**Victorian Aboriginal Languages Glossary**

**Abstract symbols**

Abstract symbols include: speech; sign language; Braille; alphabet; whole words; pictographs; line drawings

**Accent**

A speaker’s accent is the manner of pronunciation that marks them as belonging to identifiable categories such as geographical or ethnic origin, social class or generation, for example, an Australian English accent or an American English accent.

**Adjective**

An adjective is a word that describes a noun or pronoun, for example, ‘astonishing’ in ‘an astonishing discovery’.

**Adverb**

An adverb is a word that, in English, modifies a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or a sentence, for example, ‘beautifully’ in ‘she sings beautifully’; ‘really’ in ‘he is really interesting’; ‘very’ and ‘slowly’ in ‘she walks very slowly’; and ‘coincidentally’ in ‘Coincidentally, she walked into the room just as we were discussing her whereabouts’*.*

**Affixation**

The use of suffixes or prefixes, which attach to a word.

**Articles**

In English, ‘a’ and ‘an’ are called indefinite articles. ‘The’ is the definite article because it specifies precisely which noun you are referring to, for example, ‘a book’ can be any book, anywhere, but ‘the book’ refers to one book in particular. Aboriginal languages do not have articles.

**Audience**

The audience is the intended readers, listeners or viewers.

**Authentic (texts/materials)**

Texts or materials produced for ‘real-life’ purposes and contexts, as opposed to being created specifically for learning tasks or language practice, are called authentic texts or materials.

**Benefactive**

This is a type of case that indicates who or what will benefit from the action of the verb, for example, ‘I bought a new shirt **for** my son’.

**Bilingualism**

Bilingualism is the ability to use two languages.

**Borrowing**

Borrowing is the practice of incorporating words from one language into another, for example, English borrowed the word ‘kangaroo’ from the Gugu Yimidhirr language and some Victorian Aboriginal languages borrowed the word ‘policemen’, pronounced as [belidjmen], from English.

**Bound pronouns**

These are pronouns that are morphemes, but not words themselves, that is, they cannot stand alone. They are affixed (attached) to another word, for example, -*an* ‘I’ in some Western Kulin languages, *njernil-in-an* listen-past-I ‘I listened’ and *–ek* ‘my’ in *gal-ek* dog-my ‘my dog’.

**Clause**

A clause is a grammatical unit that contains a subject and a predicate. The subject is a noun or noun phrase and the predicate is what is being said about the subject. In English, the predicate must contain a verb. A clause expresses a complete proposition, for example, ‘Mary cried’, where ‘Mary’ is the subject and ‘cried’ is the predicate, and ‘Mary saw the boy who was her son’s best friend in kindergarten’, where Mary is again the subject and everything else is the predicate. However, in Aboriginal languages, a verb is not always required. In some of the Aboriginal languages of Western Victoria, a sentence like *Djadjin bainggu(g)* ‘Your sister is a child’ is literally ‘your sister child’. *Djadjin* ‘your sister’ is the subject and *bainggu(g)* is the predicate.

**Code-switching**

Code-switching occurs when a speaker moves from one language or dialect to another in the same sentence, for example, ’Will you kids get your moom in the car please!’ *Moom* is a widespread Victorian Aboriginal word that has been used in an English sentence. It is a common feature of bilingual and multilingual language use.

**Cognates**

Cognates are similar or identical words that have a shared origin. The cognates *kurk/kurrk/gurk/gurrk* are found in many Victorian Aboriginal languages with the meaning ‘woman or female’. These words may have descended from one word that was present in an ancient form of the language that may have been spoken across what is now Victoria.

**Cohesion**

 Cohesion in a text is achieved through various devices such as:

* Connectives like ‘and, but, or’;
* Ellipses, that is, the omission of one or more words that are understood, for example, ‘Kim’ in the second and third clauses in the sentence ‘Kim came home, took off her shoes and sat down’; and
* Word associations. These associations include:
	+ synonyms, that is, words with similar meanings, for example, ‘gregarious/friendly/sociable’;
	+ antonyms, which are words with opposite meanings, for example, ‘to concentrate/to daydream’, ‘ugly/beautiful’;
	+ repetition such as ‘work, work, work – that’s all we do!’;and
	+ collocation, that is, the use of words that occur together in natural texts, for example*,* ‘salt and pepper’ in, ‘He used lots of salt and pepper’.

