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**DOWN UNDER: KNOWING THE PEOPLE AND THE  
LANGUAGE FROM AUSTRALIA**

**CAMPINA GRANDE – PB**

**2014**

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Trabalho de Conclusão de Curso (TCC) apresentado como requisito para a conclusão do curso de Licenciatura Plena em Letras, Habilitação em Língua Inglesa, na Universidade Estadual da Paraíba, sob a orientação da Prof<sup>ta</sup>. Ms. Maria das Neves Soares.

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AUSTRALIA**

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## INSCRIPTION

*To God above all.*

*To my parents (in memoriam), for all their support.*

*To my advisor, for all her help and patience.*

## ABSTRACT

Australia is a place where tourism, fun and studies are the main attractions for foreigners. Other English speaking countries have used some Australian idioms which are present in their daily conversation and make part of some comprehensive dictionaries. Every English speaker can recognise the Australian accent though it is very hard to understand. This work aims to describe some characteristics of Australian English and also give some information on the Australian people's preferences and customs to those who want to know something about this variety of English. We based our research mainly on the studies of Blair and Collins (2001), Crystal (2002) and Wardhaugh (1993). In the first part, we focus on the first language spoken by humankind and show how the English language spread all over the world. In the second part, we show an overview on the history, habits and behaviour of Australians. Then, we focus on some syntactic aspects of Australian English, especially on vocabulary. In the end, we show some Aboriginal vocabulary present in Australian usage. Finally, we will show that Australia is a wonderful place to be visited, its people are amazing and their language is fascinating.

**Keywords:** Australian English. Vocabulary. Behaviour. Customs.

## RESUMO

A Austrália é um lugar onde turismo, diversão e estudos são as principais atrações para os estrangeiros. A língua é muito diferente de outras variedades do inglês. Outros países de língua inglesa utilizam algumas expressões idiomáticas australianas que estão presentes em suas conversas diárias e fazem parte dos melhores dicionários. Qualquer falante de inglês consegue reconhecer o sotaque australiano, apesar de ser muito difícil de entender. Este trabalho descreve algumas características do Inglês Australiano e também fornece algumas informações sobre preferências e costumes do povo australiano para aqueles que pretendem conhecer um pouco desta variedade da língua inglesa. A fundamentação teórica foi baseada, principalmente, nos estudos de Blair e Collins (2001), Crystal (2002) e Wardhaugh (1993). Na primeira parte, forneceremos informações sobre a primeira língua falada pela humanidade e mostraremos como a língua inglesa se espalhou pelo mundo inteiro. Na segunda parte, apresentaremos uma visão geral sobre a história, costumes e comportamento dos australianos. Em seguida, daremos informações sobre alguns aspectos do inglês australiano, principalmente, sobre vocabulário. No final, abordaremos um pouco do vocabulário aborígine presente no uso do inglês australiano. Finalmente, mostraremos que a Austrália é um lugar maravilhoso para se visitar, seu povo é incrível e sua língua é fascinante.

**Palavras-chave:** Inglês Australiano. Vocabulário. Comportamento. Costumes.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

**AmE** – American English;

**AusE** – Australian English;

**BrE** – British English.

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

Languages are always a fascinating theme to be studied. If we pay attention to the ones that are spoken nowadays we will find about 5,800 languages spoken all over the world. Only in Africa about 1,700 languages are spoken. Each one has its own peculiarities and varieties. Even “small” languages are subdivided in lots of varieties which might cause some problems of intelligibility among other speakers of the same language.

The English language has spread in the world and it is the first or second language of millions of people in big or small countries. As it spreads, its vocabulary goes through changes and variation so that both animate beings and inanimate things might have different names from one place to another. Because of this globalisation, the English language is increasingly an efficient and necessary way to communicate with people from all over the world, especially at present when the internet and travelling can approach people to one another. Today, knowing how to communicate in English is more than a matter of status, it is a necessity.

Nevertheless, each language has its own characteristics which are sub-divided into many others - for instance, British and American varieties are known by everyone who devotes to learn English in any part of the world; however other varieties are growing into importance. Australian English is one of these varieties that deserve our attention due to the increasing flow of tourists who visit Australia attracted by its beaches, colleges, artists and fauna.

Australians preserved the language used by the English people at the time of the colonisation but added many words from other languages, mainly from the language spoken by the Aborigines (the Australian native inhabitants). For this reason, Australian English is more than simply different from any other English variety, it is unique.

Thus, taking these aspects into account we consider the relevance of developing this research about Australian English as a means of raising awareness about this important English variety as well as of increasing our horizons on this topic.

Therefore, the main objective of this paper is to raise awareness about the main aspects of the English language used in Australia. As specific objectives this work intends to: present an overview of the history, behaviour and traditions of Australian people; describe some systematic aspects of Australian English, focusing mainly on some specific vocabulary, idioms and syntactic features, and show some Aboriginal vocabulary incorporated in Australian English.



In order to achieve the objectives above, we based our paper mainly on the studies of Blair and Collins (2001), Crystal (1987, 2002, 2003), and Wardhaugh (1993), alongside with some articles on the subject matter found in magazines and websites.

The paper is developed in the following parts: first, it focuses on the origin of language; second, it deals with the spreading of English around the world and the distinction between language and dialect; then it presents an overview of the history, customs and traditions of Australia; next, the focus is on some aspects of Australian English such as specific vocabulary, idioms, pronunciation and syntactic features as well as some local typical Australian English characteristics; finally, it presents some Aboriginal language usages that were incorporated in Australian English.

We can characterise this work as a descriptive research because it involves sources as scientific publications such as books, dictionaries and encyclopaedias (OLIVEIRA, 2007, pp. 69-71). It may also be classified as a documentary research since some non-scientific publications were also used, such as magazines and the Holy Bible. In addition, we took information from websites on the internet.

## 2 THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

### 2.1 The Origin of the First Language

The First Language has been searched by linguists for a long time. They presume that humankind spoke only one language which, after some time, turned into many others. The Holy Bible<sup>1</sup> has inspired those linguists to develop this theory, according to what can be seen on Genesis 11, 1.6-7:

And the whole earth was of one language, and of one speech. [...] And the LORD said, Behold, the people [is] one, and they have all one language; and this they begin to do: and now nothing will be restrained from them, which they have imagined to do. Go to, let us go down, and there confound their language, that they may not understand one another's speech.

According to the Holy Writ, all humankind used to speak only one language at the beginning of the creation. It continued like this until the event known as the Tower of Babel. At that moment, many languages suddenly appeared, confounding the minds of the people who used to live in the same region. As a result, they could not understand their neighbours. They had to find other people who spoke the same language they did, making new communities far away from their old friends. This fact made the humankind spread out the world.

<sup>2</sup>Many linguists try to find vestiges of the most ancient language spoken by humankind. According to some specialists, this language would be Nostratic, considered the first language, from which the majority of languages of the modern world would be derived. (FAIRMAN *et al.*, 1996, p. 170, our translation)

According to Fairman *et al.* (1996, pp. 171-3), after having found the vestiges of that language, linguists had to give it a name. In the sixties, Soviet linguists coined the word Nostratic (which means “our language” in Russian) in reference to a language that was

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<sup>1</sup> The Holy Bible: King James' version. Available at: <http://www.bibliacatolica.com.br/king-james-version/>.

