



Learning English: Achievement and Proficiency (LEAP)

GLOSSARY



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GLOSSARY

abstract doing or happening

see 'doing process'.

active (voice)

in clauses in the active voice, the actor (the 'do-er') comes before the verb/process as the subject.

The children washed the windows (active voice) as opposed to *The windows were washed by the children* (passive voice).

The dog bit me (active voice) as opposed to *I was bitten by the dog* (passive voice).

adverb

a word class that may modify a verb (*beautifully* in *She sings beautifully*), an adjective (*really* in *He is really interesting*) or another adverb (*very* in *She walks very slowly*). In English, many adverbs have an *-ly* ending. See also 'circumstance'.

article

there are three articles in the English language: *a*, *an* and *the*. Articles are placed before nouns and form part of the noun group as pointers. *The*, known as 'the definite article' is used when referring to a specific person or thing, while *a* or *an*, known as 'indefinite articles' are used to refer to a non-specific person or thing.

binding conjunction

see 'subordinating conjunction'.

circumstance

part of a clause which gives the details of when, where, how, why, with what, with whom, for whom and according to whom/what. They can be categorised according to the type of detail they provide:

- place: He knocked the clock *off the shelf*.
- time: I finished it *this morning*.
- accompaniment: He left *with his friend*.
- manner – quality: She opened it *carefully*.
- manner – means: She opened it *with a can-opener*.
- manner – comparison: She opened it *like an expert*.
- matter: He was concerned *about the clock*.
- cause – reason: The man died *of heart failure*.

- cause – purpose: He ate it *for breakfast*.
- cause – behalf: She opened it *for his mother*.
- role: She worked *as a doctor*.
- angle: *According to his doctors*, his heart was very weak.
- contingency – condition: *With a modified diet and exercise program*, he could have lived for years.
- contingency – concession: *Despite the warnings*, he continued to work long hours.

Circumstances are sometimes called 'adverbials' and usually have the form of:

- an adverb or adverb group/phrase: *carefully* or *very carefully*.
- a prepositional phrase: *off the shelf*; *like an expert*; *according to doctors*; *despite the warnings*.
- a noun group/phrase: *this morning*; *one sunny afternoon*.

classifier

an element of the noun group which functions to classify the 'thing' (key noun). More than one classifier can be used, eg *North Atlantic Treaty Organisation* and *ECOSAC Degradable Dog Tidy Bags*. Classifiers are spoken as one tone group and therefore do not have any punctuation separating them. Note that the classifying words can be realised using adjectives (*degradable*, *tidy*) or nouns (*ECOSAC*, *Dog*) or verbs (*distilling* in *distilling process*).

clause

a unit of meaning centred around a state or happening called a process (expressed by a verb group). It can also include who or what is participating in the state or happening (typically expressed by nouns, noun groups and pronouns) and the surrounding circumstances (typically expressed by adverbs, adverb groups and prepositional phrases).

The netball team won the grand final last week (happening). Here, meaning centres around the process 'won' with *The netball team* and *the grand final* as the participants and *last week* providing the circumstance of time.

The cartoon is an animation (state). In this example, the meaning centres around the process 'is' and *The cartoon* and *an animation* are the participants. No details of circumstances have been given.

See also 'simple sentences', 'compound sentences', 'complex sentences', 'subordinate clause', 'embedded clause' and 'interrupting clause'.

cohesive devices

relationships that bind or tie together different parts of a text and give a text unity or help it 'hang together' making it cohesive. Cohesion is achieved through various cohesive devices such as:

- pronouns that link to other parts of the text: The house was incredible. *You* should've seen *it* (The house). See also 'reference – grammatical reference' and 'pronouns'.
- text connectives that link sentences: *therefore*, *however*. See also 'text connective'.

complex sentence

a term used in the Australian Curriculum and many other curriculum and assessment documents, including this one, to refer to sentences that are grammatically complex, having at least two clauses with one or more being a subordinate (dependent) clause. See also 'subordinate clause'.

In the following examples, the subordinate clauses are indicated in italics:

I took my umbrella *because it was raining*.

Because I am reading Shakespeare, my time is limited.

If an animal is in a good zoo, then it will have a good life *because there are no hunters*.

My brother, *who recently passed away*, loved that piece of music.

My idea of a perfect zoo is one similar to the Dubbo Zoo, *where animals are able to run free*.

The life expectancy of many animals can be greatly decreased *when they are taken from the wild*.

compound sentence

a term used in the Australian Curriculum and many other curriculum and assessment documents, including this one, to refer to sentences having two or more coordinate clauses of equal or parallel grammatical status, usually joined by a coordinating conjunction. See also 'coordinating conjunction'.

In the following examples, the coordinate clauses are separated by two forward slashes:

Jill came home this morning // but she didn't stay long.

Kim is an actor, // Pat is a teacher, // and Sam is an architect.

Compound sentences can vary in their 'written-ness' since they can be basic, extended or sophisticated as shown in the following three sentences, each of which is a compound sentence:

Birds can be kept in small cages // but other animals can go into the zoo.

