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Supporting school improvement and quality teaching

Our Learners First Strategy strengthens the quality of teaching and learning opportunities for all students in our system. In order to work effectively, well-developed teaching and learning programs need to be implemented in every school, supported by strong, instructional leadership.

We know that it is good teaching that makes the difference to our students. The rich resources that are provided in the Good Teaching series are successfully supporting teachers and school leaders to continue to build both collaborative practice and a whole school approach to school improvement K–12.

Building on the Good Teaching series and aligned to the Supporting Literacy and Numeracy Success booklet, a set of literacy and numeracy resources has been developed to give teachers in the early years through to Year 12 more support and confidence when planning for students’ literacy and numeracy needs across the curriculum. This particular resource focuses specifically on teaching literacy in Years 3–6.

Supporting professional learning

Our Learners First Strategy aims to develop successful, skilled and innovative Tasmanians. Its values include learning and excellence so that Tasmanians are engaged in positive, productive and supported learning experiences, and have high expectations and a strong commitment to the pursuit of excellence.

As with the other Good Teaching resources, this resource will be accompanied by a professional learning program through the Professional Learning Institute (PLI) available to all schools.

It forms part of the Good Teaching series of resources that also includes:

- **Good Teaching: A Guide for Staff Discussion**
  The purpose of this guide is to raise the debate across schools to gain a common understanding of what makes a good teacher. It is the foundation of the Good Teaching series.
  

- **Good Teaching: Differentiated Classroom Practice – Learning for All**
  It is recognised that some students require significant adjustments to their learning programs if they are to be optimally engaged and challenged. The process of making those adjustments is known as the differentiation of classroom learning. Differentiation is what is expected of good teachers. The focus of this resource is to describe what is meant by differentiation and to provide practical strategies and tools that can be used to create meaningful and engaging learning experiences for all students.
  
Good Teaching: Curriculum Mapping and Planning – Planning for Learning

Curriculum mapping and planning is a way of developing a systematic overview of what students need to learn. It provides an opportunity to evaluate current practice and fosters communication among teachers at all levels and across a range of subjects. This resource describes processes that schools and individual teachers can use to move from curriculum frameworks to classroom action. It provides guidance for planning directly from curriculum documents. Specific examples are provided for Australian Curriculum: English and Mathematics.


Good Teaching: Quality Assessment Practices – Guiding Learning

This resource supports schools in their school improvement agenda by describing processes that will guide leaders and teachers in the use of quality assessment practices. It supports schools in the choice of evidence-based strategies to meet the learning needs of all students. When used in conjunction with differentiated classroom practice, it supports teachers to adjust strategies to meet individual needs.


Good Teaching: Inclusive Schools – Disability Focus

This resource addresses key strategies in inclusive education through:

• improved teaching quality and support
• a robust national curriculum
• better support for students
• improved parent and community information and participation.


Good Teaching: Inclusive Teaching for Students with Disability

This resource follows on from the Good Teaching: Inclusive Schools – Disability Focus resource and has been developed for teachers who have not previously worked with students with disability.

It is a practical resource to develop teachers’ skills and confidence in this area and outlines the different areas of support available across the school and the Department in working with students with disability and their families.

Practical examples are provided using the following identifiers:

- Template
- Good Practice
- Video
- Tool
- Resources
- Conversation Starters

How the content is organised:

The booklet is divided into colour-coded sections. Each section begins with key messages for Years 3–6 educators followed by conversation starters to initiate rich discussion in staff meetings or professional learning communities.

In each of the sections within the ‘Literacy Key Elements’ there is a focus on specific links to the general capability of literacy and the relevant content descriptors and achievement standards of the Australian Curriculum: English to support classroom teachers in knowing the key teaching focuses at their year level.

The content descriptors describe what needs to be taught and the achievement standards highlight the quality of learning students should demonstrate by a particular year in their schooling. These sections also provide very practical ideas for teachers and ways to monitor and assess student learning in literacy.

At the back of the booklet there are references and recommended resources (including assessment tools) to provide additional support to teachers and school leaders for a more thorough appreciation of the key messages.

This resource should also be used in conjunction with:


NAPLAN Toolkit

The NAPLAN Toolkit supports teachers with strategies for teaching key concepts in literacy and numeracy. http://naplan.education.tas.gov.au
The literacy general capability in the Australian Curriculum sees literacy as involving students in listening to, reading, viewing, speaking, writing and creating oral, print, visual and digital texts, and using and modifying language for different purposes in a range of contexts. It cites the Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians (MCEETYA 2008) as recognising literacy as an essential skill for students in becoming successful learners and as a foundation for success in all learning areas. The Australian Curriculum supports the deepening of knowledge, understanding and skills in all learning areas. It highlights the importance of all students being able to interpret and use language confidently for learning and communicating.

Literacy across the years of schooling

Students become literate as they develop the knowledge, skills and dispositions to interpret and use language purposefully across their years of schooling K–12, across all learning areas and in their daily lives. Students develop their knowledge, skills and confidence with literacy as they connect and apply their understanding of language to contexts within and beyond the classroom.

In the early years K–2, literacy is developed through play and through informal yet intentional teaching in social contexts. Respectful relationships between schools and families are critical in the early years; the best literacy outcomes are likely to be achieved when teachers work in partnership with their students, parents, carers and the community and share responsibility for learning.

Literacy is given particular priority in the Australian Curriculum across Years 3–6 as students will depend on that knowledge and skill to be successful learners at secondary level. The curriculum further builds on the essential knowledge and skills in literacy acquired in the first years of school, consolidating students’ skills in ‘learning to read and write’ through English, and increasingly using those skills for ‘reading and writing to learn’ in other learning areas.
The English curriculum for Years 3–6 provides opportunities for students to develop deeper understanding of grammar and language, and the capacity to articulate this knowledge. Students are introduced to more complex punctuation, sentence structures and texts; the skills for classifying word, sentence and text structure; and the meta-language to communicate these ideas. Students engage with different forms (narrative, prose, plays and film) of written and spoken language and develop their skills for text creation for different audiences and purposes.

Adapted from http://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/overview/3–6

In the 7–10 years, literacy is the key driver of learning across all Australian Curriculum areas. Students listen to, read and view, navigate, speak, write and create a range of increasingly sophisticated spoken, written and multimodal texts across different learning areas. They use language for increasingly specialised purposes and audiences in a range of contexts. In doing so, students become confident communicators, critical thinkers, and informed young people who understand the world around them.

Literacy across the curriculum

A commitment to literacy development is an essential focus for learning areas across the curriculum and a responsibility for all teachers.

Students become literate as they engage with literacy opportunities and experiences across the Australian Curriculum. Literate practices develop when students understand how the English language works and have the dispositions and capacities to use language purposefully to express and develop ideas, interact with others, and interpret and create texts in their various forms. It is through the teaching of the three strands of the English learning area that students learn about: how language works (Language strand); responding to, examining and creating literature (Literature strand); and interacting with others, comprehending and composing texts (Literacy strand).

Examples of becoming literate in learning across the curriculum can be found on the Australian Curriculum website. The following extract can be accessed from: http://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/generalcapabilities/overview/general-capabilities-in-the-learning-areas

In English students develop literacy in a manner that is more explicit and foregrounded than is the case in other learning areas. Students learn literacy knowledge and skills as they engage with the Language, Literature and Literacy strands of the English curriculum. They apply their literacy capability in English when they interpret and create spoken, print, visual and multimodal texts for a range of purposes.

In Mathematics students develop literacy capability as they learn the vocabulary associated with number, space, measurement and mathematical concepts and processes. They develop the ability to create and interpret texts such as calendars, maps and complex data displays. Students use literacy to understand and interpret word problems and instructions, pose and answer questions, to problem solve, and to explain solutions.

In Science students develop their literacy capability as they comprehend and compose texts that provide information, describe events and phenomena, recount experiments, present and evaluate data, give explanations and present opinions or claims. They use

GOOD TEACHING: Literacy 3–6

Becoming literate

to be successful in creating products that demonstrate a deep understanding of a topic.
technical vocabulary and learn to understand information presented in the form of diagrams, flow charts, tables and graphs.

### Humanities and Social Sciences (HASS)

- **In History** students develop literacy capability as they learn to comprehend and compose texts that recount a sequence of events, present past events as a narrative, reflect on and discuss concepts and ideas, and argue a point of view often including graphics such as illustrations, maps, tables, timelines and references. They use the language features of historical texts including topic vocabulary, past tense, complex sentences, and adverbs and noun groups for description.

- **In Geography** students develop literacy capability as they learn to comprehend and compose a wide range of graphical and visual texts, for example, interviews, reports, stories, diagrams, remotely-sensed and satellite images, photographs and maps as they conduct geographical inquiries. They use the vocabulary of the discipline. They learn to evaluate texts and recognise how language and images can be used to make and manipulate meaning.

- **In Economics and Business** (from Year 5) students develop literacy capability as they learn to interpret and create a range of texts involving data and information that uses specialised terminology. They make language choices including developing a considered point of view when communicating conclusions.

- **In Civics and Citizenship** (from Year 3) students develop literacy capability as they research, read and analyse sources of information. They learn to recognise how language can be used to manipulate meaning, distinguish between fact and opinion, and communicate ideas to a variety of audiences. They articulate, debate and evaluate ideas.

### In the Arts

In the Arts students create, compose, design, analyse, comprehend, discuss, interpret and evaluate as artists and recipients of arts products. They learn and use specific terminology which varies according to context. They use their literacy capability to access knowledge, make meaning, express thoughts, emotions and ideas, and interact with and challenge others.

### In Technology

In Technology students develop literacy capability as they communicate ideas, concepts and complex proposals which may include drawings, diagrams, flow charts, models, tables and graphs. They read and interpret detailed written instructions for specific technologies, procedural texts and project analysis reports. They articulate, question and evaluate ideas.