<sup>2</sup> Muitos linguistas tentam encontrar vestígios do idioma mais antigo falado pelo ser humano. Segundo alguns especialistas, esse idioma seria o Nostrático, considerado a língua mãe, do qual derivaria a maioria das línguas do mundo moderno.

spoken by humankind thousands of years ago from which the languages spoken in the world today were originated. Many of these languages have already “died” such as Dalmatian and Cornic. Only a few of the dead languages have disappeared completely. Vestiges of ancient languages can also be found on written texts, characters found on old clay plates or carved on stone. Champollion<sup>3</sup> could reveal the Egyptian hieroglyphics when the Rosetta stone<sup>4</sup> was found. Sumerian cuneiform inscriptions from 3100 B.C.<sup>5</sup> were also deciphered. There are about 30 thousand examples of Sumerian writings. It is possible to know by now how Sumerian numbers were expressed. But the author says that this is not so much for a people who left very beautiful work of art.

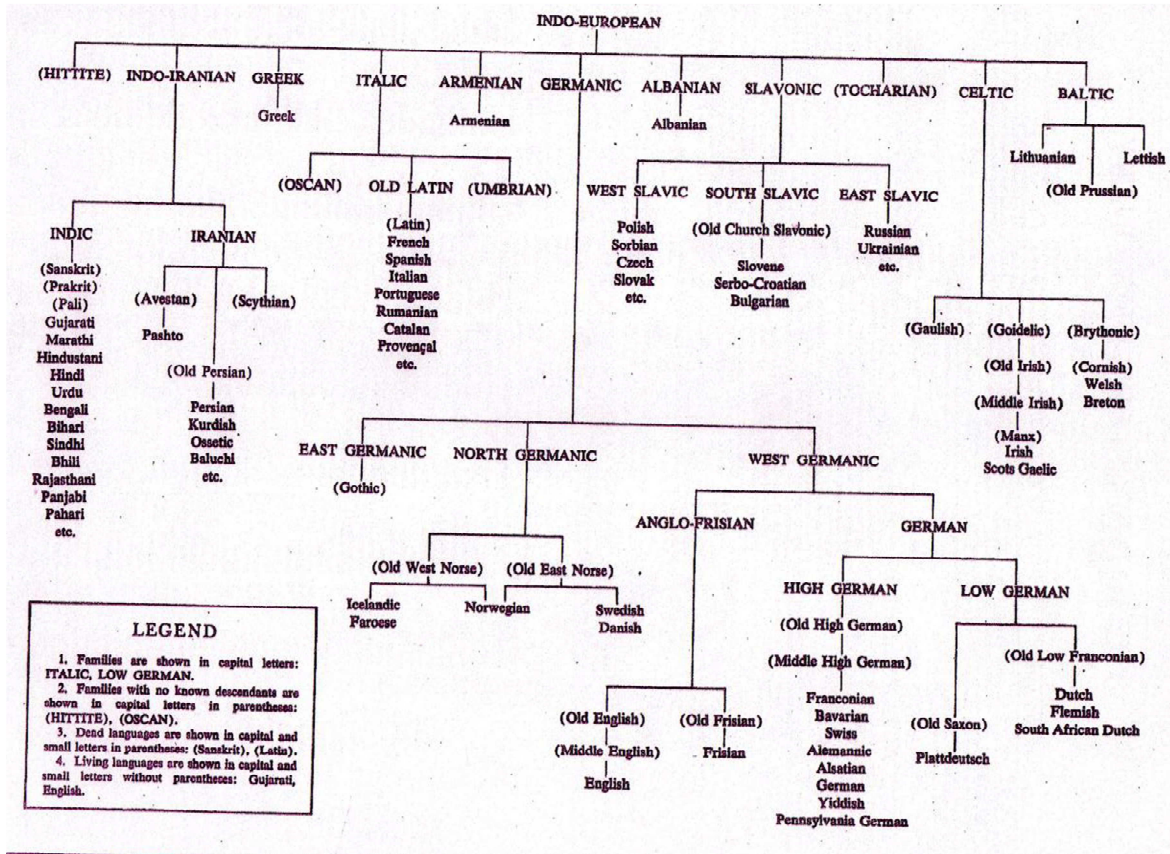
Fairman *et al.* also affirm that analyses of DNA of various ethnic groups maintain the idea that all humankind come from the same genetic lineage. If they spoke the same language, it is right to suppose that all the past and present languages come from that ancient language. In order to clarify this phenomenon of the tower of Babel, linguists created a comparative method that consists in searching in different languages resembling terms, establishing the stem of an old tree and its newest branches (the main languages – dead or alive, and those ones derived from them). From the tree of Nostratic has grown six large branches: African-Asian, Dravidian, Kartvelian, Indo-European, Uralian and Altaic. Most of the languages known today such as English, German, Italian and Portuguese are from the Indo-European branch (see Figure 1). According to Wardhaugh (1993, p. 29), this branch used to be a single language with various dialects and when the speakers of these dialects spread to different parts of the world, their languages split again into other dialects which is now known as the Indo-European family of languages.

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<sup>3</sup> Jean François Champollion (1790-1832) was a French Egyptologist.: SOURCE: Webster’s

<sup>4</sup> Rosetta stone is a stone slab found in 1799 near Rosetta (a town in United Arab Republic) bearing parallel inscriptions in Greek, Egyptian hieroglyphics, and demotic characters, making possible the decipherment of ancient Egyptian hieroglyphics. SOURCE: Webster’s

<sup>5</sup> B.C. means before Christ.



**FIGURE 1: Indo-European Languages. SOURCE: Webster’s**

Linguists were always attracted by the apparently resemblance of the words ‘fist’, ‘finger’ and ‘five’. The reason can also be seen in Dutch and in German. Traces of this same pattern can be found in Slavic languages such as Russian. Sometime in a distant past, presumably, before these languages were separated from the first language, there were a close relation among the words which nominated hand, fingers and the number five.

<b>English</b>	Fist	Finger	Five
<b>Dutch</b>	Vuist	Vinger	Vijf
<b>German</b>	Faust	Finger	Fünf

The comparative method is usual among linguists and it works when studying the development of the so called Romanic languages that came from Latin. There is a classic example to trace the influence performed by Latin on those languages:

Latin	Poeta puellam amat.
French	Le poète aime la jeune fille.
Italian	Il poeta ama la ragazza.
Portuguese	O poeta ama a menina.
Spanish	El poeta ama a la muchacha.
Rumanian	Poetul iube fata.

The synchronisms are evident, even knowing that the word ‘poet’ does not come from Latin, it is of Greek origin. The grammarians use to say that languages are living organisms which are in constant change. It can be easily perceived when one compares in a determined language the way it has been written and/or spoken from the 16<sup>th</sup> century up to now. Many words and idioms that were common at that time are out of date today. New words and idioms are coined every day, whereas others are getting new meanings.

## 2.2 A brief account of how the English language spread around the world

English became a world language due to the migration of its native speakers, mainly in the colonial period in the seventeenth century when the British Empire established colonies all around the world. As it spread, it has mixed with other languages, and has incorporated lots of words. Consequently, it has undergone many changes along the centuries that have contributed to its expansion and its success as a global language, as Crystal (2003) illustrates below:

English has borrowed words from over 350 other languages, and over three-quarters of the English lexicon is actually Classical or Romance in origin. Plainly, the view that to borrow words leads to a language’s decline is absurd, given that English has borrowed more words than most. Languages change their character, as a result of such borrowing, of course, and this too upsets purists, who seem unable to appreciate the expressive gains which come from having the option of choosing between lexical alternatives, as in such ‘triplets’ as (Anglo-Saxon) *kingly*, (French) *royal* and (Latin) *regal*. (CRYSTAL, 2003, p. 23)

With the end of the Roman Empire in the fourth century A.C.<sup>6</sup>, other ten smaller empires<sup>7</sup> came out; one of them was the one which would be called the British Empire. Because of this empire, many changes could be seen in the world among them, the conquest of various countries all over the world, such as the United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. More and more, the English language was spreading throughout the world and conquering important roles in all areas of human knowledge, preferences and needs so that it increased the interest of speakers of other languages.