People can become obsessed by games // and spend far too much time and money on them.

In many countries around the world, zoos lack sufficient funding // and as a consequence, animals suffer in terrible, cramped areas.

Note: direct or quoted speech and thought is an additional form of compound sentence not considered in the Level descriptors. The clause indicating that someone is saying or thinking something and the clause that tells us what is said or thought are of equal or parallel status:

She whined from the back seat, // "I'm hungry!"
"I'm hungry!" // she whined from the back seat.

conjunction

a word whose primary function is to join two parts of language together and indicate a relationship between them in terms of addition, comparison, time and cause. They can function between:

- clauses within a sentence — coordinating (linking) conjunctions join clauses to set up a relationship of equal status, and subordinating (binding) conjunctions join clauses to set up a relationship of unequal status (where one is subordinate to or dependent on the other).
- sentences and between paragraphs — text connectives.
- paragraphs to organise the text — text connectives.

See also 'compound sentence', 'complex sentence', 'coordinating conjunction', 'subordinating conjunction' and 'text connective'.

connective

see 'text connective'.

coordinating conjunction

also referred to as linking conjunctions, these are a small set of conjunctions (eg *and*, *or*, *so*, *but*) that join two clauses forming an equal (coordinated) grammatical status or a relationship of independence:

We bought the car on Saturday *but* we couldn't collect it until Tuesday.

demonstratives

a term used to refer to the words: *this*, *these*, *that* and *those*. These words can be used as:

- pronouns to refer to an object or idea: *That* was the best idea I'd had.
- pointers in a noun group to help identify which 'thing/s' is/are being referred to: *These* problems need fixing.

Because they refer to something, they are part of the reference system. *This* (singular) and *these* (plural) are used to refer to things in close proximity, while *that* (singular) and *those* (plural) are used to refer to things which are further away.

describer

an element of the nominal group which functions to describe the 'thing' (key noun) in terms of qualities such as appearance, size, age and colour (eg a quite *beautiful*, *deep reddish* colour).

Generally, subjective describers come before objective ones. Describers are generally realised by adjectives. Other choices, however, are evident when using hyphenated groups or phrases: 'a *jaw-breaking* tackle'; 'a *never-to-be-forgotten* experience'.

discipline-specific vocabulary

the particular shared, 'specialist' or 'expert' language that is used within a subject or field of study. It is characterised by the use of specific terminology: that is particular words (vocabulary) and particular ways those words are put together (phrasings).

doing process

often referred to as action process. Doing processes are expressed through verbs and represent actions which may be concrete or abstract:

- concrete actions in the physical world: She *blew* on her porridge, *to cool* it before she ate it.
- physical bodily actions: I *was* either *coughing* and *sneezing*, or *yawning* and *falling* asleep.
- abstract doings and happenings: The Australian dollar *rallied* today despite the stock market *slumping* as commodity prices *fell* and housing prices *rose*.

embedded clause

a clause that is part of (embedded within) another clause. The examples below show four common types with the embedded clauses indicated by a double square bracket. Embedded clauses can act as:

- a qualifier in a participant noun group: *The woman* *[[who won the race]]* is my mother.
- a qualifier in a noun group within a circumstance: I live *in the house* *[[that my grandfather built]]*.
- a participant itself: *[[Winning the race]]* has been a lifelong goal; *[[Being good]]* isn't easy.
- a qualifier in an attribute (adjective) participant: She was *happy* *[[that it was over]]*; We will be *sad* *[[to see you go]]*.

evaluative language

positive or negative language that judges the worth of something. It includes language to express feelings and opinions, to make judgments about aspects of people such as their behaviour, and to assess the quality of objects, such as literary works.

Evaluations can be made explicit for example, through the use of adjectives as in:

She's a *lovely* girl.

He's an *awful* man.

How *wonderful*!

However, they can also be left implicit. For example:

He *dropped* the ball when he was tackled, implying that he is not a competent player.

Mary *put her arm round* the child while she *wept*, implying that the child is sad and that Mary is a caring person.

finite

the first element of the verbal group which expresses either tense or modality. For example:

- tense (temporal finite): I *was* going home; I *am* going home; I *will* be going home.
- modality (modal finite): I *might* go out; I *didn't* go out; I *must* go home; I *could* go home.

fragment

an incomplete sentence as it is lacking one of the key elements of a clause. Fragments are often used in spoken language, with listeners and speakers able to fill in the missing parts. Early EALD students may use fragments as they are beginning to develop control of Standard Australian English. These usually sound grammatically incomplete, or incorrect. For example:

- missing a verb to express a central process: *She little; Goldilocks bed.*
- missing a subject (participant): *go beach; is fast.*
- not being a complete idea: *Zita find; Last time I not catch; the three juicy oranges on the bench.*

More capable writers sometimes deliberately write sentence fragments to create an effect. These read well in context so that they 'sound' grammatically correct. Examples of these are in bold italic.