### In Health and Physical Education

In Health and Physical Education students use their literacy capability to understand the specific terminology used to describe health status, products, information and services. They learn to communicate ideas and opinions as they become critical consumers able to access, interpret, analyse, challenge and evaluate the viewpoints of others.

### In Languages

In Languages students’ literacy capabilities are strengthened as the capabilities are transferable across languages, both the language being learnt and all other languages that are part of the learner’s repertoire. Language learning is supported by a surrounding oral culture and meaningful context. They learn to think and talk about how each language works and about how they learn to use languages in different contexts.

### In Work Studies

In Work Studies (Years 9–10), students develop literacy capability as they adopt an appreciation of the skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing and interacting with others. They locate and evaluate information, express ideas, thoughts and emotions, justify opinions, interact effectively with others, and debrief and reflect.
Literacy is regarded as the key driver of all learning. Increases in literacy outcomes will only occur when there is a sustained whole school commitment to systematic curriculum delivery over a period of time. Schools need to develop a shared understanding of effective practices for teaching literacy to ensure consistency and continuity across the school. This set of practices should be documented and reviewed regularly. Improvement in literacy achievement requires a whole school commitment to the following key aspects:

Organisation
A culture of collaboration empowers staff to work together on literacy provision, discussing, reflecting, planning, setting goals, developing resources, analysing data and work samples, and sharing learning. A successful literacy improvement strategy benefits from instructional leadership by a literacy leader and/or literacy team in managing and leading:

- planning and review cycles
- collecting and analysing data
- setting targets
- ensuring coherence and continuity across the years
- promoting formative assessment strategies to guide literacy teaching
- building staff capacity
- enabling the sharing of effective literacy practices across the school
- supporting the principal in developing whole-of-school interventions for students requiring differentiated literacy support
- identifying resource needs and allocation
- convening and structuring year group literacy planning meetings.

Planning
It is important for schools to allocate time for grade meetings so that teachers can plan the integration of literacy activities into meaningful learning experiences and plan units of work for the explicit teaching of specific literacy skills. Informed by data, teachers collaboratively decide on consistent literacy practices and assessment processes, share and confirm common language, and develop literacy resources to support all learners.

Principals and the leadership team have a role in supporting teachers to understand literacy development across the years of schooling as identified in the Australian Curriculum Literacy Learning Continuum and Australian Curriculum scope and sequence for the English learning area.

Teacher planning includes providing differentiated learning opportunities for students requiring additional literacy support, including students who are gifted and talented and those who are not making expected progress. Refer to Good Teaching: Differentiated Classroom Practice and Supporting Literacy and Numeracy Success.

Teaching and learning
Thinking that is productive, purposeful and intentional is at the centre of effective learning (ACARA, Critical and Creative Thinking general capability). Teachers make thinking visible when they think aloud as they create and compose texts with their students, drawing attention to complex relationships, and the ways in which texts are and can be constructed. These demonstrations of how language works provide models for students to draw on as they explore multiple ways for thinking about and expressing their understandings and as they apply their knowledge of language to communicate effectively.

Literacy in the Australian Curriculum uses a social view of language that reflects how language works to construct meaning in different social and cultural contexts. Successful literacy teachers provide instruction about skills and strategies within meaningful, authentic contexts which are relevant to students’ experiences in their
lives beyond school. While explicitly addressing skills and strategies, teachers contextualise learning through the use of quality literature, media texts, informative texts and everyday texts, investigating them for authentic purposes. Through this process students learn to adapt language to meet the demands of general and increasingly specialised purposes, audiences and contexts. Immersion in rich literacy experiences related to students’ lives enables learners to develop, systematically and concurrently, knowledge and skills in listening, viewing, reading, speaking, writing and creating. Meaning making and understanding grow in the context of rich talk about texts. Instruction should incorporate frequent opportunities for teachers and students to talk together to expand understandings and to encourage language and communicative growth. Effective teachers guide students in thinking through the texts they read or create, by using open-ended questions that encourage a ‘thinking through’ process. Teachers model, for example, how to include others in the discussion, how to provide evidence to support claims, and how to make connections to other texts and personal experiences. The use of new technologies can provide infinite possibilities for interacting with others through digital collaboration and interaction.

Effective literacy teachers are adept at scaffolding and individualising or differentiating instruction. In order to be effective, teachers identify each student’s literacy capabilities and plan carefully to cater for the diversity of learners. Using guided or collaborative groups for reading and writing as well as individual conferencing, teachers target instruction within each student’s zone of proximal development. Such instruction enables students to move from what they can do with support, to what they can do independently. The gradual-release of responsibility model, ‘I do, we do, you do’ structure, underpins effective scaffolding. By flexibly grouping students according to specific learning needs, teachers can adjust the level of scaffolding individual students require to gain the requisite skills and knowledge.

Teaching needs to be recursive where skills, strategies and understandings are introduced, revisited, reinforced and extended whenever possible. Time should be provided for multiple opportunities to use and practise an evolving skill or strategy in functional and meaningful contexts. This enables students to increase control of the conventional forms of language and explore alternative language choices for making meaning.

A classroom culture that nurtures literacy motivation by integrating choice, collaboration and engagement in relevant literacy tasks has been shown as most effective in supporting literacy learning. Students’ motivation makes the difference between superficial and shallow learning and learning that is deep and internalised. Students need both the skill and the will to become competent and engaged literacy learners. When students are provided with choice as they access rich and wide-ranging texts and when they choose ways to express their ideas, students show greater engagement in and success with literacy learning.

An atmosphere of high expectations and a belief that all students can achieve with the provision of high support and sufficient time for practice underpins successful learning. Expectations are essentially messages that significant others communicate to learners and they subtly and powerfully influence a learner. When students believe they can learn, their self-efficacy contributes to ongoing learning success.

Nobody rises to low expectations. My teacher thought I was smarter than I was, so I was. (Peters 2015)

The challenge for teachers is to plan and implement a literacy program that both engages the students and cognitively challenges them, while at the same time providing them with sufficient practice to facilitate the fluency and automaticity achieved by effective literacy learners.
Effective literacy teachers

Ten evidence-based best practices for comprehensive literacy instruction:

1. Create a classroom culture that nurtures literacy motivation by integrating choice, collaboration, and relevance into literacy tasks.

2. Provide students with opportunities to engage purposefully with texts across a wide range of literary, informative and persuasive genres, including close reading and multiple revisiting of quality texts.

3. Provide students with scaffolded reading instruction with a focus on fluency, vocabulary and comprehension strategies to support the development of deep understanding.

4. Provide students with scaffolded writing instruction in text organisation, sentence structure, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation, along with the processes of text composing and crafting.

5. Provide opportunities for rich talk and discussion that encourages all learners to participate fully.

6. Integrate reading, viewing and composing of written and multimodal texts to support learning.

7. Teach literacy within and across all learning areas for authentic purposes.

8. Use assessment processes that reflect the complex and dynamic nature of literacy.

9. Promote literacy independence by providing time for self-selected reading and writing.

10. Integrate technologies that link and expand concepts and modes of communication.


Support for teachers

- Teachers have varying levels of experience and expertise in different aspects of literacy education and they therefore require different levels of professional support.

- Having a literacy leader or a literacy team who, along with senior staff, can work with teachers ‘shoulder to shoulder’ as well as identifying their professional learning needs underpins school improvement in this area of the curriculum.

- Professional learning is more effective when it is student focused, data informed and sustained rather than in one-off sessions.

- Teachers need opportunities to learn about the development of the foundational skills that underpin literacy and the evidence-based teaching approaches that support student learning.

- Teachers need to be able to articulate both what they do and why they do it. When these professional supports are in place and when effective literacy practices are shared across the school, whole school improvement is sustained.
Assessment

The key purpose of assessment is to determine where students are in their learning and to inform the next steps to move the learner forward in the curriculum continuum (Good Teaching: Quality Assessment Practices, p.4).

Accurate, varied and regular assessment is needed to ensure optimal progress for all students.

To ensure continuity of literacy development, it is important to develop a consistent approach to assessment, as outlined in the Good Teaching: Quality Assessment Practices.

- Whole school practices for the collation of data and reporting procedures support planning and tracking of student achievement.
- Teachers and leaders work together to investigate patterns of strengths and underachievement and plan for interventions based on information from the data. Refer to Supporting Literacy and Numeracy Success.
- Assessment should lead to more effective teaching with teams developing a plan of action and selecting focus areas for improvement.
- Student progress is monitored and teaching is adjusted accordingly.
- Year group teachers benefit from sharing formative literacy assessment practices and planning for adjustments to teaching as result of new understandings of learners.
- Success criteria should be shared with the students who increasingly take responsibility for addressing the criteria and assessing their own literacy progress.
This resource highlights the importance of literacy in the primary years and identifies the main skills and understandings students need to become literate as they engage in learning across the curriculum. It also underlines the importance of teachers acquiring a sound knowledge of how language works in order to support students’ literacy development.

The literacy environment
A classroom setting that encourages literacy learning includes:

- learning spaces designed to facilitate whole class, group, pair and individual work
- literacy materials organised for independent learning e.g. word walls, bump it up walls with annotated writing examples, a range of both fiction and non-fiction texts
- various technologies e.g. individual mini-whiteboards, tablets, laptops, visualiser to project student work
- teacher/student made materials and posters (rather than commercial materials) that have a meaningful connection to the curriculum and are effective tools for teaching and learning
- frequently referenced materials placed at eye level for students (e.g. handwriting models, word families, high frequency sight words, comprehension strategies) or made available as laminated place mats or bookmarks
- displays that are fresh, uncluttered and purposeful
- student work on display that honours effort and shows thinking
- environmental print and labelled resources
- an abundance and variety of reading materials in class library (fiction, informative, culturally diverse, print, digital, picture dictionaries)
- take-home texts, well-organised and ready to go.

Planning and teaching for literacy
In mid to upper primary school, teachers connect literacy learning to the literacy general capability of the Australian Curriculum, underpinned by Years 3–6 of the Australian Curriculum: English.