The immigrants that came to colonise the new lands were from different parts of Britain, and consequently spoke different kinds of English that converged afterwards into the standard norm but kept distinctive characteristics and accents of the different regions where they settled. Strevens (*apud* MACKAY, p. 51) defines Standard English as

A particular dialect of English, being the only non-localized dialect, of global currency without significant variation, universally accepted as the appropriate educational target in teaching English; which may be spoken with an unrestricted choice of accent.

Spoken by a small population until the end of the 16<sup>th</sup> century, the English language started to expand since the British Empire started to conquest new territories. We can come to a conclusion that it is really impressive how a language of a small island could spread throughout the world (see Table 5). According to Bauer (2002, p. 13),

“At the time of Elizabeth I (1533–1603), there were at most seven million native speakers of English. There were very few non-native speakers of English [...] by the time of Elizabeth II (1926–) the number of native speakers of English had increased to some 350 million. If we add non-native speakers to the total, we can double that number”.

Harmer (2008, pp.14-5) and McKay (2002, pp.16-7) pointed out some reasons that made it possible:

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<sup>6</sup> A.C. means After Christ.

<sup>7</sup> The Roman Empire was split up into just ten smaller kingdoms between the years 351 and 476 A. D. The following are their ancient and modern names: 1. Alemanni – Germany. 2. Franks–France. 3. Anglo-Saxons–England. 4. Burgundians – Switzerland. 5. Visigoths –Spain. 6. Suevi –Portugal. 7. Lombards –Italy. 8. Heruli. 9. Vandals. 10. Ostrogoths. SOURCE: Sundaylaw.net.

- A colonial history – the British Empire colonised many territories along the world, some of them turned into great nations;
- Economics – the United States dominates the world economic power;
- Information exchange – English has become an important *lingua franca*, most of academic and internet articles are published in this language;
- Travel – much travel and tourism is available in English, this language is also preferred in air traffic control;
- Popular culture – English has spread around the world through songs and films which are popular all over the world;
- International organisations – about 85 per cent of them make official use of English;
- Publications – English is the language the predominates on most books published in the world;
- Education – significant role of English in higher education in many countries.

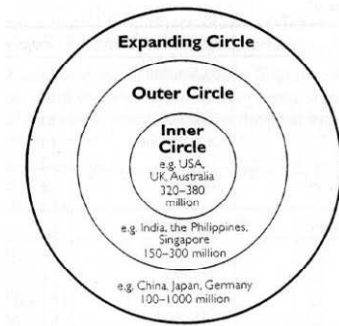
Crystal (2003) points out one very important factor that can contribute to make a language an international one: the power of its people – especially their political and military power. (p. 9).

In 1985, Kachru (*apud* McKAY, 2002, pp.6-10 and HARMER, 2008,17-8) designed three circles (see Figures 2 and 3) to explain the situation of the English language around the world: the **inner circle** represents the countries where English is the primary language such as the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, Australia and so on; the **outer circle** represents the countries where English is the second language such as Singapore, India and Philippines; and the **expanding circle** represents the countries where English is learnt as a foreign language such as Brazil, China, Japan and Korea.

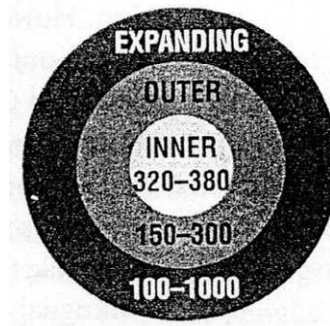
The spread of the English language in the inner circle occurred because of the migration of English speakers around the world; in the outer circle it was due to colonisation by the English-speaking nations; while in the expanding circle, it was a result of foreign language learning within the country. According to Kachru and Nelson (1996, pp.77-8), although other languages are used in the countries of the inner circle, it is English the one that is used in an extensive sense in any public discourse such as media, government, education and creative writing.

In the countries of the outer circle, English has an important role in education, governance, literary creativity, and popular culture. In the Expanding Circle Countries people

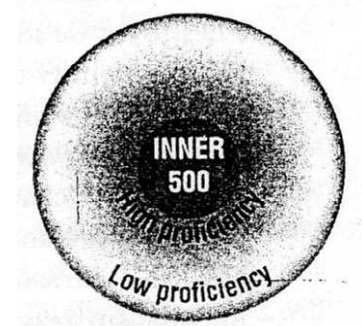
are interested in English for Specific Purposes, due to the globalisation of the English language, Kachru (*apud* Harmer, 2008, p.18) proposed a new circle diagram (see Figure 4) in which speakers' proficiency is more important than their ethnicity. This diagram is composed of two circles: the inner core includes high proficiency English speakers whereas low proficiency English speakers are near the border of the circle – the closer speakers are to the inner core the more proficient they are.



**FIGURE 2: Kachru's categorisations of countries in which English is used.**  
SOURCE: McKay (2002)



**FIGURE 3: Kachru's 1985 circles**  
SOURCE: Harmer (2008)



**FIGURE 4: World English and English proficiency**  
SOURCE: Harmer (2008)

### 2.3 Language and dialect

Most often it is not easy for people to decide if what they speak is a language or a dialect of a language. Wardhaugh (1993, pp. 27-9) shows some examples of communities where one language is shared by two populations and even so they can hardly understand one another. Concerning English, he mentions the speakers of Cockney (a dialect spoken in London) who cannot understand the natives of Ozark Mountains in the United States. The author makes an attempt to define a language. He says that:

A language then would be some unitary system of linguistic communication which subsumes a number of mutually intelligible varieties. It would therefore be bigger than a single dialect or a single variety (*ibid.* p.29).



However, Wardhaugh disagrees with the criterion that affirms that a language is bigger than a dialect for there are languages with a “very small number of speakers, some may have been spoken by a “single remaining speaker”, and for this reason they might have “very little internal variation”, and yet they are called languages because they differ from any other existing system. But is a language bigger than its varieties and dialects as according to the definition above? Is Australian English (or any other ‘kind’ of English) a simple variety or a dialect of English? Is it a language which is different from British or American English?

For the purpose of simplification, Bell (*apud* WARDHAUGH, 1993, pp.30-5) listed seven criteria that may facilitate the discussion of different kinds of languages:

1. Standardisation: The way a language is codified in books, dictionaries, grammars. This way of using a language is the favourite one for the means of communications. It is also the variety learnt by speakers of other languages, it is preferred by people considered educated and it promoted as a norm, a model for the wider and wider segments of society.
2. Vitality: The language might have a living community of speakers to be distinguished from the considered dead languages.
3. Historicity: The speakers might have a sense of identity through using a language which belongs to them. Social, political, religious, or ethnic ties are important for the speakers but not such as the common language that they share.
4. Autonomy: The speakers of a language feel that the language they speak is different from other languages.
5. Reduction: A particular variety may be regarded as a sub-variety of a language.
6. Mixture: The purity or the mixture of a variety according to its speakers’ feelings.
7. *De facto* norms: This refers to the feeling people have of the quality of the speakers as users of a language, i.e. if they are representative of good or bad language usage.