**Collocation**

Collocation is when words typically occur in close association and in particular sequence, for example, ‘ladies and gentlemen’ rather than ‘gentlemen and ladies’.

**Communicative competence**

Communicative competence is the ability to understand and interact in culturally appropriate ways when using the target language, for example, knowing the correct thing to say to someone whose partner has recently died.

**Complex sentence**

A complex sentence consists of an independent clause with one or more subordinate clauses, for example, ‘John wrote a new book, which is his third novel’. ‘John wrote a new book’ is the main, independent clause, and ‘which is his third novel’ is a relative clause, a type of subordinate clause.

**Compound word**

A compound word is a word made up of two existing words, such as ‘baby-sit’ in English or *bab-manja* mother-hand ‘thumb’ in some dialects of Western Kulin.

**Compound sentence**

A compound sentence has two or more main clauses of equal grammatical status, usually marked by a coordinating conjunction such as ‘or’, ‘and’, ‘but’. In the following examples, the main clauses are indicated by square brackets: [Alice came home this morning] but [she didn't stay long]. [Kim is an actor], [Pat is a teacher], and [Sam is an architect].

**Comprehension/comprehending**

An active process of making/constructing/deciphering the meaning of language input through listening, reading, viewing, touching (as in braille) and combinations of these modes. It involves different elements: decoding, working out meaning, evaluating and imagining. The process draws upon the learner’s existing knowledge and understanding*,* text–processing strategies and capabilities, for example, inferencing or applying knowledge of text types and social and cultural resources.

**Concrete language**

Concrete language is language used to refer to the material world and to particular persons, places and objects, for example, ‘school’, and ‘girl’, as opposed to abstract language,which refers to ideas or concepts not in the material world, such as ‘peace’, ‘kindness’, and ‘beauty’*.*

**Conjunction**

A conjunction is a word that joins other words, phrases or clauses together. There are two types of conjunctions: coordinating conjunctions and subordinating conjunctions. Coordinating conjunctions are words that link words, phrases and clauses in such a way that the elements have equal grammatical status. They include conjunctions such as ‘and’, ‘or’, and ‘but’. Subordinating conjunctions introduce subordinate clauses, that is, dependent clauses of various types. Subordinating conjunctions include words such as such as ‘after’, ‘when’, ‘because’, ‘if’ and ‘that’.

**Connotations**

Connotations are additional ideas or feelings that are invoked by the use of a particular word, separate from its literal meaning, for example, the literal meaning of ‘home’ is the place where we live, but for many people it has the additional meanings of ‘safety’, ‘comfort’ and ‘love’.

**Content**

The subject matter used to teach a language.

**Context**

The context is the environment and circumstances in which a text is created or interpreted. Context can include the general social, historical and cultural conditions in which a text exists or the specific features of its immediate environment, such as participants, roles, relationships and setting. The term is also used to refer to the wording surrounding an unfamiliar word that a reader or listener uses to understand its meaning.

**Convention**

A convention is an accepted language or communicative practice that has developed and become established over time, for example, the use of punctuation.

**Conventional behaviours**

Behaviours that are accepted as the norm in a given culture are called conventional behaviours. These can include: speech, actions, and formal gestures, such as, a head nod, a shake of the head, a wave that indicates hello or goodbye, and pointing.

**Cues**

Sources of information used to assist in understanding language. They may be visual, grammatical, gestural or contextual, for example, ‘That is the wrong one’, where the cue is the speaker pointing at a particular object.

**Culture**

Culture involves understanding the ‘norms’ and expectations of a group. It can be defined as social practices, patterns of behaviour, and organisational processes and perspectives associated with the values, beliefs and understandings shared by members of a community or cultural group. Language, culture and identity are closely interrelated and involved in the shaping and expression of each other.

**Derivation**

When an affix is added to a word to change its word class from one class (say, verb) to another class (say, noun). It is called derivation because it derives a new word, for example, ‘(to) insure’ is a verb, to which you can add the derivational suffix –ance to form the noun ‘insurance’.

**Dialect**

A dialect is a variant of a language that is characteristic of a region or social group, for example, English has an Australian dialect, and Aboriginal English dialects, as well as an American dialect, etc.