Effective planning and teaching emphasises backward design and the importance of clear links between learning goals and assessment tasks. Refer to Good Teaching: Curriculum Mapping and Planning.

Effective literacy in Years 3–6 involves a range of planning and teaching strategies.

- Assessing student understandings about concepts and language (mainly through oral questioning and inviting input from families about out-of-school experiences).
- Determining the English language and literacy students need to learn by backward mapping from curriculum outcomes (both achievement standards and content descriptors from the Australian Curriculum: English and/or the expected indicators in the literacy learning continuum).
- Determining the scaffolding and tasks needed to bridge prior understandings to new literacy and language ideas.
- Identifying contexts that will be beneficial for teaching literacy in familiar and engaging ways that promote discussion with a focus on making meaning.
- Facilitating intentional learning, with planned opportunities for an explicit focus on communicating and using language effectively for particular purposes.
• Teaching about the English language in ways that promote understanding, support fluency and encourage effective communication.

• Selecting tasks that enable students to demonstrate their understanding of how language works and how to make meaning of texts.

• Generating data for teachers to diagnose students’ future learning and intervention needs, data derived from sources such as screening tools, diagnostic assessment, benchmarking, outcomes assessment, success criteria (including rubrics), observation checklists, portfolios of student work and parent interviews.

Monitoring and assessment

In order to monitor the learning against what the students are expected to learn, teachers need refer to the intended learning in the Australian Curriculum. Teachers need to reflect on what they want students to learn to remind themselves of their precise learning goals for individuals and groups of students. Assessment must focus on assessing the intended learning as opposed to what teachers believe they have taught – how far have students travelled in relation to my expectations for their learning? Further support and elaborations on formative and summative assessment and the importance of feedback to students is found in the DoE publication Good Teaching: Quality Assessment Practices.

To assess deep understandings, knowledge and skills in the English learning area, teachers must ensure that they have taught the understandings to all students using a high expectations approach and differentiation strategies as described in Good Teaching: Differentiated Classroom Practice.

Monitoring student learning in the English learning area should be done by determining, at the point in time of the particular assessment, the extent to which students can demonstrate evidence of the expected outcomes, as described in the achievement standards and content descriptors. This indicates the support each student will need in order to progress their learning.

If students don’t appear to be progressing it is important to reflect on the assessment task used:

• Are the questions appropriate to the task?
• Do they assess the learning that was planned?
• Are there words and phrases in the tasks that students may not be able to read and understand?
• Do your observations validate the learning, or are you seeing different things in students’ behaviours than you are seeing in written tasks?

It is helpful to ask a peer mentor to check the alignment between the tasks, the intended learning and the teaching you have delivered. In a cyclical fashion, teachers then review how well students dealt with a task and modify subsequent learning challenges to ensure all students can engage, succeed and progress.

Past Years 3, 5 and 7 NAPLAN Literacy test papers offer a good source of assessment questions for students Years 3–6 and can be used as formative assessment alongside normal classroom assessments.

Past NAPLAN questions and associated teaching strategies can be accessed via the NAPLAN Toolkit and all teachers in Years 3–6 are encouraged to use this resource to inform their teaching. The IMPROVE website is an additional tool for formative assessment and also uses past NAPLAN questions.

Questions for reflection

For leaders:

• How is literacy improvement reflected in the School Improvement Plan and Operational Plan?
• What high leverage strategies and deliberate actions are planned to develop whole school literacy practices?
• What are the core values in your school regarding literacy in the middle and upper years of primary school? How are such values made visible and communicated?
• What organisational provisions are in place for developing whole school literacy across the curriculum? E.g. instructional leadership, collaborative planning teams
• How are these responsibilities for literacy distributed? E.g. Is there a literacy leader or a literacy team?
• How successful is the collaborative planning for literacy teaching and assessment in the school?
• What data is collected and how is the analysis of literacy data managed in the school?
• What are some common literacy assessment tools the school uses? Why are they used?
• How are the diverse literacy needs of students catered for?
• How is literacy learning communicated to parents and carers?
• How are literacy interventions managed and resourced?

For teachers:
• What types of assessments provide you with a range of literacy data about your students?
• What learning experiences assist your students to develop literacy competence and confidence? What has worked well? What could be improved?
• In what ways is the learning environment conducive to literacy learning? What could be improved?
• How do you design learning tasks that allow students to develop and demonstrate their understandings in literacy?
• Do you have a shared understanding of effective literacy practices between staff?
• How do you collaborate with colleagues to ensure consistency of practice in approaches to teaching reading and writing?
• How is literacy learning differentiated to meet the needs of all students? How is literacy evident in planning across the curriculum?
• In which areas of literacy education do you feel you might benefit from professional learning?

Useful resources
See Appendix 1: Useful Resources to Support Literacy Development
Oral language (Listening and speaking)

Key messages
Oral language is a vital tool for thinking and learning. Outside of school, students may have limited opportunities to expand their conversational repertoire, or to interpret complex visual or multimodal communications in the company of more experienced listeners and viewers. In school, however, they need to be actively engaged in sustained speaking and listening so that they can acquire educational concepts and knowledge. Therefore, the skills for effective oral interaction need to be explicitly taught and the classroom climate should be designed to build students’ confidence and encourage risk taking.

In this section on oral language we will focus on:
• Listening
• Speaking
• Interacting with others
• Assessing oral language.

Links to the curriculum
The following tables highlight how oral language is represented in the Australian Curriculum: English. Teachers should also refer to the literacy learning continuum www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/generalcapabilities/literacy/continuum#layout=columns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Australian Curriculum: English</th>
<th>Year 3</th>
<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
<th>Year 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speaking and Listening – relevant Content Descriptors</td>
<td>Understand that successful cooperation with others depends on shared use of social conventions, including turn-taking patterns, and forms of address that vary according to the degree of formality in social situations</td>
<td>Understand that social interactions influence the way people engage with ideas and respond to others for example when exploring and clarifying the ideas of others, summarising their own views and reporting them to a larger group</td>
<td>Understand that patterns of language interaction vary across social contexts and types of texts and that they help to signal social roles and relationships</td>
<td>Understand that strategies for interaction become more complex and demanding as levels of formality and social distance increase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use interaction skills, including active listening behaviours and communicate in a clear, coherent manner using a variety of everyday and learned vocabulary and appropriate tone, pace, pitch and volume</td>
<td>Use interaction skills such as acknowledging another’s point of view and linking students’ response to the topic, using familiar and new vocabulary and a range of vocal effects such as tone, pace, pitch and volume to speak clearly and coherently</td>
<td>Use interaction skills, for example paraphrasing, questioning and interpreting non-verbal cues and choose vocabulary and vocal effects appropriate for different audiences and purposes</td>
<td>Use interaction skills, varying conventions of spoken interactions such as voice volume, tone, pitch and pace, according to group size, formality of interaction and needs and expertise of the audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Listen to and contribute to conversations and discussions to share information and ideas and negotiate in collaborative situations</td>
<td></td>
<td>Clarify understanding of content as it unfolds in formal and informal situations, connecting ideas to students’ own experiences and present and justify a point of view</td>
<td>Participate in and contribute to discussions, clarifying and interrogating ideas, developing and supporting arguments, sharing and evaluating information, experiences and opinions</td>
</tr>
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</table>
### Australian Curriculum: English
Speaking and Listening – relevant Content Descriptors

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Year 3</th>
<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
<th>Year 6</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plan and deliver short presentations, providing some key details in logical sequence</td>
<td>Interpret ideas and information in spoken texts and listen for key points in order to carry out tasks and use information to share and extend ideas and information</td>
<td>Plan, rehearse and deliver presentations for defined audiences and purposes incorporating accurate and sequenced content and multimodal elements</td>
<td>Plan, rehearse and deliver presentations, selecting and sequencing appropriate content and multimodal elements for defined audiences and purposes, making appropriate choices for modality and emphasis.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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### Australian Curriculum: English
Speaking and Listening – relevant Achievement Standards

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Year 3</th>
<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
<th>Year 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They listen to others’ views and respond appropriately. They contribute actively to class and group discussions, asking questions, providing useful feedback and making presentations.</td>
<td>They listen for key points in discussions. They express preferences for particular texts, and respond to others’ viewpoints. They make presentations and contribute actively to class and group discussions, varying language according to context.</td>
<td>They listen and ask questions to clarify content. They make presentations and contribute actively to class and group discussions, taking into account other perspectives.</td>
<td>They listen to discussions, clarifying content and challenging others’ ideas. They make presentations and contribute actively to class and group discussions, using a variety of strategies for effect.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Planning

Teachers and educators use the tabled curriculum information to plan by backward mapping from the curriculum outcomes. According to the level the students are operating at, teachers refer to the Australian Curriculum, using the achievement standards and the content descriptors of the English curriculum and the expected indicators in the Australian Curriculum Literacy Learning Continuum to set instructional goals.

The following oral language activities describe the sorts of learning opportunities teachers need to create in order to develop the required, stated learning in the table, both for literacy and for the English learning that underpins it.

### Listening

This is perhaps the most overlooked of the various language skills. We make assumptions that all students will comprehend what they are hearing. As students move through the middle and upper primary years, however, listening becomes more demanding, as they are required to attend to increasingly academic information.
Putting it into practice

Throughout the booklet, we will differentiate between effective **classroom practices** that are a part of everyday literacy instruction and specific **activities** that can be incorporated into the more general practices.

**Classroom practices**

- Explicitly teach students how to be attentive, respectful listeners in whole class and group discussions. Guide students to think about why listening is important and what it means to listen **intentionally** – that is, to listen in order to participate rather than passively observe.

- Plan for a variety of opportunities for students to listen for a range of purposes: to enjoy a story; to appreciate, predict and replicate the rhythm of a poem; to identify specific information from an information report; to follow instructions for an experiment; to recall the sequence of events in a recount; to comprehend the points being made in an argument, and so on.