### 3 THE HISTORY, CUSTOMS, AND TRADITIONS OF AUSTRALIA

#### 3.1 An overview of Australia's history<sup>8</sup>

The first European to step on the Australian territory was the Dutch navigator William Jansz who arrived at the north of the great island in 1606 without knowing his discovery. In 1770, Captain James Cook arrived in Botany Bay and proclaimed Australia as an England propriety giving it the name of New South Wales. He realised it would be a good place to send convicts whose first group, composed with 750 prisoners watched by 250 soldiers, was sent by the British government eighteen years later to occupy the new possession. They lived on a concentration camp next to Sydney beaches. Among them, there were a large number of Cockneys and Irish whose majority spoke a criminal slang called **the flash language**. These convicts formed the basis of Sydney population, the biggest Australian city nowadays.

They were preoccupied with the discovery and exploitation of the new land. This first group almost died of starvation, but as soon as the situation improved, they could change their tents for brickwork constructions, and the colony began to prosper. Other groups, following the free settlers, arrived in Australia during the 19<sup>th</sup> century, most of them were Anglo-Celtic. Therefore, they coined new words describing their farming life (see Table 3 - Pastoral Terms). In 1829 and 1830, an Englishman named Charles Sturt tried to found a supposed sea in the south. In 1840, another Englishman, Edward Eyre, discovered the immense, but dried, salty lakes in the desolated south. In 1860 and 1861, an Irishman named Robert O'Hara Burke and an Englishman named William Wills were the first men to cross Australia from the north to the south. Only in 1930 the country could be considered completely exploited.

The discovery of the existence of gold in Australian soil, in 1851, brought riches and prosperity to the British colony, where many farms have been fixed since then. Thousands of gravel washers run to Australia coming from all over the world. The Australian population, which consisted of 400 thousand people in 1850, almost triplicated in 1860 with one million people. In 1868, when the habit of sending English prisoners was interrupted, there were already about 160 thousand forced settlers. The independence occurred in 1901, but the country has continued to make part of the Commonwealth<sup>9</sup>: its troops joined the British Army

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<sup>8</sup> According to Crystal (2002); Richards and Thompson (1997) and Millard and Smith (1992).

<sup>9</sup> A group of 53 countries which has a straight relation with the United Kingdom, most of them were British colonies, the only exceptions are Mozambique and Rwanda. Zimbabwe and Gambia have not belonged to the Commonwealth since 2004 and 2013 respectively.

during the two World Wars of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. In the last decades, the country started to establish more comprising relations with other nations.

### 3.2 Australian customs and traditions<sup>10</sup>

If you decide to visit Australia you might know about their preferences:

Rigg (2009) says that the Australians celebrate Christmas around the swimming pool or on the beach. Santa Claus arrives on a surfboard and Christmas dinner is barbecue or buffet. On Boxing Day<sup>11</sup> there are sports events such as the ‘Sydney to Hobart Yacht Race’ and the ‘Boxing Day Testing Match’ on the Melbourne Cricket Ground. The summer holiday starts at Christmas, a time at which Australians use to relax.

- Australians don’t brush their teeth after eating. They do it only twice a day: when they get up and before going to bed.
- They do not kill spiders, cockroaches and other insects. If they see a spider or any insect, they take it with a sheet of paper and put it outside the house.
- They never provoke women. The ockers will not provoke women in the streets even if she is wearing only a bikini.
- Free parking for three hours. You can do whatever you want: going shopping, having a lunch, taking a walk and after all you can get your car back at the car parking without paying for it.
- Everything closes at 5pm. Shops, chemist’s, cafés close at 5 pm, the only exception is on Thursdays when everything closes at 8pm.
- Children’s party is only for children. The child who is having a birthday’s party and his/her closer friends are the only invited, no adults allowed. There is no beer, chips for parents etc. These parties last two hours, beginning when you leave your child until you come back to fetch him/her. The children have nor soft drinks or sweets, only artificial juices and sandwich loaf.
- Time to start and to finish. Every kind of party generally finishes at 9 or 9:30pm.
- Doors with no lock inside. You only use the key to open the door from the outside. There is a kind of lever used to open or close the door from the inside.

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<sup>10</sup> According to Rigg (2009) and [Dreamsintercambios.com.br](http://Dreamsintercambios.com.br)

<sup>11</sup> 26 of December is the day in which the boxes of Christmas present are opened, that is reason for this date being called ‘Boxing Day’.

- No maid or home services. The cleaning is only to pass a fabric on the furniture, a mop on the ground of the restroom and the kitchen, a mud fabric on the basin and the restroom, making the bed and fix the messy. No hard work.
- Storeys, streets and house numbers. Every neighbourhood re-starts the number when crosses a new street, you can have ten numbers 37 in the same street. The 61<sup>th</sup> flat was supposed to be at the 6<sup>th</sup> floor but it is on the 2<sup>nd</sup>. Only in Sydney there are about 200 streets named West Street.
- Five-minute bath if you live in a shared or homestay. You can have a longer bath if you live alone, but remember: water is rare in Australia.
- Australian wedding. Most of weddings occur in parks, beaches or any other beautiful place outdoor.
- Bare walking is a common thing. Students like to walk wearing socks.
- Gap and Sabbatical Year. When students finish high school, they have a Gap Year before going to college, generally travelling to many countries before coming back to Australia. The Sabbatical Year occurs in every seven years of working, when workers spend a year travelling, starting a project or simply doing nothing. Sometimes this time lasts three months, six months or one year.
- Weekend surcharge. The prices are about 10% higher at the weekends than from Monday to Friday in most of restaurants.

### 3.3 Australian favourite dishes<sup>12</sup>

Australian favourite dishes are: bread with vegemite<sup>13</sup>; fish and chips; roast lamb with vegetables and gravy; sausage roll; meat pie; baked beans sandwich; sticky date pudding and going to Beto's Barbie<sup>TM</sup>, considered by Australians as the best barbecue in the world. Among the things Australians do not like are: avocado milkshake; beans; food without pepper and doing the washing up soaping and rising. There are more curiosities about their preferences related to food, some of them are listed below. Here is a list of a typical Australian food for every meal:

- Breakfast – cereal with cold milk, fruit juice sold in supermarkets, toast with butter and jelly, weak coffee with cold milk in a big cup.

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<sup>12</sup> From the site <http://www.yesaustralia.com>. Accessed on 24 May 2014.

<sup>13</sup> A brown paste made from yeast extract. It is a typical Australian food.

- School snack – sandwich loaf with vegemite, apple, or a fruit, and a “little treat”, i.e., a mini chocolate or a bar of cereal with fruit.
- Adult snack – about midday: sandwiches (specially hamburgers) come first, followed by meat pie and pieces of fried chicken.
- Dinner – “Spaggy Bol” is the children’s favourite dinner. It is some kind of meat and vegetables always with potatoes or mashed potatoes.
- Weekend – fish and chips is the most required, eaten with a lot of ketchup. The youngsters’ favourite weekend dish is *pizza*, there is a strong tradition of barbecue (called *barbie*) at the weekends.

### 3.4 Description of Australian English

Describing a language spoken by millions of people in a big country as Australia is not an easy task since every region has its typical accent and vocabulary characteristics. Besides, Australian English has borrowed many words from the language of the Aborigines, the native inhabitants of Australia, and lots of other new typical Australian words have been incorporated in the official English variety used there, as Crystal says:

At a lexical level, a very different picture presents itself. It has been estimated that there are over 10,000 lexical items of Australian English origin, some of which have become part of World Standard English (e.g. flying doctor, pavlova). Many are to do with the biogeography of the region and associated farming or mining practices. (1987, p. 352)

To talk about the English language spoken in Australia, we must recognise some words which will appear throughout this work: Australians call their country *Oz* and also *Down Under*, referring to the position of their land in the globe. The people are called *Aussie*<sup>14</sup>, men are *Ockers* and women are *Sheilas*. Their accent is called *twang* due to the nasal sound of the vowels, friends are *mates* while beer and barbecue are their favourite “dishes”. They also have their typical Australian food: *vegemite*. Their favourite drink – beer – is described by many different words (see Table 4) according to the region they live. Their language is known as *Strine*, but for the rest of the world it is simply Australian English

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<sup>14</sup> For other “translations” or definitions of Australian idioms, see the Tables 1, 2 and 3.