- missing a verb to express a central process: ***A sentence without a verb? What a strange idea.*** There it was. ***The long-lost hidden treasure.***
- missing a subject (participant): There it was. ***Galloping across the sand.***
- not being a complete idea: (There it was.) ***The strangest thing I'd even seen.***

formulaic

this refers to expressions that are so common at certain stages of an exchange that they can be memorised and used almost instinctively. (*Good morning; Bye; Excuse me; Thank you; How're ya going?*).

group/phrase

the terms 'group' and 'phrase' are used by different schools of linguistics to refer to units between the clause and the word. In the Australian English curriculum, 'group/phrase' is used to recognise these different usages. For example, the units enclosed in brackets in the following sentence are examples of a group/phrase: (The carnival) (had made) (the two little girls) (very tired).

In the example, *The carnival* and *the two little girls* are called noun groups/phrases because they are focused around a noun (*carnival* and *girls*) as their major element; similarly, *had made* is a verb group/phrase and *very tired* an adjective group/phrase.

intensifier

an element within the describer part of the nominal group which functions to alter the degree of the describer (a *somewhat* unlikely person; a *quite* stunning view; an *absolutely* stunning view) or classifier (*100%* goose down coat).

intensity

refers to the forcefulness or focus with which a speaker or writer expresses an opinion, feeling, judgement or evaluation. Choices in evaluative language can grade or graduate the message.

The force of the message can be increased or decreased:

- by adding:
 - intensifiers (adverbs of degree): They are *really* healthy; People began to feel *quite* bored.
 - describers (adjectives): There was a *slight* increase.
- by choosing a word that has 'inbuilt' force:
 - nouns: They wreaked *havoc*; She's an *angel*!
 - processes (verbs): The entire area was *ruined*; I *dislike* him; I *loathe* him.
- through repetition: I'm *really, really* hungry; We *laughed and laughed*.
- by quantifying: The *entire* area was damaged; *Millions and millions* of people world-wide were affected.
- in terms of extent: Millions of people *world-wide* are affected; It's expensive *in the short-term*.

The focus of the message can also be sharpened or softened with intensifiers and/or describers:

- sharpened: an *actual* battle; the *real* Australian touch; *100%* truth; *proper* burial; *true* friendship.
- softened: a *sort of* success; *almost* an adult; *kind of* handsome; *about* an hour later.

interrupting clause

a clause which 'interrupts' another clause or the connection between two clauses.

The Prime Minister, *who usually resides in Canberra*, is moving to Sydney.

The meeting ended in turmoil, *which, if you are a cynic*, is what was deserved.

The PM traditionally lives in Canberra but, *if he wants to*, he can remain in his private residence.

Interrupting clauses are read/said with an intonation pattern that indicates they are an aside. Hence, they are separated by commas from the clauses they interrupt, to correspond to the intonation pattern. Interrupting clauses should

not be confused with embedded clauses as qualifiers, which provide essential specifying or restricting information rather than an aside and are said/read as one tone unit, indicating they are part of the noun group.

key noun

the central 'thing' being referred to in a noun group. It is the noun (thing) being described. See also 'noun groups (nominal groups)'.

linking conjunction

see 'coordinating conjunction'.

macro-genre

defined as texts which are comprised of other *elementary text types. For example, a text on skin cancer might have the purpose of persuading the reader or listener to agree with their thesis that skin cancer is a problem and that they should take some action to avoid it. If it also includes within the text an explanation on the process of how cancerous cells develop on the skin or a report giving detailed statistics about skin cancer, then the text is considered to be a macro-genre. Since macro-genres are longer, more complex texts, they are prevalent in the later years of schooling.

*Elementary text types that are valued and common in formal schooling contexts include procedures, recounts, descriptions, reports, explanations, narratives, arguments and discussions.

mental process

inner processes expressed through a verb or verb group. It represents a process going on in a person's internal world, in their head or heart. Mental processes express meanings that, unlike action processes, are not observable. They include processes of:

- thinking (cognition): He *knew* the clock fell off the shelf; I *think* that you should.
- feeling (emotion and desire): I *like* that clock; I *enjoyed* the film; I *hope* it ends soon; I *want* that.
- perceiving/sensing: I *smell* the blood of an Englishman; I *heard* that you're going; I *felt* the heat.

metaphor

an expression which replaces a literal (congruent) meaning with a more figurative one.

The news *hit* me *right between the eye's* instead of the more congruent *I was shocked* by the news.

modal

this term is used to refer to the part of a multi-word verb group (a modal auxiliary) which expresses a degree of certainty (I *did* come home), of ability (The duck *can* swim) or of obligation (You *must* give it to me). See also 'multi-word groups'.

modality

this refers to the elements of the language that express the speaker's judgement or assessment of probability, usuality or obligation. These include:

- modal auxiliaries: *may, might, should, could, must, have to* (That *might* be the one; You *must* always cover it).
- modal adjuncts (adverbs): *probably, certainly, always* (She *always* wins).
- mental and saying processes (verbs): *I think, I believe, I suggest; I urged* (I *urged* her to leave).
- modal qualities (adjectives): *certain, probable, likely* (I am *certain*; It's a *likely* outcome).
- modal verbs: *permit, oblige, require, necessitate* (The current situation *requires* urgent action).
- nominalisations (nouns): *likelihood, possibility, requirement* (There is a strong *possibility*).