**Digital media**

Digital media is digitised content that can be transmitted over the internet or computers. It is created, viewed and saved on digital electronic devices like computers.

**Digital texts**

Digital texts are audio, visual or multimodal texts produced through digital or electronic technology. They may be interactive and include animations or hyperlinks. Examples of digital texts include DVDs, websites and e-literature.

**Digraph**

Two letters that, when written together, represent a single sound are called digraphs:

* vowel digraphs have two vowels, for example, ‘oo’ in ‘pool’ and ‘ea’ in ‘each’
* consonant digraphs have two consonants, for example, ‘sh’ in ‘ship’ and both ‘th’ and ‘ng’ in ‘thing’

**Diphthongs**

A diphthong is defined as two vowel sounds pronounced in a single syllable with the individual vowel sounds distinguished, for example, ‘high’ contains the diphthong [ai]. If you say ‘high’ very, very slowly you will hear the individual sounds [a] and [i].

**Enunciation**

Enunciation is the act of pronouncing words.

**Face**

Face is a concept that refers to a person’s public self-image. It relates to such things as reputation, self-respect, honour and prestige. It is a key element of social relations in some cultures, such as that of China and Japan.

**Filler**

A filler is a sound or word used in spoken conversation to signal a pause, hesitation or unfinished contribution, such as, the fillers ‘um’ and ‘er’.

**Fluency**

Fluency is the ability to produce spoken or written language with appropriate phrasing, rhythm and pace. It involves the smooth flow of language, lack of hesitation or pausing and characterises the largely accurate use of the target language.

**Form-focussed learning activities**

Form-focussed activities are designed to rehearse, practise, control and demonstrate particular language structures, forms or features, for example, drills, rehearsed role plays/dialogues, games and songs, and set sequences of language patterns.

**Formulaic language**

Words or expressions which are commonly used in fixed patterns and learned as such without grammatical analysis are called formulaic language, for example, ‘Once upon a time’in a storyor *‘*How are you going*’* as a greeting*.*

**Free pronouns**

These are pronouns that are words in their own right, such as, *yeti* ‘I’ in some of the languages of North West Victorian. They contrast with bound pronouns.

**Genre**

Genre is a term used for categories used to classify text types and language use. It is characterised by distinguishing features such as subject matter, form, function and intended audience. Examples of genres typically used in early language learning include greetings, classroom instructions and apologies. More advanced language proficiency includes the ability to use genres such as narratives or persuasive texts, creative performances and debates.

**Grammar**

Grammar is a description of the language we use and the way we use it, for example, in English a grammar would include the fact that adjectives generally come before nouns – ‘spectacular sunset’, not ‘sunset spectacular’.

**Homophone**

A homophone is a word that is identical to another word in its pronunciation, but it has a different meaning, for example, in English, ‘their’, ‘there’ and ‘they’re’all sound the same, but have different meanings.

**Honorific**

An honorific is a word that expresses respect or politeness, and emphasizes emphasises social distance or status, such as ‘Uncle’ in Aboriginal English.

**Identity**

Identity is a person’s conception and expression of individuality or group affiliation. Identity is closely connected to both culture and language. Thinking and talking about yourself is influenced by your languages and cultural systems. Identity is not fixed. Second language learners’ experience with different linguistic and cultural systems introduces them to alternative ways of considering the nature and possibilities associated with identity.

**Idiomatic expressions**

An idiomatic expressions is a group of more or less fixed words having a meaning not deducible from the individual words. Idioms are typically informal expressions used by particular social groups and need to be explained as one unit, for example, ‘I am over the moon’, ‘on thin ice’, ‘a fish out of water’, and ‘fed up to the back teeth’.

**Infinitive**

The infinitive is the base form of a verb to which tense, subject, mood etc can be added, depending on the language. In English, the base form is preceded by ‘to’, such as ‘to eat’, ‘to be’. In Aboriginal languages, it is the part of the verb that contains its meaning, for example, *nyern-/nyirn*- means ‘listen’ in several Kulin languages. A suffix, such as the common Western Kulin suffix *–in,* which indicates past tense, is then added to form ‘listened’.