(henceforth AusE). The capital of Australia, Canberra, means ‘woman’s breasts’ or ‘meeting place’. Australians use to crack jokes about their typical people and accept when these jokes comes from other countries. This is what Richards and Thompson say on AusE:

Australia, or “Oz”, is an Anglophone country and the English spoken there is rich and colourful; Australian English has over 10,000 of its own words and expressions, all delivered in the unmistakable “Aussie” accent. So what’s the story behind this distinctive brand of English? Read on to find out (1997, p.23).

Their exclusive way of speaking makes the typical Australians some of the favourite characters in jokes inside their country and abroad. The spread of some typical Australian idioms was due to this people’s good sense of humour and friendliness as they are seen by other English speakers.

### 3.5 The three main classifications of Australian English official variety

AusE is generally classified in three different varieties. The variety known as ‘**cultivated**’ AusE, used by about 10 per cent of the population, is similar to educated southern British accent (known as RP<sup>15</sup>), maintaining the characteristics of certain vowels and in the intonation of its Australian origin. On the other hand, the ‘**broad**’ **Australian accent**, used by 30 per cent of population, is the strongest and the clearest accent identified as ‘Australian’ in the popular mind abroad. In between, there are many accents often called ‘**general**’ **Australian**, used by the majority of the population. There are also some popular varieties according to places, jobs, social classes, gender, age, and so on (CRYSTAL, 2002, pp.259-60). Cox and Palethorpe (2001) analysed the Australian accent and found the main difference when compared to other varieties of English:

The Australian accent can be differentiated from other forms of English primarily by the pronunciation of the vowel sounds although there are certain distinguishing consonantal modifications and suprasegmental effects. It is for this reason that vowels have been most carefully examined in AusE (p.17).

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<sup>15</sup> RP (Received Pronunciation) is the variety of the English language considered the most elegant way of speaking in British English. It is used by professional workers in radio and television.

Blair and Collins (2001, p. 6) make the following comments on AusE speakers preferences on their language:

Many Australians today — particularly males — retain a penchant for the coarse and irreverent, in some cases perpetuating “flash” expressions originating in early nineteenth century prison contexts (e.g. **stink** (‘uproar’), **bludger** (‘lazy person), **sort out** (‘fight’)). Australians continue to display considerable colloquial creativity, building up large sets of expressions using a single stem: **scared shitless** (‘very scared’), **shit a brick!** (expression of surprise), **up shit creek** (‘in a difficult predicament’), **built like a brick shithouse** (‘strongly built’), **bullshit artist** (‘one who tells lies’), **shit-faced** (‘drunk’).

Some Australian words and idioms are already part of the English vocabulary all over the world. They are present in many different areas of knowledge, as it is shown by Butler (2001) below:

Change in all areas of our lives is reflected in the vocabulary we use: **bootscoot** (dancing), **indie music** (music), **blood bin** (sport), **greenfield** (environment), **cyberspace** (computers), **caller ID** (communications), **Higgs particle** (science), **biopanic** (health), **home invasion** (crime), **lats** (exercise), **bokchoy** (food), **dreadlocks** (hair), **nose ring** (fashion) and **arcade game** (computer games) are all items added to the Macquarie Dictionary between the second (1991) and third (1997) editions (p.154).

AusE is known all over the English language world by its strong accent which makes the Australians proud of it, rejecting the idea of using a more conservative style, as Crystal affirms:

The picture has been complicated by a generation of Australian comedians who exaggerate and satirize the accent, and whose work has become universally known through the medium of television. (2002, p.260)

Australian accent is considered funny even by Australians, and they do not feel ashamed of speaking like that; they turn what would be offensive into a matter of having fun. Australian comedians make their broad accent stronger than it really is in fact to make their fellow countrymen and women laugh of their own way of speaking.

### 3.6 Australian English specific vocabulary, idioms and pronunciation features

Australian English is a mixture of British and American varieties, but its exclusive vocabulary<sup>16</sup> is much larger than the vocabulary used in Canadian English. Some colloquialisms may sound unfamiliar to other English speakers, but the grammar rules do not differ largely as Crystal affirms:

There are no clear examples of distinctive regional usage in Australian English grammar – though there are hints of Irish influence in some colloquial forms (about 30 per cent of the population were of Irish origin by 1890. Examples include *youse* (“you”), *mustn’t* (can’t), adverbial *but*, some idioms (*Good on you*), word final *-o(h)*, as in *smoko* (break), and the generally vivid rhetorical speech style. (CRYSTAL, 1987, p. 352)

Nowadays Australian English is closer to American English (AmE) than to British English (BrE) as Butler (2001, p. 154) points out, this influence is very clear when we see some examples from AmE used by Australians: **schmooze**, **schlep**, **smick**, **d’oh**, **dreck**, **high five**, **himbo**, **push polling**, **wannabe** and **zine**, on the other hand, we can see just some examples of BrE introduced in AusE: **gobsmacked**, **mad cow disease** and **spice girl**. Ramson (*apud* BUTLER, 2001, p. 154) also says that the word ‘**bush**’ which is thought to quintessentially Australian was borrowed from AmE via the goldfields but its origin is actually Dutch.

Australians tend to speak naturally both BrE and AmE accents in words like momentarily and momentarily, cigarette and cigarette and also magazine and magazine. (op. cit. p. 160) Many people who have not experienced the Australian system may misunderstand some words.

In Australia, /I/ has been raised and fronted so that it now appears to the front of /i/, and **sit** can easily be mistaken for **seat** by speakers of other varieties of English who have not had experience with the Australian system. (KACHRU, B; KACHRU, Y and NELSON, L, 2006, p.78)

There is a curious lexical mixture in Australia seemingly as it is found in Canada, we can see American words such as **truck** (BrE **lorry**), **elevator** (BrE **lift**), **freeway** (BrE

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<sup>16</sup> A Glossary with many Australian words and their definitions is at the end of this work



**motorway**), **sedan** (BrE **saloon**), **station wagon** (BrE **estate car**) and **high school** (BrE **secondary school**), and alongside we can also see British terms such as **petrol** (AmE **gas**), **boot** (AmE **trunk**), **tap** (AmE **faucet**), **class** (AmE **grade**), and **cinema** (AmE **movies**) (CRYSTAL, 2002). They accept ‘**colour**’ and ‘**color**’, in spite of two thirds of their newspapers use the ‘**color**’ spelling, Australians almost universally write ‘**colour**’. They do not accept ‘**center**’, they insist to spell it as ‘**centre**’ (BUTLER, 2001, p.160). We can list some more examples such as:

- “Holiday” is used as in the UK to describe a time away from normal activities or a recreational travel.
- “Fall” is not used as another word for “Autumn”.
- “Overseas” is used as “abroad”, sometimes it is used only “OS”.
- Prepositions are used before days, as “on Thursday” and the British form “Monday to Friday”.
- “River” follows the name of the river, as in “Darling River”, however in South Australia is used the opposite, as in “River Murray”.
- The suffix “-re” is preferred rather than “-er”, as in “centre”, “theatre” and “manoeuvre”. The same occurs with the suffix “-ise” in words like “organise” and “realise”.
- American spellings as “program”, “inquire”, “analog”, “livable”, “gerilla”, “sulfur”, “burqa”, and “pastie” are more and more accepted by Australians.
- Dates follow the British pattern: “day-month-year” with Monday as the first day of the week.