multimodal text

a text combining two or more communication modes, for example print (writing), visual image and spoken text as in film or digital presentations.

multi-word verb groups

a verb group where the process (happening or state) is expressed through more than one word. Multi-word verb groups include:

- phrasal verbs: verbs where a preposition is included as part of the verb, since it combines with the verb to make a new meaning. A phrasal verb has a non-literal meaning and needs to be interpreted as a unit. It can generally be replaced with a more precise word: I will *put you out* (*inconvenience*);

I will *put it off* (*postpone*); I will *put you up* (*accommodate*); I will *put up with you* (*tolerate*). See also 'phrasal verbs'.

- those with two verbs, one of which may express a desire, inclination or intention: *like to play; tried to help; loved to dance; need to change; was supposed to receive; decided to go; wanted to spread*.
- those with a verb that tells more about the timing/duration of an action: *began to spurt; was about to start playing; stopped typing; continued dancing*.

nominalisation

the process of changing non-noun word forms into nouns. For example:

- from verbs: **reaction** from *react*; **departure** from *depart*.
- adjectives: **length** from *long*; **eagerness** from *eager*.
- conjunctions: **cause** or **reason** from *because*; in **addition** from *and*.
- modals: **possibility** or **likelihood** from *might*; **obligation** or **requirement** from *must*.

Nominalisation is a way of making a text more compact and is often a feature of texts that contain abstract ideas and concepts.

The crowd **applauded** wildly (action as verb/process) becomes *The crowd's wild **applause*** (nominalised – the act of applauding as abstract noun).

I wanted to keep trying because she was so **patient** with me (quality as adjective) becomes *Her **patience** made me want to keep trying* (nominalised – the quality of being patient as abstract noun).

People **usually** vote for the sitting member (modality – usuality as modal adverb) becomes *There is a **tendency** for people to vote for the sitting member* (nominalised modality – usuality as abstract noun).

They were late **because** there was a train strike (cause expressed as conjunction) becomes *The **cause** of their delay was a train strike* (nominalised – cause expressed as abstract noun).

non-finite clause

a non-finite clause has no subject and carries no tense as it has a non-finite verb. Since it has no subject or tense, it cannot be a main (independent) clause and so operates either as a subordinate (dependent) or embedded clause. Embedded clauses are indicated with double square brackets: [...].

There are two types of non-finite verbs:

- infinitives: the 'to' form of the verb: *to write*
It took ten years *to write her first book*.
To write her essay, she needed peace and quiet.
You were the first one [[*to write your name on the card*]].
- participles: *-ing*: *writing*; and *-ed* (en): *written*
Writing in her favourite café for several hours each day, she was finally able to finish her first novel.
Hating Alison Ashley, written by popular author Robin Klein, is an absolutely hilarious read for young and old.
[[*Writing her first book*]] was like giving birth.

In a finite clause, *-ing* and *-ed* (en) participles are accompanied by an auxiliary verb as the finite, which carries the tense. Here the auxiliary verb is in bold italics: ***is writing***; ***was writing***; ***will be writing***; ***has written***; ***had written***; ***will have written***.

See also 'tense'.

The use of 'having' as a non-finite auxiliary is another common form of non-finite clause:
having written; *having been written*.

Having written her first book, she now felt she could do anything.

Having been written by Robin Klein, we can expect it to be another great read.

noun

a word class that names or refers to a 'thing': a person, object, or concept. Nouns include:

- *concrete nouns* – those denoting physical objects: *man, woman, boy, girl, diamond, car, window*.
- *abstract nouns* – those expressing intangibles: *love, anger, democracy, courage, success, fact, idea*.

Most nouns can be marked for:

- plural: *dog–dogs*; *woman–women*; *child–children*.
- possessive: *dogs–dog's*; *woman–woman's*; *children–children's*.

There are three major grammatical types of nouns: common nouns, proper nouns and pronouns.

- *common nouns* do not name a particular person (*boy, woman*), place (*city, school*), thing (*desk, building, movie*), quality (*happiness, kindness*). They can be concrete or abstract nouns.
- *proper nouns* serve as the names of particular persons (*Billy*), places (*Adelaide, Seaside College*), days/months (*Monday, May*) and festivals (*Moon Festival*). As such, they require capital letters.
- *pronouns* include words such as *I, we, you*, which refer directly to the speaker or addressee(s), and *he, she, it, they*, which typically refer to a previously mentioned noun group/phrase. See also 'pronoun'.

noun groups (nominal groups)

consist of a noun as the major element, alone or accompanied by one or more other words that serve to define or describe that noun. The noun functioning as the major element may be a common noun, proper noun or pronoun.

Note: most participants are noun groups but not all noun groups are participants. Some noun groups come in the circumstances, eg 'the shelf' in 'She took it *off the shelf*'.