- Become an expert storyteller. When reading stories and poems to the class, draw students in with your intonation, pausing, volume and tone.

- Model good listening skills by listening attentively to students.

**Active listening activities**

**Daily read-aloud**

Each day, include a story (or part of a story) and/or poem – new or revisited – read with expression by teacher or class members or from YouTube (see Useful resources).

**Retelling**

Have students listen to a text and then retell (to the teacher or a small group) what they understood from the text, such as a procedure, an anecdote, a recount or a joke. This reveals the extent to which they have comprehended the main gist of the text and/or any areas of misunderstanding. Students can revisit the text to confirm or modify their retellings. This activity can also be done using a mobile phone, checking whether the student is able to retell an extended conversational turn heard over the phone, without visual support.

**Aural cloze**

As students listen to a text, ask them to predict the next word (e.g. during story telling: ‘and along came … who do you think came along?’) to ensure that they are following the meaning.

**Listening for specific information**

As the teacher reads aloud a text such as an explanation of the cow’s digestive system, ask students to demonstrate their comprehension by drawing arrows on a diagram to indicate what happens to the food as it passes through the system:

---

*Illustration of the cow’s digestive system showing the four stomachs: Rumen, Omasum, Abomasum, Reticulum.*

---

A cow has four stomachs to break down the tough food it eats. When the cow first eats, it chews its food just enough to swallow it. The unchewed food travels to the **first two stomachs**, the rumen and the reticulum, where it is stored until later. When the cow has rested, she regurgitates bits of unchewed food (called cud) **into the mouth**, chews it completely and swallows it again. The cud then goes **to the third and fourth stomachs** – the omasum and abomasum – where it is fully digested. Some of the digested food goes **into the bloodstream** and travels **to the udder** where it is made into milk. The rest is expelled **through the small intestine and the large intestine** to provide fertiliser for the paddock.
Inferring from the text
As you read a text, for example, about the colonisation of Australia, ask questions that encourage students to go beyond what is written e.g.
- Why do you think Captain Cook was willing to undertake such a dangerous voyage?
- How do you think the indigenous people felt when they saw the Endeavour?
- What words suggest that Banks was an arrogant man?

Listening for point of view
Have students listen to or watch a video of a speech/interview and try to identify the speaker’s point of view and use of persuasive devices, drawing on cues such as intonation, body language, repetition, emotive words (‘pathos’), logical reasoning (‘logos’) or ethical points (‘ethos’).

‘I went to the zoo...’
Use games such as this to foster careful listening and remembering of details. The teacher begins with a sentence starter such as ‘I went to the zoo and I saw ... (e.g. a bird)’. Students are then asked to add to the description with prompts such as ‘what type?’, ‘what colour?’, ‘give an opinion describer’, ‘make it stronger’, ‘with ...?’, ‘.... that had/was ....’. As each student adds to the description, they have to repeat all the information that has come beforehand before adding their own contribution (‘I went to the zoo and I saw a magnificent bright pink wading bird with long legs that had a hooked beak and ....’).

Dictogloss
Read a short text aloud at normal speed. The text is then read again with pauses as students take down key words and phrases. Students are told not to try to write down the whole text but to listen for key words and to get the gist of the text. In pairs or small groups, students then combine their notes to reconstruct a version of the text in their own words, approximating the main ideas of the text. As they talk about their choices in the reconstruction process, students have to negotiate the meaning of the text, considering appropriate vocabulary and grammatical options and deciding on a logical sequence for their remembered ideas. When students are happy with their text, they can either listen again to a reading or can read the original text. They can then highlight those parts of their reconstructed text that departed too greatly from the original. Or, groups can share their versions sentence by sentence and see whether they agree and differ in their reconstruction of the meaning.

Guided note making
Similar to Dictogloss, this provides practice in careful listening in order to summarise the gist of the talk or video using note-making pro formas or a relevant graphic organiser (see Appendix 3.1). The teacher provides a context by previewing the content of the text. Students then listen several times, making notes on the proforma as they do so. They then use their notes to create a summary of the text.

Example of proforma, supporting the students to make notes as the text is read aloud.

What is composting?
Why should we compost?
How is compost made?

Speaking
In the 3–6 years, students will be expected to speak in more formal contexts to a wider range of audiences. This might take the form, for example, of oral presentations to the whole class, recounting an experience to a group of classmates, telling someone how to carry out a procedure, explaining how something works, telling a story, reciting a poem, or describing an object, character or picture.
Putting it into practice

Classroom practices

- To promote confident speaking, it is important to:
  - create empathy and foster respectful listening
  - establish a climate of trust
  - encourage the use of props e.g. prompts, cues, openings, concrete objects, pictures, PowerPoint

- Explicitly model to the students how you use various techniques to engage the audience e.g.
  - ‘Notice how I am pausing at key points to gain your attention.’
  - ‘Why do you think I spoke quietly then?’
  - ‘Can you hear how my voice goes up and down when I speak? Otherwise I would sound like a robot! I’m using expression so you will be interested in what I’m saying.’
  - ‘Am I fidgeting? Am I looking you in the eye? Am I standing up straight?’
  - ‘What happens when I mumble like this?’
  - ‘Can you understand me when I talk really quickly?’

- Create regular opportunities for both prepared oral presentations and more spontaneous sustained turns at talking. Remind students to be succinct and stay on track.

- Be sensitive to cultural differences such as where making eye contact might be inappropriate.

- Share demonstrations of effective (or poor) public speaking and ask students to evaluate the positive (or negative) techniques used e.g. a Year 6 student sharing apps he has created: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ehDAPIQ9Zw; speech by Malala Yousafzai (from around 2.20 mins): https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8hx0ajieM3M.

Speaking activities

Wordless picture books

These days there are many wordless picture books designed specifically for upper primary students. They are often quite sophisticated and thought provoking, providing an excellent stimulus for students to talk about the images in an elaborated, personal interpretation.

The press conference

This activity provides an opportunity for students to get an understanding of different points of view arising out of a particular historical context being studied at the time. Each student will alternately take on the roles of news reporter and interviewee – various persons from the historical period being studied (slave, general, peasant, governor, etc.). Allow time for each group to prepare interview questions and responses in relation to a particular incident. Students then participate in at least 2-3 interviews, alternating between the roles of reporter and interviewee. From their interviews, students prepare a news report representing the incident from the different perspectives of the interviewees. Their report could be videotaped for presentation as part of a 'news bulletin'.
The storyteller

Students choose a passage from one of their favourite stories. They nominate what quality they will focus on when reading it aloud: clear articulation, or changes in intonation, volume, pausing, or pace. They practise reading the passage aloud with a partner and then record it. Using criteria relevant to the selected quality, peers can give feedback on the student’s presentation. The class could then develop their presentations to share with younger students, perhaps in the form of digital stories.

Choral poetry

Many students still enjoy participating in the animated reading of favourite poems as a group. Choose poems that are short, lively and at an appropriate reading level. Model to students how to read the poem fluently in an engaging way, using shifts in intonation, volume, pausing and pace. Get them to echo each line as you model, then read it together as a group or class.

Speed dating

In this activity, students try to persuade a classmate to read a favourite story, play a favourite video game or watch a favourite television show. After students have had time to prepare their points, arrange the class in concentric circles, with pairs facing each other. They each have one minute to persuade their classmate to their point of view before moving on to the next partner. After a few turns, have students report on who was the most persuasive and why.

Oral interaction

The role of talk in learning

There is a difference between casual conversation and ‘literate talk’. Literate talk describes the kind of interactions that enable students to talk their way into meaning; to think aloud; to explore, to formulate and clarify ideas; to set up and evaluate hypotheses. Literate talk provides a transition into the more academic reading and writing demands encountered in upper primary and the secondary years. But such talk doesn’t just happen. It is carefully orchestrated by a teacher who knows how to engage students in quality interactions that promote curiosity, risk-taking and problem solving.

Effective interactions:

- are regularly planned into the class program (but also arise spontaneously)
- generally require some preparation on the part of the teacher and the students
- are goal-directed and focused on the current learning intention so they don’t get off track
- require clear expectations that all students will participate in a respectful and engaged way.

Putting it into practice

Classroom practices

Hands down

Rather than constantly going to those students whose hands shoot up while others rarely get heard, in certain interactions you can have a policy of ‘hands down’. If all students have been engaged in developing the understandings of the task, then all should have something to say: to answer a question; to elaborate; to provide an example; to make connections between ideas; to make links to personal experience or prior knowledge; to challenge, and so on. Some teachers, for example, have a container of ‘paddle pop sticks’ on which are written all the names of class members. The teacher draws out a stick at random to nominate a student to contribute to the discussion.

Wait time

Sometimes students need time to compose their thoughts when answering a question. Teachers need to explain to the class that it is often useful to leave ‘think time’ rather than moving along quickly.

Dialogic teaching

Classroom talk is often described as a sequence of ‘Initiation – Response – Feedback’, as when the teacher asks a question, a student provides an answer, and the teacher acknowledges the response and moves on. In contrast, dialogic teaching treats learners as worthy conversation partners, which is reflected in:

- interactions that encourage students to think, and to think in different ways
open questions that invite much more than simple recall and can have multiple answers
- answers that are justified, followed up and built upon rather than merely received
- feedback that informs and leads thinking forward and encourages contributions that are extended rather than fragmented
- exchanges that chain together into coherent and deepening lines of inquiry
- discussion and argumentation that probe and challenge rather than unquestioningly accept
- students who experience a sense of achievement as sufficient preparation has been done to ensure that all students can participate
- classroom organisation, climate and relationships that make all this possible (Robin Alexander)

Dialogic teaching involves the students in deep learning in a way that ‘teacher talk’ doesn’t achieve.