### 3.7 Syntactic features

Newbrook (2001, pp.116-30) listed some features that may be interesting to those who are curious about AusE.

Disputed usage:

- ‘Usedn’t to’ instead of ‘didn’t use to’

Ex.: She **usedn’t** to do it.

- ‘Different to’

<b>AusE</b>	Cricket is different <b>to</b> baseball.
<b>BrE</b>	Cricket is different <b>from</b> baseball.
<b>AmE</b>	Cricket is different <b>than</b> baseball.

- ‘Less’ instead of ‘fewer’

Ex.1: We have **less** students this year.

Ex.2: **Less** than four weeks later this actually happened.

Specifically Australian usage:

- Concord with sports team names

<b>AusE</b>	North Melbourne <b>is/are</b> playing well.
<b>BrE</b>	North Melbourne <b>are</b> playing well.
<b>AmE</b>	North Melbourne <b>is</b> playing well.

- Possessive pronouns with ‘same’

Ex.: Can I keep my **same** phone number?

- Backshifting (sequence of tenses)

Ex.1: Kim said she **has** a bad cold. (instead of ‘Kim said **she had** a bad cold’);

Ex.2: If that **didn’t happen**, I would have been surprised. (instead of ‘If **that hadn’t happened**, I would have been surprised’);

Ex.3: (If he’d missed that kick,) **they may not** have won. (instead of ‘(If he’d missed that kick,) **they might not** have won’).

- Special use of the superlative with since

Ex.: His score of 200 was his highest **since** he made 250 in 1995.

- Relative clause punctuation

Ex.1: Joanne and Marie who had finished left the hall. (without comma);

Ex.2: Any students, who have finished, may leave the hall. (two commas).

Usage shared with AmE but not with (conservative) BrE:

- Epistemic 'have (got) to'  
Ex.: Martina has (got) to be home by midnight!
- 'Would (have)' in the protases of remote conditionals  
Ex.1: If they **would do** that it would be better. (instead of 'If they **did** that it would have been better.');
- Ex.2: If they **would have done** that it would have been better. (instead of 'If they **had done** that it would have been better.')

Usage shared with standard varieties other than British or AmE:

- Epistemic mustn't

<b>AusE</b>	She <b>mustn't</b> be at home; the light's off.
<b>Southern English</b>	She <b>can't</b> be at home; the light's off.
<b>AmE</b>	She <b>must not</b> be at home; the light's off.

- Sentence initial 'as well'  
Ex.: **As well**(,) there are three other cases of this.
- 'Will' in offers, suggestions etc.  
Ex.: **Will** I close the door?

Other interesting syntactic features of AusE:

- The non-use of the definite or, more usually, the indefinite article  
Ex.: He's very good batsman.
- The inflected comparison/superlativisation of polysyllabic adjectives, including participial adjectives  
Ex.1: She's a much **confidenter** shooter these days.  
Ex.2: He's the **winningest** coach in the league.

- The use of genitives with relative ‘that’, as in some American usage  
Ex.: This is the girl **that’s** book I borrowed.

### 3.8 Some typical local Australian features

Formality and pompousness are disliked by the Australians, therefore they abbreviate words using –o or –ie/-y as we can see some examples in these tables:

#### Abbreviations with –o

arvo – afternoon	reffo – referee
compo – compensation	reggo – car registration
garbo – dustman (BrE), garbage man (AmE)	smok-o – break
muso - musician	thingo – thingy, whatsit

#### Abbreviations with –ie or –y

barbie – barbecue	lippie - lipstick
biggie – big one	mozzie – mosquito
bikkies – biscuits	mushies – mushrooms
blankie – blanket	pollie – politician
breakky – breakfast	postie – postman (BrE), mailman (AmE)
Brizzie – Brisbane	prezzie – present (BrE), gift (AmE)
chalkie – teacher	pushies – pushbikes
chocky – chocolate	rellies – relations (BrE), relatives (AmE)
Chrissie – Christmas	sickie – sick leave
cozzy – swimming costume	sunnies – sunglasses
eleckie – electric	Tazzie – Tasmania

### 3.9 Aboriginal language and its uses in Australian English

When the Englishmen came to Australia in 1770, they called the native population ‘Aborigines’ because they believed that people had been there since the origin of times. Even nowadays hundreds of millions of Aborigines still try to survive according to their forefathers’ habits: they hunt to survive using lances and boomerangs; their food also consists of plants and insects. Their language has almost disappeared but there are people who still fight for its preservation because it represents the traditions and identity of this neglected people. This is what Crystal (1987) says on the Aborigines’ language:

At the time of European settlement, the Aborigines were nomadic, and contact was occasional; as a result, hardly any native words came into English, apart from some plant and animal names (e.g. dingo, koala, kookaburra, wallaby). Among the exceptions are boomerang, corroboree (a ceremonial dance), and cooee (a loud call to attract attention), along with within cooee (“within earshot”). (p. 352)

**Aboriginal Australian English (AAusE):** Since the first English-speaking settlers landed in Australia, the native population started to contact them resulting this ‘way’ of speaking which is very close to AusE in many aspects except in structure and in norms for use. In spite of few words have come from the Aborigines, there are many place names in their language, some of them are repetitive like *Wagga Wagga* or *Goonoo Goonoo*, others are long names such as *Merimbula* or *Murrumbidgee*. Many Aboriginal words are known all over the world, for instance: *boomerang*, *billabong*, *dingo*, *kangaroo*, *koala*, *kookaburra*, *wallaby* and *wombat*.

#### 4 FINAL REMARKS

This research paper was an attempt to meet our curiosity about Australian English since in South America we have more contact with British and American English varieties. We thus provided some characteristics of Australia, its history, people, language, habits and behaviour, but we focused mainly on Australian English vocabulary.

We all know that languages have drawn the attention of humankind for a long time and people have always been interested in not only learning a language but also in discovering how it has evolved into the way they are used today.

English began as a language used by the population of Britain, a small island in Europe, and when the British islanders migrated to expand their empire it turned the most spoken language in the world.

Australia is seen as a giant island ‘lost’ at the deepest part of the globe, the reason why its inhabitants call it Down Under. It was one of the British colonies that ‘adopted’ English as its official language. The country was initially dwelt by prisoners, and then, by ‘free settlers’, although its native people – the Aborigines, still fight to keep their traditions and customs alive in the Australian culture.

Some words and idioms once used only by the Australians are now present in other English language varieties. Most of Australian typical vocabulary continues being exclusively theirs. Their accent is strong and much different from other varieties of English. Few Aboriginal words were incorporated into Australian English, most of them are terms related to the rural routine.

We conclude by saying that Australia was firstly exploited to be a place for convicts and, after some time, it was dwelt by ‘free settlers’ who left their contribution to the economic and constitutional growth of the country. Therefore, Australians have an interesting history to be told and their culture, traditions and language, which have been influenced by the Aboriginal and European ancestry, have raised the interests of many visitors and researchers around the world.