**Inflection**

When an affix is added to a word to modify its meaning, but not to change its meaning or word class, that affix is an inflection, for example, verbs are inflected for tense (time), such as, in English, ‘He play-**s**’ meaning present time and ‘he play-**ed**’ meaning past time. Many of the Kulin languages of Victoria share inflections for tense, that is, -*in* for past tense, -*a* for present tense and –*iny* for future tense.

**Intensifiers**

Intensifiers are words or suffixes that add emphasise or force to other words. In English, adverbs such as ‘very’ intensify the meaning of adjectives, for example, ’hot’ versus‘very hot’*.* In Aboriginal languages, intensifiers may be suffixes that are attached to a verb to indicate a prolonged or more intense action, for example, in some of the Western Victorian languages, *dyaimb*- ‘to shout’ becomes *dyaimbua* ‘to yell loudly’ when the intensifier –*ua* is added.

**Intercultural capability**

Intercultural capability is the ability to understand and to engage in the relationship between languages, cultures and people from diverse backgrounds and experiences. This involves understanding the dynamic and interdependent nature of both language and culture, that communicating and interacting in different languages involves interacting with values, beliefs and experiences as well as with words and grammars. An intercultural capability involves being open to different perspectives, being flexible and curious, responsive and reflective; being able to decentre, to look objectively at one’s own cultural ways of thinking and behaving, and at how these affect attitudes to others, and shape assumptions and behaviours. Characteristics of an intercultural capability include cognitive and communicative flexibility and an orientation and ability to act in ways that are inclusive and ethical in relation to diversity and difference.

**Interpret**

In the context of second language learning, ‘interpret’ refers to two distinct processes:

* the act of translation from one language to another
* the process of understanding and explaining; the ability to conceive significance and construct meaning, and to explain to yourself or others

**Intonation**

Intonation is a key component of communication. It involves patterns of pitch and melody that can be used like punctuation in spoken language, for example, to express surprise or ask a question, to shape, accentuate or diminish emphasis or meaning, and to regulate turn-taking in conversations. In some languages, a rising intonation at the end of a sentence indicates that it is a question, even though it does not take the grammatical form of a question, for example, ‘You ate snails?’ in English.

**Language**

Language is the human system of communication that allows people to create and comprehend meaning, to build and sustain relationships, to represent and shape knowledge, and to imagine, analyse, express and evaluate.

**Language comprehension**

The process of interpreting meaning from spoken, written, tactile and multimodal representations of language is called language comprehension.

**Language features**

Language features support meaning, for example, sentence structure, vocabulary, punctuation, and figurative language. Choices in language features and text structures together define a type of text and shape its meaning. These choices vary according to the purpose of a text, its subject matter, audience and mode or medium of production.

**Language functions**

Language functions are the varied ways in which language is used to achieve particular purposes, for example, to persuade, to entertain, to apologise, to argue and/or to compliment.

**Language patterns**

 Language patterns include patterns of repetition or similarity, such as the repetition of imperative verb forms at the beginning of each step in a recipe, or the repetition of a chorus after each verse in a song. Patterns may alternate, as in the call and response pattern of some games, or the to-and-fro of a dialogue. Patterns may also contrast, as in opposing viewpoints in a discussion or contrasting patterns of imagery in a poem.

**Language systems**

Language systems are the elements that organise how a language works, including the systems of signs and rules for the phonology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics that underpin language use. These systems have to be internalised for effective communication and comprehension.

**Lexical cohesion**

Lexical cohesion involves the use of word associations to create links in texts. Links can be made through the use of repetition of words, synonyms, antonyms and words that are related, such as by class and subclass.

**Macro skills**

The macro skills are the four major language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

**Media texts**

Spoken, print, graphic, or electronic communications created for a public audience are known as media texts. They often involve numerous people in their construction and are usually shaped by the technology used in their production. Media texts studied in different languages can be found in newspapers, magazines and on television, film, radio, computer software and the internet.

**Medium**

Resources used in the production and transmission of texts, including the tools and materials used, are referred to as the medium, for example, digital text and the computer, writing and the pen or the keyboard.

**Metalanguage**

Metalanguage is the vocabulary used to discuss language and its use, for example, words used to talk about grammatical features, such as ‘sentence’, ‘clause’*,* and *‘*conjunction’; or about the social and cultural nature of language, such as ‘face’, ‘reciprocating’*,* and ‘register’.