Micro-scaffolding

Particularly for EAL/D students, micro-scaffolding supports learning and language development through careful teacher talk. As a micro-scaffolding strategy, teachers often use ‘redundancy’ when they converse with learners. That is, they elaborate on the student’s responses and say the same thing in different ways, shunting between the everyday language of the learner and the more technical language of literate talk. In the preceding image, notice how the teacher doesn’t simply ask a question and move on. She asks an open question (‘how?’), then asks the student to extend his answer, and then uses redundancy to shift from ‘heats the water’ to the result (‘gas’) to the more technical ‘vapour’. She then explains the process with reference to vapour (‘evaporates’) and summarises it with a noun (‘evaporation’). She then recycles those terms, shunting between the everyday and technical terms (‘changed’ – ‘evaporated’ – ‘vapour’).

Think, pair, share
In order to ensure that all students are able to participate in class and group interactions, provide ‘thinking time’ for them to gather their thoughts about a question, then ask them to share those thoughts with a partner, before contributing to class discussion.

Academic conversations
Students in Years 3–6 are moving into the kind of academic discussions that involve active oral participation around topics and issues across the curriculum. These days there is increasing emphasis on teaching students how to effectively engage in such discussions, referred to by such terms as literate talk (as we have used in this booklet), accountable talk, collaborative conversations, Socratic seminars, and the like. These have similar characteristics:

- There are expectations that there will be a respectful community of learners in which all listen intentionally and actively participate.
- There is generally preparation beforehand so that students actually have something to say.
- The discussion is robust and generally based around a written source to which the students refer for evidence.
- Students play a prominent role in negotiating and creating meaning collaboratively.
- Contributions are succinct.
- The teacher orchestrates the discussion e.g. stimulating, clarifying, rephrasing ideas, summarising, and filling in background information.
- Students are taught explicitly the language needed for effective interaction.
**Interaction skills**

Classroom interaction is very different from the kind of talk that students use in the playground or at home. Not all students feel confident and prepared to participate productively in the kinds of academic conversations described above. Teachers can support them in the early stages by demonstrating the various ways that students can participate: initiating a topic; adding to someone else’s contribution; asking for clarification; seeking evidence; disagreeing (and giving a reason); and so on. Teachers can also explicitly introduce students to the kind of language needed for effective participation by providing them with sentence starters for each of these roles, such as those below.

One strategy is to provide each student with a laminated bookmark of conversation strategies (selected from those below or others) and get them to refer to the list as they do a group task. Another is to give each student in the group three cards representing different interaction starters. In the course of the discussion each student has to play all three cards. Once students are familiar with the different interaction moves, such props can be withdrawn.
### Developing skills for oral interaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Initiate</strong></th>
<th><strong>Affirm</strong></th>
<th><strong>Piggyback</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I think ....</td>
<td>I like the way you explained ....</td>
<td>I think another reason could be...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Disagree</strong></th>
<th><strong>Clarify</strong></th>
<th><strong>Follow up</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I would disagree with that because ...</td>
<td>Can you say your answer in a different way?</td>
<td>How do you know that is the correct answer?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can you say your answer in a different way?</td>
<td>Can you give me another example?</td>
<td>What is your evidence?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can you explain what you mean by ....?</td>
<td>On page xxx it says ....</td>
<td>Based on my evidence found here .... I believe ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Follow up with evidence</strong></th>
<th><strong>Encourage participation</strong></th>
<th><strong>Summarise</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How do you know that is the correct answer?</td>
<td>What do you think? ....</td>
<td>So far we have decided that....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is your evidence?</td>
<td>Can anyone add to that?</td>
<td>Can anyone add to that?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On page xxx it says ....</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based on my evidence found here .... I believe ...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Speculate</strong></th>
<th><strong>Stay on track</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I wonder why ....</td>
<td>We only have five minutes left.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I predict that .... because ....</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What if ....?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Encourage participation</strong></th>
<th><strong>Clarify</strong></th>
<th><strong>Stay on track</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I think another reason could be...</td>
<td>How did you figure that out?</td>
<td>Let’s get back to the question.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’d agree with that.</td>
<td>I didn’t understand that. Can you explain it again?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’m not sure I’d agree because...</td>
<td>That idea doesn’t make sense because...</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Clarify</strong></th>
<th><strong>Follow up</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can you explain what you mean by ....?</td>
<td>Can you give an example?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am confused about ....</td>
<td>Why do you think that?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Summarise</strong></th>
<th><strong>Stay on track</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>So what we’re saying is ....</td>
<td>So what you’re saying is....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can anyone add to that?</td>
<td>Let’s get back to the question.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Oral language (Listening and speaking)

22 GOOD TEACHING: Literacy 3–6
Oral interaction activities

Information gap activities

An information gap activity is where students are missing the information they need to complete a task and have to talk to each other to find it. Information gap activities provide an opportunity for extended speaking practice. They represent authentic communication, motivation can be high, and they require sub-skills such as clarifying meaning and rephrasing. Such activities should preferably be designed around curriculum topics e.g.

- Student A has a biography of a famous person with all the place names missing, whilst Student B has the same text with all the dates missing. Together they can complete the text by asking each other questions.

- Provide pairs of students with slightly different pictures. The students need to use questions or statements to identify the differences between the pictures, as in this activity related to Geography – ‘the location of the major geographical divisions of the world in relation to Australia’ (ACHGK009):

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
\text{RUSSIA} & \text{EUROPE} & \text{ASIA} & \text{AFRICA} \\
\text{SOUTH AMERICA} & \text{CANADA} & \text{USA} & \text{ATLANTIC OCEAN} \\
\text{MEXICO} & \text{CENTRAL AMERICA} & \text{PACIFIC OCEAN} & \text{INDIAN OCEAN} \\
\end{array}
\]

Jigsaw activities

The students in each group become ‘experts’ in a particular aspect of a larger topic (e.g. a particular planet in ‘the Earth is part of a system of planets orbiting around a star (the sun)’ (ACSSU078)). The groups break off to form new groups. Each expert then shares their knowledge with others in the groups to create a text on the larger topic.

Hot seat

Students take on different roles in an interview situation. One student takes on the role of either a real character (e.g. from a biography) or fictitious character (e.g. from a story). Other students take on roles of investigators such as a journalist, asking the ‘hot seat’ character questions such as why he/she carried out certain actions or how they felt at the time. The interviewee needs to ‘inhabit’ the character in the source text when answering.

Freeze frame

Somewhat similar to hot seat, a group of students act out a scene from a story and at a certain point the teacher asks them to freeze the action. The rest of the class then asks questions of the various frozen characters, attempting to interpret their motivations and their feelings about, reactions to, reflections on, and evaluation of what is happening at the time.
Polarised debate

Students sit in a horseshoe to debate an issue that is open to various positions – such as ‘Skateboarders must wear helmets’ for Years 3–4 and ‘Are social networking sites harmful?’ for Years 5–6. The team speaking for the affirmative stands on one side; the team with opposing views stands on the other. In the centre are the undecided students. Debaters from each side take turns in persuading the undecided students to their position. If an undecided student modifies their view as the debate proceeds, they can take a step towards the side that is persuading them. The side that attracts the most students to their position within a certain time wins the debate.

Problem-solving activities

One of the best ways to stimulate purposeful oral interaction is to design problem-solving tasks such as those below that require students to use language in particular ways.

• Making decisions and defending choices: You are stranded on a desert island. All you have is the swimsuit and sandals you are wearing. There is food and water on the island but nothing else. Choose the eight most useful items from the list below and rank them in order of usefulness, providing a reason: A box of matches, a magnifying glass, an axe, a mobile phone, an atlas, a tent, a camera, ointment for cuts and burns, a saucepan, a knife and a fork, 20 metres of nylon rope, a blanket, a watch, a towel, a pencil and paper. Share your decisions with a partner and justify your choices.

• Undertaking a group project investigating the reasons for change and continuity in local transport (Year 3 History).

• Conducting a competition to see which group can design the best solution for disposing of school waste (Year 4 Geography).

• In the context of a scientific investigation, posing questions to clarify practical problems, predicting what the findings of the investigation might be, and suggesting improvements to the methods used to investigate a question or solve a problem (Year 5 Science).

• Collaboratively designing a device that uses an electrical circuit to transfer or transform electricity (Year 6 Science).

• Getting students to think aloud and share their problem-solving in mathematics e.g.

  Jackson was given a $150 shopping voucher for his birthday. How many sets of items can you make to spend Jackson’s $150 exactly?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Price</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singlet</td>
<td>$20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thongs</td>
<td>$10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T-Shirt</td>
<td>$25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cargo Shorts</td>
<td>$30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball Cap</td>
<td>$30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cargo Shorts</td>
<td>$15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Towel</td>
<td>$15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watch</td>
<td>$30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pencil &amp; paper</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

  As you try to solve the problem, share your decision-making with a partner.

Monitoring and assessment

Assessing listening (receptive oral language)

Monitoring at-risk students for listening

In some cases, poor listening skills can be a sign of an underlying problem. As you interact with a student, check for the following signs of weak listening comprehension:

• a lack of concentration
• a look of confusion
• inappropriate responses to questions
• inability to stay on track and complete tasks
• inability to retell the sequence and details of a story read aloud
• inability to follow instructions accurately
• difficulty in processing amounts of information e.g. sentences with more than one event or sentences that involve relationships of cause and effect (‘because’), sequence in time (‘before’, ‘after’, ‘until’), or consequences (‘if … then’)
• a need for breaking instructions into small segments, for repetition, and for visual cues.
Keep monitoring for ongoing signs and, if persistent, refer the student for assessment of hearing difficulties, auditory processing or language delays. Of course, many EAL/D students will experience initial challenges in listening and will need higher support through repetition, rewording, summarising, and clear articulation.

Useful resources

See Appendix 2.1: Individual Student Receptive Language Checklist

Assessing speaking (expressive oral language)

Monitoring at-risk students for speaking

While most students from middle primary on will willingly and confidently converse, there are some who will display signs of awkwardness and reluctance to speak. This may, of course, simply be a matter of shyness. As you interact with a student, check for the following signs of potential problems with expressive skills:

- an inability to retell more than a few elements of a story without picture cues
- a lack of flow in conversation and difficulty in maintaining a thread of meaning
- an inability to link and sequence ideas within and between sentences
- a limited vocabulary, using vague words (‘stuff’, ‘thing’) rather than specific items
- a reluctance to converse with peers
- a lack of awareness of how to adjust language to suit the context.