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## GLOSSARY

- Amber fluid:** beer
- Ambo:** ambulance, ambulance driver
- Ankle biters:** children
- Aussie:** Australian (people)
- Avos:** avocados
- Award rate:** minimum rate of pay
- Backblocks:** remote country
- Bathers:** swimming costume
- Beaut:** great, fantastic
- Billy:** metal container used to boil water over campfire
- Bizzo:** business
- Bludger:** lazy person
- Bottle-oh:** the bottle shop
- Bouncing beef:** kangaroo
- Brumby:** wild horse
- Buck's party:** stag party
- Bugs:** small pieces of seafood
- Bunyip:** mythical outback creature
- Bush tucker:** any edible plant or animal found in the wild
- Bush:** the countryside
- Bushwhacker:** country person
- BYOG:** Bring Your Own Grog
- Cactus:** dead
- Cat's piss:** mean, stingy
- Chewie:** chewing gum
- Cook (n):** one's wife
- Chook:** chicken
- Coldie:** a beer
- Billabong:** an oxbow lake cut off by a change in the watercourse
- Chunder:** vomit
- Cobber:** friend
- Cocky:** small farmer, cattleman
- Come a gutser:** fail (a match)
- Come good:** turn out right in the end
- Come the raw prawn:** play the innocent
- Corroboree:** an Aborigine party
- Crook:** ill, unwell, irritable
- Dag:** unfashionable person, or dried faeces matted into the hair around the sheep's bottom (Eng. "chinker" or "dangleberry")
- Daks:** trousers
- Damper:** bread cooked in ashes of campfire
- Date:** arse[hole]
- Deadset:** true, the truth
- Dero:** tramp, hobo, a homeless person
- Dickhead:** idiot
- Didgeridoo:** long pipe which is the Aborigine musical instrument
- Digger:** an Australian soldier
- Dill:** idiot
- Dipstick:** loser, idiot
- Dingo:** the Australian wild dog
- Dob in:** to inform against someone
- Dogger:** dingo hunter
- Dinkum, Fair dinkum:** True, real, genuine
- Dinky-di:** The real thing, genuine
- Dole bludger:** someone who obtains social security fraudulently
- Doona:** duvet, quilt for the bed

**Drover:** man who takes the cattle over long distances

**Dunny:** outside toilet

**Durry:** tobacco, cigarette

**Esky:** portable refrigerator

**Feature:** sexual intercourse

**Feed:** dinner

**Flake:** shark meat

**Floater:** meat pie soup

**Doco:** documentary

**Dog:** unattractive woman

**Donger:** penis

**Doodle:** penis

**Drongo:** fool, idiot

**Dux:** top of the class

**Exy:** expensive

**Fair go:** chance

**Feral (n):** a hippie

**Footpath:** pavement

**Franger:** condom

**Freckle:** anus

**Frock:** dress

**Frostie:** cold beer

**Galah:** parrot, idiot

**Goog:** egg

**Greenie:** environmentalist

**Grog:** beer, drink

**Grouse:** great, terrific, very good

**Gyno:** gynaecologist

**Have a rage:** have a very good time

**Hoon:** procurer of prostitutes

**Hooroo:** goodbye

**Hottie:** hot water bottle

**Ice pole, Ice block:** ice lolly, popsicle

**Jumbuck:** sheep

**King wave:** huge irregular wave

**Knock:** criticise

**Lamb's fry:** lamb's liver

**Larrikin:** Hooligan

**Limingtons:** small squares of sponge cake covered in chocolate and coconut

**Lolly, lollies:** sweets

**Mateship:** friendship

**Milko:** milkman

**Mob:** flock of sheep

**Moolah:** money

**Muster:** round-up of livestock

**Never-never:** remote outback

**Nong:** idiot

**Ocker:** Australian male

**Off one's face:** drunk

**Outback:** remote countryside

**Overlander:** man who takes the cattle over long distances

**Oz:** Australia

**Park:** parking place

**Pash:** a long passionate kiss

**Pass in your cheque:** to die

**Pavlova:** dessert made with meringue and filled with whipped cream and fruit

**Pint:** large glass of beer

**Play possum:** pretend to be dead

**Plonk:** cheap wine

**Pom:** Englishman (pejorative)

**Poofteh:** homosexual

**Port:** suitcase

**Premier:** head of an Australian state

**G'day (good day):** hello

**Lay-by:** hire purchase

**No worries!** Don't worry!, No problem

**Not a problem!** Never mind!

**Paddock:** field of any size

**Ripper:** excellent

**Road train:** truck with one or more trailers for transporting livestock long distances across the outback

**Roo-bar:** metal bars on the front of a car to protect the car against damage if it crashes into a kangaroo

**Root:** sexual intercourse

**Rort:** a confidence trick to cheat someone out of money

**Rouseabouts:** general farm workers

**Rugged up:** dressed warmly against the cold

**Sea wasp:** dangerous jelly fish

**She'll be apples:** Everything is under control, Everything will be OK

**Sheila:** girl, woman

**Singlet:** vest

**Slack:** lazy

**Squatter:** person who occupied and then fenced open land

**Station:** large sheep or cattle farm

**Sticky beak:** an inquisitive person, a nosy parker, a gossip

**Stinger:** very dangerous jelly fish

**Strine:** Australian (language)

**Stockmen:** general farm workers

**Strides:** trousers

**Stubby:** small bottle of beer

**Sunbake:** sunbathe

**Sundowner:** Happy Hour (the early-evening hour in a bar or pub when drinks are sold at a reduced price)

**Swag:** bundle of personal belongings

**Tea:** not only the drink, also the evening meal

**There you go:** here you are

**Thongs:** plastic sandals with a strap between the toes

**Togs:** swimming costume

**Tube:** tin of beer

**Tucker:** food

**Underground mutton:** rabbit

**Vegetite:** a brown paste made from yeast extract

**Whaddaya...?:** What would you like to...?

**Whacker, Wacka:** idiot

**Washer:** face-cloth

**Weekender:** holiday cottage

**Whinge:** complain

**Willy-willy:** cyclone

**Winery:** vineyard

**Wombat:** someone who eats, roots and leaves

**Woolgrower:** sheep farmer

**Wowser:** spoilsport

**Yack:** talk

Table 1. The 12 least contentious traditional Australian colloquialisms

EXPRESSION	ACCEPTABLE DEFINITIONS (Underlined sections only)
This is a <u>bonzer</u> little joint	excellent, attractive, pleasing
He's got <u>Buckley's chance</u> of getting it	a very slim chance; a forlorn hope; no chance
He gave me <u>an ear bashing</u> all night	an incessant and long talk; a haranguing
Come on, <u>spill your guts</u>	divulge, disclose, reveal all you know; tell all
He was as <u>happy as Larry</u>	completely or extremely happy
He's about to <u>shoot through</u>	leave; leave in a hurry
He took a <u>sickie</u> yesterday	a day's sick leave, taken whether one is sick or not
She's very new to <u>the big smoke</u>	the city
Is it time for <u>smoko</u> yet?	a break from work for morning/afternoon tea and/or a cigarette
We're having <u>snags</u> for tea	sausages
<u>Too right</u> I did!	absolutely, certainly (an expression of emphatic agreement)
It was really <u>hard yakka</u>	difficult and/or tiring work

SOURCE: Blair and Collins (2001, p. 261)