**Mnemonic**

Memorising information by using an aid such as a pattern, rhyme, acronym, or visual image, for example, the spelling mnemonic ‘i before e, except after c’.

**Morpheme**

A morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning in a language. Morphemes are not necessarily the same as either words or syllables. The word ‘cat’ has one morpheme while the word ‘cats’has two morphemes: {cat} for the animal and {s} to indicate that there is more than one. Similarly, ‘like’ has one morpheme while ‘dislike’ has two: {like} to describe appreciation and {dis} meaning ‘not’. The process of identifying morphemes assists comprehension, vocabulary building and spelling.

**Morphology**

Morphology identifies, analyses and describes the structure of morphemes in a language.

**Multimodal text**

A multimodal text involves two or more communication modes, for example, the combining of print, image and spoken text in a film or computer presentation.

**Narrative**

A narrative is a story of events or experiences, real or imagined.

**Narrative devices**

Techniques used to help in the narrating of a story or reported event are called narrative devices, for example, imagery, metaphor, and allusion.

**Neologism**

A neologism is a new word that has been created, for example, ‘smartphone’ and ‘modem’.

**Nominal**

A term sometimes used for nouns and words that have some of the attributes of nouns.

**Nominalisation**

Nominalisation is the process of forming nouns from verbs, for example, ‘reaction’ from ‘react’ or ‘departure’ from ‘depart’; or adjectives, for example, ‘length’ from ‘long’, ‘eagerness’ from ‘eager’. Some Aboriginal Languages have a nominal-forming suffix, for example, in Djab Wurrung, the suffix –*ap* forms nouns from verbs, so the verb *pakuna* ‘to catch fish’ becomes *pakunap* ‘hook’.

**Noun**

A noun is a part of speech that denotes physical objects such as ‘man’, ‘woman’, ‘car’, or ‘window’. These are concrete nouns. Abstract nouns express intangibles, such as ‘democracy’, ‘courage’, ‘success’, or ‘idea’.

**Object**

Object is a grammatical role filled by a noun. It is the noun that is affected by the action of the verb, for example, ‘the book’ in ‘Henry read the book’.

**Oracy**

Oracy is the ability to express oneself in and to understand spoken language**.** It includes oral and aural abilities.

**Orthography**

An orthography is the writing system used for a given language. This sentence is written in English orthography.

**Paralanguage**

Paralanguage is the additional elements of communication that are integrated with the spoken elements. They contribute significantly to communication and meaning-making, for example, voice quality, volume and pacing, facial expressions, gestures, posture and body movement.

**Paralinguistics**

Paralinguistics is the study of the paralanguage elements of language.

**Pedagogy**

Pedagogy is the art or science of teaching.

**Performance**

Performance is the use of language in real situations, putting language knowledge into practice. It involves accuracy, fluency and complexity.

**Phoneme**

A phoneme is the smallest meaningful unit in the sound system of a language. For example, the word *is* has two phonemes: /i/ and /s/; *ship* has three phonemes: /sh/, /i/, /p/. It is an abstract concept that distinguishes one word from another, that is, a sound that changes the meaning of a word, for example, if the phoneme /p/ in ‘tap’ is replaced by the phoneme /r/, it changes the meaning of the word.

**Phonics**

Phonics is the relationship between letters or characters and the sounds they make when pronounced. Language learning involves developing phonic awareness and proficiency.

**Phonological awareness**

Phonological awareness is the understanding that every spoken word is composed of small units of sound, identifying relationships between letters and sounds when listening, reading and spelling. It includes understanding about words, rhyme and syllables.

**Pragmatics**

Pragmatics is the study of how context affects communication, for example, in relation to the status of participants, the situation in which the communication is happening, or the intention of the speaker.

**Predicate**

A clause has a subject and a predicate. The subject is the noun or noun phrase that the sentence is about, and the predicate is what is being said about the subject, for example, ‘Mary cried’, where ‘Mary’ is the subject and ‘cried’ is the predicate, and ‘Mary saw the boy who was her son’s best friend in kindergarten’, where ‘Mary’ is again the subject and everything else is the predicate. In English, the predicate must contain a verb.