Keep monitoring for ongoing signs and, if persistent, refer the student for assessment by a speech therapist. Of course, many EAL/D students will experience initial challenges in speaking and will need higher support through wait time and scaffolded interaction for a time.

Useful resources

See Appendix 2.2: Individual Student Receptive and Expressive Language Checklist
Assessing oral presentations

The following is one example of a self-assessment rubric for an oral presentation, to be provided well before the presentation so that students know the expectations and can prepare. It could be used as a reflection tool if the presentation is videotaped.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MY ORAL PRESENTATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Preparation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I = I need to try harder next time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I found interesting and relevant information about my topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I organised the information well and prepared my prop/s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I rehearsed my presentation and used any feedback to improve it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Presentation structure</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I introduced my topic in an interesting way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I made my purpose clear and gave a brief outline of the key points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I developed the topic in a suitable way (depending on the purpose e.g. providing a description, explaining how or why, retelling an event)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I concluded the topic appropriately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I answered questions thoughtfully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Presentation qualities</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My presentation was interesting for the audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was succinct and kept to the point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I expressed the information in my own words and didn’t read from my notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I referred to my props well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I made eye contact with the audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I used facial expressions such as smiling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I spoke clearly and naturally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I didn’t speak too quickly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I used expression in my voice, I changed the volume, and I paused every so often to make my presentation interesting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Assessing oral interaction

It is generally not appropriate to formally assess students’ oral interaction. Rather, use an observation checklist to monitor students’ participation e.g.

- Are they actively engaged?
- Are they using a range of interaction strategies?
- Are their contributions succinct and relevant?
- Are they overly dominant or overly reticent?
- Are they comprehensible?
- Do they justify their claims?

Student self-assessment of oral interaction

One way that students can assess their own contribution to group discussions is to negotiate a set of success criteria for productive interaction. They can then use these to reflect on their own participation.

Questions for reflection

- How do you identify students who might be at risk in terms of their listening and speaking skills? What support is provided?
- Watch a video of an oral presentation on YouTube (e.g. a TED talk, Big Ideas (ABC), a news bulletin, a debate). Evaluate the speaker using the oral presentation rubric (p26). Would you change the rubric in any way?
- How would you rate your own use of expressive language (intonation, pausing, volume changes, pace, etc.) to engage students when reading stories?
- What suggestions do you have for promoting productive oral interaction in group work and classroom discussions?
- In a staff/grade meeting, use the list of interaction skills (p.22) to observe the strategies used by the various participants or to evaluate your own interaction strategies. Do you think it is feasible/useful to explicitly teach the sentence starters to your students?

Useful resources

See Appendix 2: Speaking and Listening, for useful resources for supporting oral language.
Reading and viewing

Key messages

Students in the upper primary years are consolidating and extending their reading proficiency. They should have confident control over most basic reading skills and are now ‘reading to learn’. By this stage, they should be avid, enthusiastic readers who read a range of texts fluently for pleasure and information.

In this section, we will focus on the following aspects of becoming a reader:

• What does reading involve?
  - the reader
  - the text
  - the context
• Scaffolding reading and viewing
• Viewing
• Assessing reading and viewing.
The following tables highlight how reading and viewing is represented in the Australian Curriculum: English. Teachers should also refer to the literacy learning continuum [www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/generalcapabilities/literacy/continuum#layout=columns](http://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/generalcapabilities/literacy/continuum#layout=columns).

### Australian Curriculum: English

#### Reading and Viewing – relevant Content Descriptors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 3</th>
<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
<th>Year 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Understand how to apply knowledge of letter-sound relationships, syllables, and blending and segmenting to fluently read multisyllabic words with more complex letter patterns</strong>&lt;br&gt;Read an increasing range of different types of texts by combining contextual, semantic, grammatical and phonic knowledge, using text processing strategies, for example monitoring, predicting, confirming, rereading, reading on and self-correcting&lt;br&gt;Use comprehension strategies to build literal and inferred meaning, and begin to evaluate texts by drawing on a growing knowledge of context, text structures and language features&lt;br&gt;Identify the audience and purpose of imaginative, informative and persuasive texts</td>
<td><strong>Read (and write) a large core of high frequency words including homophones</strong>&lt;br&gt;Understand how to use phonic knowledge to read multisyllabic words with more complex letter combinations, including a variety of vowel sounds and known prefixes and suffixes&lt;br&gt;Read different types of texts by combining contextual, semantic, grammatical and phonic knowledge using text processing strategies for example monitoring meaning, cross checking and reviewing&lt;br&gt;Use comprehension strategies to build literal and inferred meaning to expand content knowledge, integrating and linking ideas and analysing and evaluating texts&lt;br&gt;Identify characteristic features used in imaginative, informative and persuasive texts to meet the purpose of the text</td>
<td><strong>Understand how to use phonic knowledge to read less familiar words that share common letter patterns but have different pronunciations</strong>&lt;br&gt;Navigate and read texts for specific purposes applying appropriate text processing strategies, for example predicting and confirming, monitoring meaning, skimming and scanning&lt;br&gt;Use comprehension strategies to analyse information, integrating and linking ideas from a variety of print and digital sources&lt;br&gt;Identify and explain characteristic text structures and language features used in imaginative, informative and persuasive texts to meet the purpose of the text</td>
<td><strong>Understand how to use phonic knowledge and accumulated understandings about blending, letter-sound relationships, common and uncommon letter patterns and phonic generalisations to read increasingly complex words</strong>&lt;br&gt;Select, navigate and read texts for a range of purposes, applying appropriate text processing strategies and interpreting structural features, for example table of contents, glossary, chapters, headings and subheadings&lt;br&gt;Use comprehension strategies to interpret and analyse information and ideas, comparing content from a variety of textual sources including media and digital texts&lt;br&gt;Analyse how text structures and language features work together to meet the purpose of a text</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Australian Curriculum: English

### Reading and Viewing – relevant Content Descriptors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 3</th>
<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
<th>Year 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Develop criteria for establishing personal preferences for literature</td>
<td>Discuss literary experiences with others, sharing responses and expressing a point of view</td>
<td>Present a point of view about particular literary texts using appropriate metalanguage, and reflecting on the viewpoints of others</td>
<td>Identify and explain how choices in language, for example modality, emphasis, repetition and metaphor, influence personal response to different texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Draw connections between personal experiences and the worlds of texts, and share responses with others</td>
<td>Use metalanguage to describe the effects of ideas, text structures and language features of literary texts</td>
<td>Use metalanguage to describe the effects of ideas, text structures and language features on particular audiences</td>
<td>Analyse strategies authors use to influence readers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify the point of view in a text and suggest alternative points of view</td>
<td>Discuss how authors and illustrators make stories exciting, moving and absorbing and hold readers’ interest by using various techniques, for example character development and plot tension</td>
<td>Recognise that ideas in literary texts can be conveyed from different viewpoints, which can lead to different kinds of interpretations and responses</td>
<td>Understand how authors often innovate on text structures and play with language features to achieve particular aesthetic, humorous and persuasive purposes and effects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discuss how language is used to describe the settings in texts, and explore how the settings shape the events and influence the mood of the narrative</td>
<td>Understand, interpret and experiment with sound devices and imagery, including simile, metaphor and personification, in narratives, shape poetry, songs, anthems and odes</td>
<td>Understand, interpret and experiment with sound devices and imagery, including simile, metaphor and personification, in narratives, shape poetry, songs, anthems and odes</td>
<td>Analyse and evaluate similarities and differences in texts on similar topics, themes or plots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discuss texts in which characters, events and settings are portrayed in different ways, and speculate on the authors’ reasons</td>
<td>Explain sequences of images in print texts and compare these to the ways hyperlinked digital texts are organised, explaining their effect on viewers’ interpretations</td>
<td>Identify, describe, and discuss similarities and differences between texts, including those by the same author or illustrator, and evaluate characteristics that define an author’s individual style</td>
<td>Identify, describe, and discuss similarities and differences between texts, including those by the same author or illustrator, and evaluate characteristics that define an author’s individual style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discuss the nature and effects of some language devices used to enhance meaning and shape the reader’s reaction, including rhythm and onomatopoeia in poetry and prose</td>
<td>Explore the effect of choices when framing an image, placement of elements in the image, and salience on composition of still and moving images in a range of types of texts</td>
<td>Investigate how the organisation of texts into chapters, headings, subheadings, home pages and sub-pages for online texts and according to chronology or topic can be used to predict content and assist navigation</td>
<td>Identify the relationship between words, sounds, imagery and language patterns in narratives and poetry such as ballads, limericks and free verse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify the effect on audiences of techniques, for example shot size, vertical camera angle and layout in picture books, advertisements and film segments</td>
<td>Identify features of online texts that enhance readability including text, navigation, links, graphics and layout</td>
<td>Identify and explain how analytical images like figures, tables, diagrams, maps and graphs contribute to our understanding of verbal information in factual and persuasive texts</td>
<td>Identify and explain how analytical images like figures, tables, diagrams, maps and graphs contribute to our understanding of verbal information in factual and persuasive texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify the features of online texts that enhance navigation</td>
<td></td>
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### Good Teaching: Literacy 3–6

**Reading and viewing**
### Australian Curriculum: English

#### Reading and Viewing – relevant Achievement Standards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 3</th>
<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
<th>Year 6</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students understand how content can be organised using different text structures depending on the purpose of the text. They understand how language features, images and vocabulary choices are used for different effects. They read texts that contain varied sentence structures, a range of punctuation conventions, and images that provide additional information. They use phonics and word knowledge to fluently read more complex words. They identify literal and implied meaning connecting ideas in different parts of a text. They select information, ideas and events in texts that relate to their own lives and to other texts. They listen to others’ views and respond appropriately using interaction skills.</td>
<td>Students understand that texts have different text structures depending on purpose and context. They explain how language features, images and vocabulary are used to engage the interest of audiences and describe literal and implied meaning connecting ideas in different texts. They fluently read texts that include varied sentence structures, unfamiliar vocabulary including multisyllabic words. They express preferences for particular types of texts, and respond to others’ viewpoints. They listen for and share key points in discussions.</td>
<td>Students explain how text structures assist in understanding the text. They understand how language features, images and vocabulary influence interpretations of characters, settings and events. When reading, they encounter and decode unfamiliar words using phonic, grammatical, semantic and contextual knowledge. They analyse and explain literal and implied information from a variety of texts. They describe how events, characters and settings in texts are depicted and explain their own responses to them.</td>
<td>Students understand how the use of text structures can achieve particular effects. They analyse and explain how language features, images and vocabulary are used by different authors to represent ideas, characters and events. Students compare and analyse information in different and complex texts, explaining literal and implied meaning. They select and use evidence from a text to explain their response to it.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Planning

Teachers and educators use the tabled curriculum information to plan by backward mapping from the curriculum outcomes. According to the level the students are operating at, teachers refer to the Australian Curriculum, using the achievement standards and the content descriptors of the English curriculum and the expected indicators in the Australian Curriculum Literacy Learning Continuum to set instructional goals.