Which one?	How many/much?	What is it/are they like?	What kind?	Who/what is being talked about?	Which one/s more specifically?
Pointer	Numerative	Describer	Classifier	Thing (Key Noun)	Qualifier
<i>the</i>	<i>four</i>	<i>incredibly lucky</i>	<i>X-lotto</i>	<i>winners</i>	<i>chosen this month</i>

numerative

the element of the noun group which functions to quantify the thing: those *four* people; *three cups of sugar*; a *pair of socks*. A numerative can also come before the pointer, in which case it is technically referred to as a pre-numerative: '*Three of those four people*'.

orientations – orienting the reader

creating the focus or preparing the reader for the message by choosing what to place at the beginning, or how to open a sentence, paragraph or text. Appropriately and effectively orienting the reader is one of the main requirements of a coherent text.

sentence opener

a term that refers to preparing the reader at the sentence level: the sentence beginning. It can also be referred to as theme. It indicates what the sentence is about and orients the reader to the message. The theme is:

- in most statements – whatever is placed before the verb (process): *I cast my line*; *The native's aggression grew*; *In the first scene, Miss Honey is at her desk*; *In my opinion, mining must be stopped*.
- in commands – the verb (process) and anything placed before it: *Add the liquid*; *Carefully pour the liquid*.
- if a subordinate clause is placed before the main clause – the whole subordinate (dependent) clause and whatever has been placed before

the verb (process) in the main (independent) clause: *Because we had made some errors in our recording, we needed to begin again*.

Components of a sentence can be manipulated (rearranged) to create different orientations:

- orienting to time: *After five minutes*, place the mixture in the oven.
- orienting to the process: *Place* the mixture in the oven after five minutes.
- orienting to the non-human participant: *The mixture* was placed in the oven after five minutes.
- orienting to the human participant: *We* placed the mixture in the oven after five minutes.

A pattern in the themes contributes to the method of developing the ideas or information for the text as a whole. Such patterns help the flow of the text.

paragraph opener

a term that refers to orienting at the paragraph level. This is typically in the form of a subheading or an opening sentence/s that predicts the content of the remainder of the paragraph (topic sentence/s). These subheadings or topic sentences can also be called hyper-themes.

text opener

a term that refers to orienting at the 'whole-text' level. This is typically, in the form of a heading or an opening paragraph/s (introduction) that helps a reader predict the content of the remainder of the text. These headings or introductions can also be called macro-themes.

participant

the element of the clause that identifies who or what is participating in the process of the clause and can be expressed with:

- a noun group: The man knocked the clock off the shelf.
- an attribute (adjective): He was clumsy.
- an embedded clause: *[[What the man knocked off the shelf]]* was the clock.

passive (voice)

refers to the organisation of a clause so the 'done to' rather than the 'do-er' of the action comes first. For example, *the car was washed by the children* is passive, as opposed to *the children washed the car*, which is active.

The passive voice is used when the speaker/writer chooses to focus on the goal or receiver of the action ('done to'), as in the examples below:

The dried ingredients are added to the mixture (passive voice) as opposed to *We added dried ingredients* to the mixture (active voice).

The car will be serviced at the garage (passive voice) as opposed to *The mechanics will service the car* at the garage (active voice).

Taxes were raised after the election (passive voice) as opposed to *The government raised taxes* after the election (active voice).

Using passive voice allows for the actor ('do-er' of the action) to be omitted for reasons such as the 'do-er' being unimportant (who adds to the mixture), or unknown (who services the car), or wishing to remain unknown (who raised the taxes).

To form the passive voice, not only is the 'done to' brought to the front of the clause, but the verb form changes. The *-ed* (en) participle form of the verb is used and an auxiliary 'to be' verb is added to denote the tense. In addition, if the 'do-er' is included, then 'by' is added to precede the 'do-er'.

phrasal verb

a term to refer to a process made up of a verb and another word, typically, a preposition, that work together as one entity. The meaning they make is usually difficult to predict from looking at the verb and preposition separately:

Can you *look it up* in the dictionary? (*find*).

Why don't you *look them up* when you're there? (*contact*).

They were *set up* by the police (*framed*).

She *put her off* just as she was getting ready to swing (*distracted*).

They *put out* the fire before it could spread (*extinguish*).

Put up your hand (*raise*).

The things I have to *put up with* (*endure*).

Usually the elements of the verbal group can be split without a change in meaning: They *put* the fire *out* before it could spread; *Put* your hand *up*.

phrase

see 'group/phrase'.

point of view

refers to the viewpoint of an individual or groups such as the writer/speaker, experts, interest groups, audience or characters in a text.

pointer

the element of a noun group which functions to point to the 'thing' (*the, this, those, my, Australia's*).

preposition

a word class that usually expresses the position of something in terms of space or time. For example:

- space: *below, in, on, to, under, down, through, over*.
- time: *after, before, since, during, throughout, until*.
- those that do not relate to space and time but express some form of logical connection between things: *because of, due to, apart from, besides, except, despite*. (He ate all the beans *except* the purple ones; The game was cancelled *because of* the heat).