However, in Aboriginal languages, a verb is not always required, for example, in some of the Aboriginal languages of Western Victoria, a sentence like *Djadjin bainggu(g)* ‘Your sister is a child’ is literally ‘your sister child’. *Djadjin* ‘your sister’ is the subject and *bainggu(g)* is the predicate.

**Prefix**

A prefix is a morpheme or meaningful element that is added to the front of a word to change its meaning, for example, in English, the prefix un- means not, so when you add it to the word ‘grateful’, you get ‘ungrateful’, which means ‘not grateful’.

**Preposition**

In English a preposition is a part of speech that can precede a noun, noun phrase or pronoun, describing the relationships in a sentence in respect to:

* Place, for example, ‘below’, ‘in’, ‘on’, ‘to’, ‘under’, such as ‘in’ in the sentence ‘She swam in the river
* Time, for example, ‘after’, ‘before’, ‘since’, such as ‘before’ in the sentence ‘It ran away before she could catch it’
* Manner, for example, ‘with’, ‘without’, such as ‘with’ in ‘He laughed with glee’
* Agency, for example, ‘by’, as in ‘He was seen by his wife’
* Direction, for example, ‘to’, ‘towards’, ‘from’, ‘It ran towards the bush’.

Prepositions are not common in Victorian Aboriginal languages as the relationships they represent are generally shown by suffixes meaning ‘in’ (locative), ‘from’ (ablative), etc. Prepositions tend to be used when specificity is required.

**Productive language use**

Productive language use is one of the two aspects of communication through language (see *receptive language*) involving the ability to express, articulate and produce utterances or texts in the target language.

**Pronoun**

Pronouns are part of the nominal (noun) system of a language. They are used to refer to a noun or noun phrase that has been previously mentioned or is understood by the context, for example, ‘he’ substitutes for ‘John’ and ‘her’ substitutes for ‘Sally’ in the sentence ‘John saw Sally so he called out to her’. In the context of Australian society, it is understood that ‘they’ represents a non-specific agent, such as the government in the sentences like ‘They keep raising taxes’. In this instance, there is no overt antecedent.

Interrogative pronouns are used in questions, for example, ‘who’ in ‘Who saw Sally?’

**Pronunciation**

 Pronunciation is the way in which a word or language is spoken.

**Prosody**

Prosody refers to the patterns of rhythm, tempo, stress, pitch and intonation used in spoken language, for example, in poetry or public speaking.

**Proxemics**

Proxemics is the use of space, posture and touch in non-verbal communication.

**Purposeful learning**

Purposeful learning is the learning that results from authentic language experiences that involve real purpose and achievable outcomes.

**Question**

A question is a commonly employed prompt to elicit language use. It is a key element of scaffolding to support learners’ use of language and to encourage further contributions. Different types of questions provide different prompts:

* **closed questions** are questions for which there are predictable answers. For example, ‘What time is it?’ These are typically used as prompts for short answers, as a framework for testing comprehension or reviewing facts, and for routinized interactions. They are frequently used to scaffold early language development.
* **open questions** are questions with unknown and unpredictable answers that invite and support more elaborated and extended contributions from learners. For example, ‘How do you feel about that?’ ‘What do you think might happen next?’ They are used as stimulus to discussion, reflection and investigation.

Questions are an important element of intercultural language teaching and learning. The quality of questions determines the quality and substance of the learning experience. Effective questions relating to the nature of language, culture and identity and the processes involved in language learning and intercultural experience guide the processes of investigating, interpreting and reflecting which support new understanding and knowledge development.

**Receptive language**

Receptive language is one of the two components of communication through language (see *productive language*): the ‘receiving’ aspect of language input, the gathering of information and making of meaning via the listening, reading, and viewing processes.

**Register**

Register is the variety of a language used for a particular purpose, with a specific audience or in a particular social setting, for example, people generally use an informal register with their family and a formal register with their employer. The so-called –eses, such as legalese, bureaucratese and restaurantese are another example of registers.

**Root of a word**

The root of a word is the morpheme that carries the essential meaning. Affixes, that is, prefixes and suffixes, are added to the root to modify its meaning, for example, the word ‘reclaimed’ has the root ‘claim’, to which is added the prefix ‘re-‘ meaning ‘again’ and the suffix ‘-ed’ meaning past tense.

