions of **syntax**.

ORGANISING THE FLOW OF INFORMATION (COHERENCE)

A text is organised in a way that meaning is accessible to readers. Coherence in texts can be achieved at the level of text, the paragraph and the sentence.

COHERENCE THROUGH LOGICAL ORDERING

We perceive writing to be coherent when it presents information in a logical order. Many (but not all) texts announce to the reader how the text will unfold. This prepares the readers to anticipate a certain way that the content will be organised in the text. Paragraph divisions also allow writers to package the message into manageable and logical units. At sentence level, writers control the flow of information by providing known information followed by unknown information or by bringing attention to parts of the sentence by either front or end focus.

COHERENCE THROUGH CONSISTENCY

Coherence involves a consistent presentation of the participants in a text and the point of view being expressed.

COHERENCE THROUGH INFERENCE

Coherence is actually reached through a process of inference.

... When I first met my friend she was engaged. She was wearing an antique sapphire ring and Italian boots. Next time I saw her, in Myers, her hand was bare. I never asked.

ORGANISING THE FLOW OF INFORMATION (COHESION)

Cohesive devices are used within a text to make links between various items in the text so that readers are able to track how the meaning is being developed.

Cohesion is achieved through:

- **Referring words:**
 - Pronouns (anaphoric and cataphoric) and possessives
 - Definite article (*a doctor becomes the doctor*)
 - Comparatives such as *similar, other, such, same, similarly, otherwise, more and less*
 - Demonstratives such as *here, there, this, that, these and those*
- **Text connectives** (they are referred to as: *connectors, discourse markers or signal words*) are used as a signpost:
 - Clarifying (*'in other words', 'for example'*)
 - Showing cause/result (*'therefore', 'as a result'*)
 - Indicating time (*'then', 'at this point'*)
 - Sequencing ideas (*'first of all', 'briefly'*)
 - Adding information (*'apart from that', 'moreover'*)
 - Condition/concession (*'in that case', 'all the same'*)
- **Deletions (ellipsis) and substitutions (replacing)** – such strategies reduce repetition, redundancy and clumsiness in texts.
 - Rather than repeating a word, we often delete the repetition: For example: *'If she wasn't around, I'd be doing something interesting right now. ~~If she wasn't around,~~ I'd be climbing Mount Kilimanjaro. ~~If she wasn't around,~~ I'd be starring in the latest Hollywood blockbuster.*
 - We can also create a link in a text by using 'all-purpose' words that substitute verb groups or noun groups or even whole clauses (words like *do, so, such one*).
 - Replacing a verb: *'I told him to leave. And he **did**.*
 - Replacing a noun: *'I have two umbrellas. Would you like **one**?'*
 - Replacing a clause: *'She was very tired. Yes, I thought **so**.*
- **Word associations**
 - Repetition
 - Synonyms
 - Antonyms
 - Words from the same semantic field
 - Word patterns ('clusters' of words that are related in various ways – 'class/subclass', 'whole/part', 'action sequence')

LANGUAGE USE IN SOCIAL INTERACTION

Language we use is a reflection of the society we live in. Language expresses the underlying cultural values and social understandings that we share with the community around us. Our choice of words can reveal a lot about the society's attitudes and prejudices. The language we choose to use as an individual or as a member of a society can either create social harmony or social discord. It can be used to protect and fulfil the social need of being polite and meeting each other's face needs; or to deliberately insult, offend or harm other; or to mislead or confuse or obfuscate.

LANGUAGE AS A SHIELD

'There is nothing that the legislator should be more careful to drive away than indecency of speech; for the light utterance of shameful words leads to shameful actions. The young especially should never be allowed to repeat or hear anything of that sort.' (Aristotle)

'Taboo language has to be taught.' (Sue Butler)

Social interaction is generally aimed towards maintaining face. As much as we want to look after our own face, there is a social expectation that we are considerate of, and look after, the face-wants of others. There are two face needs: the want of a person to have their attributes, achievements, ideas, possessions and goals well regarded by others (positive face) and the want of a person not be imposed upon by others (negative face). Face can be lost, gained or maintained. In general, people co-operate (and assume each other's cooperation) in maintaining face in interaction. We constantly want to maintain our own face (positive face) and look after the face want of others (negative face).

Taboo topics arise out of social constraints on the individual's behaviour where it can cause discomfort, harm or injury. We constantly censor the language we use depending on who we speak to (audience), the subject matter (field), locale (context or situation) and the medium used. As language users, we become aware that some subjects are more delicate than others. Attitudes and ideas about politeness, what is acceptable and not acceptable in social conversation is taught and learnt from an early age and continues on well into adulthood.

- In certain societies, words that have religious connotations are banned or prohibited. In England the word 'bloody' is a taboo word (it is believed that the word is derived from an oath involving the 'blood of Christ', but some believe that it relates to menstruation). In Australia, it is acceptable ('Where the bloody hell are you' – Tourism Ad campaign)
- Words relating to sex, sex organs and natural bodily functions make up a large part of the set of taboo words of many cultures, as well as drinking and death.
- Two or more words or expressions can have the same linguistic meaning, with one acceptable and the others the cause of embarrassment or horror.
 - In English, words borrowed from Latin sound 'scientific' and therefore appear to be technical and 'clean', whereas their Anglo-Saxon counterparts are taboo.
For example:

Shit (Anglo-Saxon)/Faeces (Latin)

Taboo topics are always evolving as the social values, attitudes and expectations are changing.

- Blasphemous, religious profanity and religious insults have lost their punch
- Profanity relating to sexual and bodily functions has more recently diminished
- Television programs frequently include the 'f- words'
- Foul language regularly turns up in movies rated PG and is frequently used in public arena and there is wide acceptance of it
- An Executive Director used the f-word in an ABC television program
- The word 'bugger' was used in a Toyota advertisement
- The 2012 Carefree advertisement that used the V-word
- Since the 1980s courts have ruled that words such as 'f...' and 'shit' are no longer offensive.
- The NT used a campaign CU in the NT for advertising in 2016
- BCF campaign- be a BFCing expert

Contemporary English-speaking society has evolved new taboos on:

- Gender and Gender identity
- Sexuality
- Disability
- Religion
- Race
- Ethnicity