Prepositions combine with a noun group/phrase to form a prepositional phrase. For example: *in the office; throughout the long winter; besides these two articles*.

prepositional phrase

typically consists of a preposition followed by a noun group/phrase. Typically, prepositional phrases are used to express one of two main functions:

- a circumstance providing details about the process: We met **on the train**. (Met where?)

- a qualifier as part of a noun group/phrase providing detail to specify which one/s: *Couples **with two children** are eligible.* (Who is eligible?)

process

the element of the clause that is the core of the clause and expresses doing, saying, mental (thinking, feeling, perceiving and sensing), or relating (being, having and causing). The processes are the 'goings on': the actions that go on, the talking that people do, the mental processes that go on in people's heads, and the way things are related in our world. Processes are expressed in a text by verbs and verb groups. They can be categorised as representing processes of:

- doing (action): *kicked, ran, drove, smiled, sneezed, listened.*
- saying: *told, said, replied, exclaimed.*
- mental (thinking, feeling, perceiving and sensing): *believe, think, know, realise, hope, feel, hate, enjoy, saw.*
- relating (being, having and causing): *are, become, turn into, mean, represent, consist of, has, includes, causes, results in.*

See also 'doing process', 'mental process', 'saying process', and 'relating process'.

pronoun

an element which can be used to refer to one or more people, objects or ideas. They are one kind of reference item. There are two main categories:

- personal pronouns to refer to people: *I, you, she, he, we, they, me, her, him, us, them, my, our, your.*
- impersonal pronouns to refer to objects and ideas: *it, its, they, them, their, theirs.*

See also 'relative pronoun'.

qualifier

an element of the noun group which follows a noun (the *thing*) and functions to qualify it: to provide additional information which specifies the *thing*, or restricts the *group of things* being talked about.

Qualifiers usually belong to one or other of the following:

- prepositional phrases: *the way to Adelaide; work in progress; the houses at the end of the street.*

- subordinate clauses: *the woman who wrote it; people living near the coast; the day that the rains came.*

See also 'noun group (nominal groups)'.

reference – grammatical reference

a term used to refer to a system of devices that make a text cohesive. A pronoun is an example and is used as a substitute for a noun group. See also 'reference item'. Other reference items are the definite article and comparative forms.

reference item

an element of language that refers to another word, word group or even larger section of the text and as such helps to tie together parts of a text, making it cohesive. The reader retrieves the meaning of the reference item by going to another part of the text and sometimes even outside the text.

Three main elements are:

- pronouns: *South Australians are proud of their state; The girls were pleased they had won.*
- demonstratives: *It was those men and they ran out of that house.*
- substitution: *I am making a coffee. Would you like one? Milk and sugar? Yes both thanks.*

The definite article (*the*) is another example of a reference item since it refers to a specific 'thing', that which is mentioned elsewhere in the text, or which the writer/speaker presumes the reader/listener understands from the context. For example:

We finally came to a monument. It was a monument to the Queen. In front of the monument was ...

register

a term used to refer to combined aspects of specific situations or contexts which influence language choices and meanings. The three aspects which combine to form the register are:

- *what* the subject matter is (field).
- *who* is taking part and their relative roles and relationships (tenor).
- *how* language is organised to create a cohesive text, the medium or channel of communication and whether language is used to accompany action or as reflection (mode).

relating process

expressed by verbs or verb groups, they represent a relationship rather than a happening, such as a relationship of:

- being – identifying what something is and/or what qualities it possesses: She *was* Ms Fisher; She *will be* a teacher; I *am* tired; It *is* a member of the eucalypt family; The flowers *were* expensive.
- having – expressing ownership or part/whole relationships: He *has* three sons; They each *have* a car; He *had* dark hair and blue eyes; It *comprises* a string and horn section.
- causing: The strong winds *caused* trees to be uprooted; This *resulted in* damage to several houses; Power *was also affected* in areas as a number of powerlines were brought down.
- existing: There *are* three types of mammals; There *was* a lot of pollution in the area.

relative clause

a clause which begins with a relative pronoun (eg *who, which, that*) to:

- provide additional (non-essential/non-restrictive) information as an aside or comment: The lift, which had only just been fixed, stopped between menswear and furniture; The lift got fixed after about an hour, which was one hour too late for me. These are referred to as 'interrupting' or 'included' clauses and should always be separated by commas.
- provide essential (specifying/restrictive) information as a qualifier in a noun group: The lift that was fixed yesterday has just broken down again; The man who fixed it is now on holidays. These are embedded clauses because, rather than operating as a separate clause, they function as part of another clause, in this case, as qualifiers in noun groups expressing a participant.

See also 'relative pronoun'.

relative pronoun

a pronoun (*who, which, that, whose, whom*) whose function it is to relate information back to a preceding person, object or idea.