The following reading and viewing activities describe the sorts of learning opportunities teachers need to create in order to develop the required, stated learning in the table, both for literacy and for the English learning that underpins it.
What does reading involve?

As we can see from the diagram below, reading involves the construction of meaning as the reader engages with the text. The interaction between the reader and the text is influenced by the context, including the ways in which the teacher supports the reading process.

Here we will look in turn at the reader, the text and the context.

The reader

Students should not see themselves as passive consumers of texts but as active participants in meaning-making. The meaning of a text is not ‘given’ and unchanging. The meaning differs from reader to reader: the reader’s age, home language and culture, level of proficiency in English, knowledge of the topic and prior experiences all play a part in how the text is interpreted.

Engagement

Motivation and engagement are critical to becoming successful readers. It goes without saying that a student who is not motivated to read will fall increasingly behind, not only in their reading competence but in all areas of the curriculum. Lack of engagement can arise for a number of reasons: problems with basic skills; limited vocabulary; personal issues; prior negative experiences; boredom; and so on.

Teaching implications

Effective teachers take a range of actions to support each student’s engagement:

• build the student’s confidence and self-esteem by providing safe opportunities
for them to demonstrate achievement and by celebrating effort and success

- build their sense of identity as a developing reader rather than a reluctant or failing reader
- model your own enthusiasm for reading
- assess the student’s decoding skills and comprehension strategies and provide individual assistance in identified areas of need, with the assistance of a literacy or EAL specialist if needed
- collaboratively develop a set of manageable, relevant and personally meaningful reading goals for the student to work towards and emphasise the value of persistence, practice and effort
- provide explicit feedback on progress in meeting reading goals
- embed authentic purposes for reading into tasks that connect with the student’s life
- model how to use the reading strategies required for a particular task
- ensure that texts are within the student’s instructional level – though allowing for more challenging texts that have high interest
- provide reading material that aligns with the student’s interests and hobbies
- spark their curiosity about an unfamiliar topic and then provide them with relevant reading material
- build on the student’s out-of-school reading as a bridge towards more academic reading
- exploit the student’s interest in and use of digital technologies to strengthen their reading
- minimise distractions in the learning environment
- impress upon students the importance of reading to school success, in their daily lives, and in their future working lives.

Knowledge base

A reader brings to the reading of a text a deal of background knowledge and personal experience that impacts on their interpretation of the text. Background knowledge can include different types of knowledge structures (known as ‘schemata’):

- content knowledge – knowledge of the topic and concepts for reading in a particular subject area
- language knowledge – knowledge of the organisation of a text – how texts are structured to achieve their purposes; cohesion patterns; paragraphing; text layout and relationship between written text and images; knowledge of sentence structures and grammatical patterns; knowledge of vocabulary, technical terms, figurative language and idioms
- cultural knowledge – general world knowledge and knowledge of the cultural context surrounding the text, including values, beliefs, behaviours, customs and attitudes held by members of a community.

Students who bring inappropriate or limited schemata to the reading of a text can find it difficult to connect with the text.

Students’ schemata develop and change in the process of reading the text. The meaning of the text develops and changes as the text is read — and the reader also changes and evolves over the course of reading the text.

Teaching implications

- Before reading a text, activate students’ content knowledge by helping them connect with the topic. If the text is an information report on spiders, for example, ask the class to share what they know about different types of spiders, where they live, what they do, what they eat, and so on. This will reveal not only what they know, but also where there are gaps or misconceptions. If students’ knowledge of the topic is limited, help to build up their understanding of the topic before reading the text so that they are able to focus on understanding the text rather than struggling with too many unfamiliar concepts.
Help students to predict how the text will unfold by identifying their language knowledge. If they have not encountered a particular text type before as a reader, they might need to be familiarised with how it is typically organised. If students are reading a narrative, for example, it helps if they know that there will probably be a complication that will need to be resolved in some way. If students in Years 3–4 begin reading fantasy, for example, it helps if they know to expect magic, quests, heroes, signs, dangers and triumphs over evils; similarly, in Years 5–6, students encountering biography need to be able to distinguish between fact and opinion and be aware that readers will be ‘set up’ to accept a particular point of view.

If the text is from a different historical period or presents unfamiliar cultural knowledge, discuss with the students how texts can arouse our curiosity and help us develop insights into different traditions, values and ways of thinking. When reading The Journey to the West, for example, students would benefit from understanding something about Chinese religious beliefs, the idea of a pilgrimage, the popularity of the Monkey King in China, and elements of Chinese folklore such as dragons, demons, animal lords, mythical creatures and turtles.

Decoding skills

The word-decoding skills of students in Years 3–6 should by now be relatively automatic. However, many students will need to consolidate and extend the code-breaking skills learnt in the previous years. (For further detail on decoding skills, see Good Teaching Literacy K–2). These skills include more complex relationships between letters (and letter patterns) and the sounds they make (phonics), as well as acquiring an increasing repertoire of sight words.

Phonic knowledge: Where monitoring reveals that a student is struggling with phonic skills, diagnostic assessment should identify specific areas in need of intensive attention. If the problem is broader, a program should be put in place that explicitly and systematically develops phonic skills in a logical sequence. Given the urgency at this stage of schooling, it is sometimes advisable to use a professionally developed program for students experiencing such difficulties, unless the class teacher has the expertise to develop a customised program.

Sight words: While students will have been developing a store of basic sight words in the early years, students in the upper primary years should be introduced to increasingly complex high frequency words that they should be able to readily comprehend without consciously decoding using phonics. Before students can automatically comprehend such complex words, they need to experience them in many different contexts.

To see the Oxford Word List of the 404 most frequently used words by Years 3 and 4 students, go to: http://www.oup.com.au/primary/professional_support/research/oxford_wordlist

Fluency: By the upper primary years, the foundational reading skills should be integrated and automatic. Because fluent readers are able to read more quickly, they can encounter more words, engage with a greater range of texts, and become increasingly proficient and confident.

Fluency can be recognised in terms of:

- **Accuracy**: fluent readers make few errors in reading. Of course, they might make plausible miscues every so often, but generally they have a confident control over letter-sound relationships and sight words.

- **Pace**: fluent readers don’t plod ponderously through a passage, stumbling over words. Speed does not necessarily indicate comprehension, however. There will be times when a reader will want to take time, re-read and savour a text. But generally, a fluent reader will be able to quickly skim a text and read aloud with ease.

- **Intonation**: fluent readers don’t read word by word in a monotone. Their use of intonation and appropriate pausing indicates that they are reading for meaning, recognising meaningful chunks.

Teaching implications

To support students’ growing mastery of decoding skills, effective teachers:

- assess students’ mastery of basic decoding skills on entry to Year 3 and develop individual or group learning programs to address identified weaknesses

- monitor students’ progress in any areas where there is concern
• continue to revisit basic decoding skills as necessary (e.g. onset and rime, short and long vowels, consonant blends/clusters, common vowel and consonant digraphs) during guided reading sessions

• introduce more advanced decoding skills in the context of shared and guided reading e.g. breaking longer words into syllables, uncommon letter patterns, homophones, phonic generalisations

• develop fluency through repeated engagements with the same text in the context of such activities as shared reading, guided reading and independent reading

• enhance fluency through choral reading, where the class (or a group) mimics the teacher reading a favourite story or poem phrase by phrase

• use Readers Theatre as a context for fluency development, as students develop scripts, perform in groups, and practise using their voice to portray characters from texts.

Comprehension processes

The ultimate goal in reading is to understand and use texts. Reading skills are only important if they contribute towards this outcome. Reading is a complex thinking and problem-solving activity. While decoding skills tend to operate at the level of the individual word, comprehension takes place in the context of the whole text, where readers can integrate a number of skills and strategies to construct meaning. Successful comprehension changes the reader by generating new levels of knowledge and insight.

Comprehension processes include:

• **Predicting**: Students predict what might come next in the text to confirm or adjust their ongoing interpretation.

• **Skimming**: A technique used by strategic, efficient readers to quickly ascertain whether a text is relevant to their purpose and which parts might be of interest. Readers also skim in order to get the overall gist of the text.

• **Scanning**: A process which involves locating specific pieces of information. It usually follows skimming, so that the reader has identified relevant texts and is aware of how the text is organised. Ask students to scan a text for critical details in relation to a particular task. These can be highlighted and can form the basis for guided note making.

• **Using context**: When students come across an unfamiliar word, they can often work out the meaning from the surrounding text.

• **Reading on and reading back**: When encountering confusion, students often benefit from looking ahead to see how the text unfolds or re-reading the preceding text.