Table 2. The 13 least contentious modern colloquialisms

EXPRESSION	ACCEPTABLE DEFINITION (Underlined section only)
He <u>went ballistic!</u>	became very agitated or angry
It was <u>ace!</u>	excellent; first in quality
That lecture was really <u>full on!</u>	performed without reserve or restraint; carried out to the utmost
All he wants to do is <u>get laid</u>	have sexual intercourse
Yeah, I <u>get the picture</u>	understand; comprehend the situation or circumstances
I'm <u>out of here</u>	leaving immediately
You paid \$100.00? You were <u>screwed!</u>	taken advantage of; swindled
Don't <u>talk shit!</u>	speaking nonsense; telling lies; exaggerate, bluff, boast; talk in a negative way
Last Saturday he got <u>smashed</u>	drunk; stoned
Jeez, you're really <u>up shit creek</u> , aren't you?	in trouble; in difficulties; in dire straits
I just want to go home and <u>veg out</u>	relax into a passive and accepting frame of mind, especially by watching television
What a <u>spunk!</u>	very attractive person; sexually attractive person
Jeez, you're a <u>couch potato!</u>	dull or inactive person, especially one who spends a lot of time watching television

SOURCE: Blair and Collins (2001, p. 262)

*Table 3. Lexical items in Australian English*


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SECTION I — COLONIAL PERIOD

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*CONVICT TERMS*

traps	police (those who trap offenders)
plant	a cache of stores or goods (from thieves slang)
new chum	a newly arrived convict; later, an immigrant to the colony
ticket of leave	a document giving a convict permission to travel within a certain district

*PASTORAL TERMS*

bloke	the manager of the station; later, any man
bush	uncultivated land outside city limits
scrub	bush covered with light vegetation
squatter	someone who claims land by right of occupation
cocky farmer	a farmer with a small holding (from the idea that he scratches for a living in the soil just like the cockatoo)
mate	a partner in getting a living in the bush, especially on the goldfields
cove	the station manager; later any man

*ABORIGINAL  
BORROWINGS*

brilga	a crane of northern Australia
jarrah	a West Australian tree
kangaroo	the well-known marsupial species
mallee	a kind of acacia with strong roots and hard wood
kookaburra	the kingfisher-type species of bird
wombat	the burrowing animal
budgerigar	the small brightly-coloured bird

*GOLDFIELDS TERMS*

digger	a miner
mullock heap	a heap of soil left over from a gold mine operation, possibly containing small pieces of gold
billy	the tin in which water is boiled and tea is made
hatter	an eccentric miner or bushman
Joe	a policeman (from the name of the Governor at the time, Joseph La Trobe)
shepherd	to keep a claim under close surveillance so that no one else takes possession in the miner's absence

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SOURCE: Blair and Collins (2001, p. 152)

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 SECTION II — MODERN
 

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*1890s TO 1914*

bush ballad	a ballad which has a bush setting
back o' beyond	a long way away
beyond the black stump	a long way away
shickered	drunk
bludger	a person who lives off others
bottle-oh	a person who collects bottles from houses
rabbit-oh	a street vendor who sells rabbit meat
lurk	a scheme or trick

*WORLD WAR I*

bonzer	very good
cobber	a friend or mate
furphy	a rumour, false report
brass razoo	an insignificant amount of money

*THE DEPRESSION*

sleep-out	an improvised place to sleep on a veranda
susso	sustenance payments (the dole)

*WORLD WAR II*

emu parade	an assembly for picking up litter
gigglesuit	soldier's uniform for fatigue duty
milk run	a routine trip
Lady Blamey	a beer glass
tropo	mentally disturbed
galah	a fool
spine-bash	to relax or rest

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SOURCE: Blair and Collins (2001, p. 153)

Table 4. Beer glasses

Names of beer glasses in various Australian cities <sup>[n 1][n 2][n 3]</sup>								
Capacity <sup>[n 4]</sup>	Sydney	Canberra	Darwin	Brisbane	Adelaide	Hobart	Melbourne	Perth
115 ml (4 fl oz)	–	–	–	–	–	<i>small beer</i>	–	<i>shetland</i>
140 ml (5 fl oz)	<i>pony</i>	–	–	<i>pony</i>	<i>pony</i>	–	<i>horse/pony</i>	<i>pony</i>
170 ml (6 fl oz)	–	–	–	–	–	<i>six (ounce)</i>	<i>small glass</i>	<i>bobbie/six</i>
200 ml (7 fl oz)	<i>seven</i>	–	<b>seven</b>	<i>seven (ounce)</i>	<b>butcher</b>	<i>seven (ounce)</i>	<b>glass</b>	<i>glass</i>
285 ml (10 fl oz)	<b>middy</b>	<b>half pint / middy</b>	<b>handle</b>	<b>pot</b> <sup>[n 5]</sup>	<b>schooner</b> <sup>[n 6]</sup>	<b>ten (ounce)/pot</b>	<b>pot</b>	<b>middy/half pint</b>
350 ml (12 fl oz)	<i>schmiddy</i> <sup>[n 7]</sup> ‡	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
425 ml (15 fl oz)	<b>schooner</b>	<b>schooner</b>	<b>schooner</b>	<b>schooner</b>	<b>pint</b> <sup>[n 6]</sup>	<i>fifteen / schooner</i>	<b>schooner</b> <sup>[n 8]</sup>	<b>schooner</b> <sup>[n 8]</sup>
570 ml (20 fl oz)	<b>pint</b>	<b>pint</b>	<b>pint</b>	<b>pint</b>	<b>imperial pint</b> <sup>[n 6]</sup>	<b>pint</b>	<b>pint</b>	<b>pint</b>

**Notes:**

- ^ Entries in **bold** are common.
- ^ Entries in *italics* are old-fashioned and/or rare.
- ^ Entries marked with a dash are not applicable.
- ^ The "fl oz" referred to here is the imperial fluid ounce.
- ^ "Pot" is also known as Pot glass
- ^ <sup>a b c</sup> Confusingly for visitors, South Australians use the same names for different volumes than in the other States.
- ^ A modern glass size, mainly used with European beers. While the glass may be 350ml, a 330ml or 300ml fill line is common.  
With the increasing popularity of European beers, glasses of size 250ml and 500ml are also becoming more prevalent, but as yet don't seem to have acquired "names".
- ^ <sup>a b</sup> Traditionally, 425 ml is a size not found in Western Australia and Victoria.

**References:**

1. [The Aussie Beer Baron](#)
2. [Buying Beer in Australia](#)
3. [Guidelines at a glance](#)
4. [Ordering Beer](#)
5. [Liquor Merchants Association of Australia](#)
6. [Which Size Beer Do Ya Want, Mate?](#)

SOURCE: [wikipedia.org/wiki/Australian\\_English\\_Vocabulary](http://wikipedia.org/wiki/Australian_English_Vocabulary)

<b>Date</b>	<b>Britain</b>	<b>North America</b>	<b>Africa</b>	<b>Australasia</b>
c. 550	English in Lowland Scotland			
1066	Norman invasion of England; some English flee to Scotland			
1169	Norman settlement in south-east Ireland			
1172	The English king becomes Lord of Ireland			
1301	First Prince of Wales			
1497		Cabot reaches Newfoundland		
1536 1542	Act of Union with Wales			
1553			Trade with West Africa	
1584		Roanoke settlement		
1607	Plantations of Ulster	Jamestown settlement		
1611	King James version of the Bible published			
1620		Plymouth Settlement		
1642				Tasman discovers Tasmania and New Zealand

It continues



**Table 5 - The expansion of English – continuation**

1650	Cromwellian settlements in Ireland			
1707	Act of Union with Scotland			
1745	Highland Clearances			
1763		Canada ceded to the British		
1769				Cook circumnavigates New Zealand
1770				Cook claims east Australia for the Crown
1776		Declaration of Independence		
1788			Period of colonisation of West Africa	Botany Bay settlement
1795			Occupation of the Cape Colony	
1800	Act of Union with Ireland			
1840				Treaty of Waitangi: settlement of New Zealand
1845	Potato famine			

SOURCE: Bauer (2002, pp. 17-8)