*The woman **who** told me is sitting over there.*
*Kidman, **who** got her break in BMX Bandits, has really blossomed.*

rhetorical question

expressions that have the usual grammatical structure of questions but whose function is not to seek information but instead to give information, provoke thought or even help to organise the text. For example:

What is the government's policy on drugs in schools? This could be used in a formal oral presentation to inform the audience that the speaker is now going to speak about the government's policy on drugs in schools. They are not asking the audience to give them the answer.

saying process

represents interaction through the processes of telling and saying, expressed as a verb or verb group (eg *said, shouted, whispered, told, retorted, was asking, would have replied*).

sentence opener

See 'orientations – orienting the reader'.

sentence fragment

See 'fragment'.

simple sentence

a term used in the Australian Curriculum and many other curriculum and assessment documents, including this one, to refer to 'grammatically simple' sentence structures. Grammatically simple sentences contain only one central verb group (process) and, therefore, have only one clause. Simple sentences can be basic, developed or sophisticated as indicated by the three sentences below, each of which is a simple sentence because it each has only one verb group (process).

Some animals *could die*.

Last year, thousands of poor animals *were treated* badly in zoos around the world.

Recent studies of animals in captivity *have led to* an appeal for the immediate closure of substandard zoos.

specialised meanings

the particular meanings that words have within a given subject when used by subject specialists/experts. These may be quite different from the meanings the same word has in an 'everyday' context and/or in another subject.

subordinate clause

also referred to as a dependent clause, it is a clause which is subordinate to, or in a relationship of dependency with, either a main (independent) clause or another subordinate clause.

There are several language resources that can be used to create subordinate clauses as shown below, with the subordinate clause in bold italics.

- subordinating conjunctions: ***Because we ran out of petrol, we had to walk in to town; We had to walk in to town because we ran out of petrol after the fuel line got a leak.***
- relative pronouns to include clauses as:
 - interrupting clauses (providing additional, non-essential information about the subject/the noun before the verb): *The Prime Minister, **who usually resides in Canberra, is moving to Sydney; Pandas, which are an endangered species, should be kept in zoos.***
 - included clauses (providing additional, non-essential information about the object/the noun after the verb or about the clause as a whole): *Animals can live safely in the zoo, **where there are no hunters; Animals in cages can't hunt, which can lead to boredom and lack of exercise.***
 - *embedded clauses (providing essential information as a qualifier in a noun group): *The day **that the rains came** was the best day ever; The girl **who saved my life** was given a medal; She was proud of the medal **that she was awarded for her bravery.***
- non-finite clauses as:
 - adverbial clauses: ***Sitting by the window, the woman waited nervously; Having run out of petrol, we had to walk into town; The Prime Minister was today met by an angry crowd of protesters, having announced work reforms last week.***
 - interrupting clauses: *The Prime Minister, **having announced work reforms last week,** was today met by an angry crowd of protesters; Pandas, **being an endangered species,** should be kept in zoos.*
 - *embedded clauses: *The girl **receiving the medal** saved my life; She was proud of the medal **awarded for her bravery.***

- indirect speech and thought to report:
 - statements, typically with the structural element 'that', although it can also be omitted: *I know **that he will;** I said **(that) I couldn't go.***
 - questions, typically using 'whether', 'if' or a 'wh' question: *I wonder **whether/if she's right;** I asked **when it would be ready;** I know **what to do;** I asked **who was going.***

*Note: In the Australian Curriculum and other curriculum and assessment documents, including this one, sentences using embedded clauses are considered complex sentences since this is generally a later developed resource.

subordinating conjunction

also referred to as binding conjunctions, these are a large set of conjunctions (eg *because, after, when, if, as, since*) that join two clauses, forming a relationship of dependence:

We went and bought the car *after* we'd asked the bank for a loan. The clause that is 'bound' with the conjunction is a subordinate clause and can be moved to the front of the sentence.

After we'd asked the bank for a loan, we went and bought the car. The sentences formed are labelled complex sentences. Compare with 'coordinating conjunction'.

Subordinate conjunctions add adverbial clauses that provide non-essential information about the various circumstances of the happening or state described in the main clause. They can be categorised according to the type of detail they provide. For example:

- time: Nero fiddled *while* Rome burned; Keats' reputation grew substantially *after* his death.
- cause – reason: He jumped up *because* the bell rang.
- cause – purpose: She raced home *in order* to confront her brother.
- contingency – condition: It will break *if* you push it.
- contingency – concession: She went to work *even though* she was not feeling well.

tense

the setting of a clause in time. English has three simple tenses: past, present and future.

- past: *I played; I ate; I said; I thought; I was; I had.*
- present: *I play; I eat; I say; I think; I am; I have.*
- future: *I will play; I am going to eat; I am going to say; I will be; I will have; I'm going to have.*

These tenses locate an event or state in time. For example, the present tense 'has' in *Sarah has a headache* locates the situation in present time, while the past tense 'had' in 'Sarah had a headache' locates it in past time. However, the relation between grammatical tense and (semantic) time is not always simple, eg present tense is typically used to talk about:

- present states: He *lives* in Darwin.
- actions that happen regularly (habitually) in the present: He *watches* television every night.
- 'timeless' happenings, as in information reports: Bears *hibernate* in winter.
- references to future events where the tense is present but the time future: The match *starts* tomorrow.