**Scaffolding**

Support provided to assist the learning process or to complete a learning task is called scaffolding. Scaffolded language support involves using the target language at a level slightly beyond learners’ current level of performance, and involves incremental increasing and decreasing of assistance. Task support provides assistance to perform just beyond what learners can currently do unassisted, to progress to being able to do it independently. Scaffolding includes modelling and structuring input in ways that provide additional cues or interactive questioning to activate existing knowledge, probe existing conceptions or cue noticing and reflecting.

**Scanning**

A text processing strategy adopted to search for specific words, ideas or information in a text without reading every word. For example, looking for a word in the dictionary or a name in a phone directory. Scanning involves moving the eyes quickly down the text looking for specific words and phrases to gain a quick overall impression/to get the gist.

**Script**

Script is a writing system in which characters or symbols represent components of language, for example, letters and words.

**Simple sentences**

Simple sentences take the form of a single clause containing one verb, for example, ’The boy saw the kangaroo’, ‘Go away’.

**Stereotype**

A stereotype is a widely held but fixed and oversimplified image or idea of a particular type of person or thing

**Stress**

Stress is the emphasis in pronunciation that is placed on a particular syllable of a word, for example, ‘She will cond**uct** the orchestra’, ’Her **con**duct is exemplary’*.*

**Subject**

The subject of a clause or sentence is the noun or noun phrase that the predicate is about, for example, ‘Alex’ is the subject in ‘Alex met Andrew in a café’, and ‘Alex was given the wrong coffee’.

**Suffix**

A suffix is a morpheme, that is, meaningful element, that is added after the root of a word to modify its meaning, for example, the suffix ‘-ed’ is added to verbs to indicate the past tense in English, as in ‘talk/talked’.

**Syntax**

The syntax of a language is the manner in which words and phrases are ordered in acceptable sentences, for example, adjectives come before nouns in English, as in ‘Maria wore a red dress’. ’Maria wore a dress red’ is not an acceptable sentence because it does not accord with English syntax.

**Target languages**

The target language is the language being learnt.

**Tense**

Tense is added to verbs to indicate time. English has three tenses: past, present and future. However, other languages can have a different concept of time, for example, they may divide time into two categories, such as, past/non-past or future/non-future.

**Text**

A text is an extended stretch of language. 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 processing strategies**

Strategies learners use to understand text are referred to as text processing strategies. These involve drawing on contextual, semantic, grammatical and phonic knowledge in systematic ways to work out what a text says. They include predicting, recognising words and working out unknown words, monitoring comprehension, identifying and correcting errors, reading on and re-reading.

**Text structure**

Text structure is the ways in which information is organised in different types of texts, for example, chapter headings, subheadings, tables of contents, indexes and glossaries, overviews, introductory and concluding paragraphs, sequencing, topic sentences, taxonomies, or cause and effect. Choices in text structures and language features together define a text type and shape its meaning. Different languages/cultures structure texts differently.

**Text types**

Text types (or genres) are categories of text, classified according to the particular purposes they are designed to achieve, which in turn influence the features of the texts, for example, texts may be imaginative, informative or persuasive; or they can belong to more than one category. Text types vary significantly in terms of structure and language features across different languages and cultural contexts, for example, a business letter in French will be more elaborate than a similar letter in English.

**Textual features**

These are the structural components and elements that combine to create meaning and achieve a particular purpose in a text. Textual features can be used to define particular text types, for example, in English, subject-auxiliary verb inversion is generally used to create a question, exemplified by the subject ‘you’ and the auxiliary verb ‘have’ in ‘Have you seen my pen?’. Similarly, long complex sentences can be juxtaposed with simple sentences to create an effect: Harry was hoping to find his old girlfriend’s address in the box on top of the wardrobe, so he climbed the step ladder, only to slip suddenly and land on the floor. It hurt.

**Translation**

Translation is the process of transferring the meaning of words or texts from one language into another.

**Verb**

Verbs are the words that denote an action, state or process. These categories are exemplified respectively by the words ‘watch’, ‘love’ and ‘think’ in the sentences:

* *They watch football every Friday night.*
* *The boys love their team.*
* *They think their team will win the grand final.*

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