Similar complex relations are evident in *I thought the match started tomorrow* where the subordinate clause *the match started tomorrow* has past tense but refers to future time.

Beyond these so-called 'simple' tenses, in English it is possible to express other aspects of time through elaborated tenses.

elaborated tenses

tenses where there is an added aspect of time beyond a simple tense. Common examples include those that:

- express a continuous (on-going) 'progressive' nature of a process to indicate it is unfinished or temporary. This continuous aspect is formed using the '-ing participle' form of the verb preceded by a verb 'to be' auxiliary to denote the tense.
 - past continuous (the present happening in the past): *I was eating* my dinner.
 - present continuous (the present happening in the present): *I am eating* my dinner.
 - future continuous (the present happening in the future): *I will be eating* my dinner.
- indicate a perfect (complete) process: a finished or completed process, generally in

relation to a subsequent event. This perfect aspect is formed using the '-ed/en participle' form of the verb preceded by a verb 'to have' auxiliary to denote the tense.

- present perfect (the past happening in the present): *I have eaten* dinner (so now ...).
- past perfect (the past happening in the past): *I had eaten* my dinner (and then ...).
- future perfect (the past happening in the future): *I will have eaten* my dinner by then.

text

the means for communication. Text forms and conventions have developed to help us communicate effectively with a variety of audiences for a range of purposes. Texts can be written, spoken or multimodal and in print or digital/online forms. Multimodal texts combine language with other systems for communication, such as print text, visual images, soundtrack and spoken word as in film or computer presentation media.

text connective

a broad term to describe elements of the language that join various parts together. Connectives relate ideas to one another and help to show the logic of the information. Connectives are important resources for creating cohesion in texts. They can be considered according to their two main functions:

- to organise a text: *to begin, secondly, in addition, finally, in conclusion, one of the reasons (instead of firstly)*. They are used at the beginning of the stages of a genre.
- to link paragraphs and sentences in logical relationships of time, cause and effect, comparison, and addition.

The logical relationships can be grouped as follows:

- temporal – to indicate time or sequence ideas: *first, second, next*.
- causal – to show cause and effect: *as a result, therefore, consequently*.
- additive – to add information: *also, besides, furthermore*.
- comparative – to indicate comparison or contrast: *rather, alternatively, likewise*.
- conditional/concessive – to make conditions or concession: *yet, though, however*.
- clarifying – to provide an example or clarification: *in fact, for example*.

text structure

the distinctive way that a text of a particular genre is structured, having identifiable stages which enable it to achieve its purpose. For example, a recount has an orientation (sets the time, place and people involved), a series of events (ordered by time and perhaps evaluated) and an evaluation or re-orientation to conclude and evaluate.

It was a great day. Finally, at four o'clock, we all went home.

It can also refer to the ways in which information is organised within texts: chapter headings, subheadings, tables of contents, indexes and glossaries; and/or in terms of the logic: sequencing, taxonomies, cause and effect. Choices in text structure and language features together define a text type and shape its meaning.

topic vocabulary

the language related to a given topic of study, which is not necessarily subject specific. For example, terms such as global warming, rising sea levels, climate change and carbon emissions may need to be understood in relation to a topic being studied in the arts, economics, English, environmental studies or science.

verb/verb group/verb phrase

a word class that expresses a process as a happening: 'climbed' in 'She *climbed* the ladder'; or a state: 'is' in 'The koala *is* an Australian mammal'. See 'process' for a fuller explanation of process types.

verbs

are essential to clause structure because all clauses contain a verb, except in certain types of ellipsis: Sue *lives* in Sydney, her parents (*live*) in Melbourne. Verbs:

- carry tense: See 'tense' for a fuller explanation.
- can take a negative form: She lives in Sydney. Her parents *don't live* in Sydney; I am going. I *am not going*.

There are two main types of verbs: main verbs and auxiliary verbs. Every clause has a main verb, expressing a particular process: doing (action), saying, mental or relating. If there is only one verb in a clause, it is the main verb, and it will also express tense: He *types* on the computer; He *typed* on the computer.

Auxiliary verbs are also referred to as 'helping' verbs and are inserted before the main verb to form a variety of functions. For example, to:

- locate elaborated tenses in past, present or future compared to the time of speaking or writing ('to be' or 'to have'): She *is working*; She *was working*; She *will be working*; She *has been working*; She *had been working*; She *will have been working*.
- create passive voice ('to be'): A photo *was taken*.
- form the negative form ('to do' if no other auxiliary is present): She *didn't work*; She *is not working*; She *hasn't worked*; She *mustn't work*.
- form yes/no questions ('to do' if no other auxiliary is present): *Does she work?*; *Is she working?*; *Has she worked?*; *Should she work?*
- express a degree of modality (through modal verbs):
 - certainty/probability: I *might* come home.
 - obligation: You *must* give it to me; You *should* not smoke in here.

See also 'multi-word verb groups', 'tense' and 'verb/verb group/verb phrases'.