• **Visualising**: To aid comprehension and recall of details, students are encouraged to build mental pictures or images while reading. (See Appendix 3.1 for some graphic organisers to support visualisation.)

• **Summarising**: When readers bring together the main meaning of a paragraph or text. Students are able to differentiate between the main ideas and supporting details.

• **Monitoring and self-correcting**: Students self-monitor their understanding and use ‘repair strategies’ if meaning is disrupted.

• **Making inferences**: Readers ‘read between the lines’, inferring meanings that are not directly in the text.

• **Tracking**: Readers follow the meaning by tracking the relationship between elements of the text created through cohesive devices such as pronouns, connectives, synonyms, antonyms and repetition.

• **Connecting written text and images**: Students can make connections between visual elements and the written text, without being over-dependent on images to make meaning.

**Teaching implications**

Most comprehension strategies need to be taught explicitly, particularly to students who are struggling with reading comprehension. Students should be able to explain the strategies they are using. To support students, effective teachers use a range of techniques.

• Pose different types of questions (preferably related to a broader task).
  - Literal questions to see if students can locate relevant information that is ‘right there’ in the text.
- Synthesising questions that ask students to integrate information from various parts of the text or from different texts.
- Inferential questions where students need to draw on their background knowledge to respond to questions where the answer isn’t directly stated in the text.

- Model to the students how you would skim a text for the main gist and to see whether it is useful for a particular task.
- During shared reading sessions, ask students to predict what they expect to encounter and why. Then get them to check whether their predictions were accurate and how they might have changed as the text unfolded.
- As you read a text aloud, model how you would deal with any potential reading problems you encounter. Ask students to suggest a possible strategy. Discuss how they could use the strategy when reading independently.
- Teach students to monitor their comprehension of the text: what don’t they understand? Why was meaning disrupted? What strategy could they use to fix the problem?
- During guided reading, check whether students can make links between the pronoun (e.g. it, they, this, his) and who/what the pronoun is referring back to. See if they can ‘fill in the blank’ for words that have been omitted (e.g. His mother said to come inside when it started to rain but he didn’t want to [...]) (See the section on Grammar and Punctuation for more information on cohesion.)
- Show students how to use various apps to enhance comprehension when reading online e.g. http://www.readingrockets.org/literacyapps/comprehension.
- Ask students to summarise the main points for someone else by retelling, listing, note-taking or mind mapping their understanding. Teach them how to distinguish main ideas from supporting details.
- Demonstrate how to make mental pictures while reading a text e.g. visualising the characters or the setting or an incident.

Get students to demonstrate their understanding of a text by representing the information/ideas in visual form. (See Appendix 3.1 for a range of graphic organisers that represent the structure of a text depending on its purpose.) The text below, for example, is a part/whole type of information report. Students were asked to read the text, draw the outline of a camel, and then find the different parts of a camel and their functions and use this information to label the diagram.

### Camels (Information report – part-whole pattern)

A camel’s **thick coat** reflects sunlight, and also insulates them from the intense heat of the desert sand. Their **long legs** help by keeping them further from the hot ground. The **wide cloven feet** of these beasts of burden spread out so they won’t sink in the sand. Their **long eyelashes and ear hairs** keep the sand and dust out and a **third eyelid** acts as a windshield wiper, moving from side to side to wipe the sand away. They can also close their nostrils to keep sand out. They have a **ridge and thick bushy eyebrows** to shade their eyes from the sun. Even though **their ears** are quite small, they have excellent hearing. The **hump** is used to store fat. The hump of young camels is tender and considered a delicacy but the meat of older camels is tough and less prized.
For greater detail about activities to develop the above comprehension strategies and more, see: Teaching reading and viewing: Comprehension strategies and activities for Years 1–9 Queensland Studies Authority, 2010 https://www.qcaa.qld.edu.au/downloads/p_10/engl_teach_read_view_comprehension.pdf

**Text interaction strategies**

Reading is a dynamic process, where the reader constructs meaning in interaction with the text. As the reading proceeds, the meaning accumulates and evolves.

**Teaching implications**

Students in Years 3–6 need explicit support to learn how to connect, analyse, synthesise, interpret, appreciate and evaluate ideas in texts. This involves detailed, close reading and gradually learning to find evidence from the text to justify one’s interpretation. Use the following strategies sparingly so as not to inhibit students’ desire to read.

- **Strategic reading:** Rather than expecting students to simply comprehend a text, help them to take on the role of ‘text user’, providing them with a purpose for active, strategic reading. For example, purposes could include: to follow a procedure in order to do an activity; to find out how something works; to consider a different perspective on an issue; to critique a poorly written text; to draw on a text as a model for their own writing; to undertake a problem-based task.

- **Connecting:** While reading a text, ask questions that help students make connections with:
  - something in their own life (text to self): Remember when ….? Have you ever ….?  
  - another text (text to text): Does this character remind you of ….? How does the message of this text connect with the theme we found in ….? What other texts have we read where ….? Is this information similar to what we found in the other text we read about crocodiles?  
  - something occurring in the world (text to world): What did you learn from the documentary to help you understand the background to this story of refugees?

- **Analysing:** Provide students with tools to analyse ideas and information in texts: What is the purpose of this text? How do you know? How is it organised? What language resources are used to bring the characters to life? What does this text say about the differences and similarities of the geography of Australia and Indonesia? What are the key words in this maths problem? Can you find the properties of metals from the text? How does the text classify different kinds of birds?

- **Synthesising:** While analysing involves pulling a text apart, synthesising involves integrating ideas and information from a text (or more than one text) with the reader’s prior knowledge to create a new level of understanding – transforming parts into a whole, moving from the details to a concept or insight. Ask students to organise a number of points from their reading into larger categories e.g: The reasons people migrated to Australia … (ACHASSK109)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Notes from reading</th>
<th>‘Big ideas’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Escape from wars</td>
<td>Economic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persecution</td>
<td>Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No job prospects</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Want to reunite with family</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Gold rushes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Free land</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Famine</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Better education</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Want freedom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A place to call home</td>
<td>Better lifestyle</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• **Interpreting:** Rather than accepting the text at face value, ask students to interpret the meanings that the text makes available: What do you think is the theme/message of *The Island*? What do you think the coat symbolises in *The Coat*? Why do you think the author named the bat ‘Stellaluna’? Why does the character say ‘My heart is like a zoo’? Why is the Yellow Spider referred to as a ‘dream weaver’? What is the significance of National Sorry Day for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities? From whose point of view was this journey of the First Fleet written? Does this historical recount portray Ned Kelly as a hero or villain? What does this graph tell us? Do you think this statement is a fact or an opinion? Why has the author of this persuasive text used modality (‘might’, ‘perhaps’, ‘could’)? What is the effect on the reader of the use of humour?

• **Appreciating:** Sometimes we just want to take pleasure in the language choices that the author has made. Guide students to notice and enjoy such features as word play in poetry, innovation on text structure, the use of vivid metaphors and similes, humorous touches, a particular style, unusual vocabulary, memorable description.

• **Critically reflecting and evaluating:** Guide students to evaluate content, structure, language and images used to construct meaning in a text: Can you find any evidence of bias? Why did the author include that? What criteria could you use when expressing an opinion for your preferences for a particular poem? What strategies did the author use to influence the reader? Is this source trustworthy? Whose voice/perspective is missing from this text? Who is not represented in this image? Can you rewrite this scene from a different point of view? Is the text clearly written and well organised?

• **Reading for detail:** Provide students with a photocopied text. On the first reading, they read for overall meaning. On the second reading, get them to mark the text with annotations such as:
  - circling unfamiliar words
  - putting a question mark next to bits they didn’t understand
  - ticking those bits that they do understand
  - highlighting topic sentences
  - underlining key words
  - placing an asterisk next to particularly significant parts of the text
  - identifying significant, new or interesting bits with an exclamation mark
  - making comments and asking questions about the content (why? how? what?)
  - making connections with other texts.

At first, only introduce a couple of annotation symbols at a time, gradually increasing them. When students are confident with how they can interact with a text in various ways, the symbols can give way to annotations that are more specific to a particular task.

On a third reading, pose text-dependent questions that relate to the current task.
The text
The nature of the text influences the ways in which students interact with it. Students should be exposed to a wide range of texts for different purposes, including imaginative texts, informative texts and persuasive texts dealing with a variety of topics from across the curriculum. Literary texts can include traditional classics along with contemporary choices, across a range of genre and sub-genre.

Interest level
Some texts have the ability to intrigue, excite, arouse curiosity and capture the imagination. These are the texts that engage and generate a love of reading.

Putting it into practice
• Find out about students’ interests and suggest books that match their interests and reading level.
• Sometimes, ask students to rate the appeal of books they read, preferably providing a reason, being careful not to turn rating into a chore that dampens students’ enthusiasm.
• Ensure that students are exposed to well-written texts that are outside of their usual areas of interest.
• While it is quite legitimate for students to enjoy reading celebrity magazines, comics, Facebook posts, fashion articles, sports reports and the like for recreational purposes, it is important to broaden their horizons with texts that encourage them to venture into unexplored areas.
• Many students find informative texts to be of high interest.
• Explain to students that not all texts are of equally high interest, but that sometimes the subject matter of a text is important for subject learning purposes. Explain that they need to be able to access information from sources such as textbooks that might not seem immediately captivating.

• By Years 3–6, most students should be beyond levelled readers with controlled vocabulary and structures. If there are students who still seem to need such support, make sure that it is balanced with high interest texts to maintain the student’s enthusiasm for reading.

Text complexity
A key consideration in matching students with texts is the level of complexity of the text. The level of complexity can be due to factors such as unfamiliar subject matter; uncommon, abstract or technical vocabulary; confusing grammatical structures; the organisation of the text; or the type of images and the relationship between text and image.

Putting it into practice
• It is generally thought that texts that are beyond the student’s instructional reading level will cause frustration. There are, however, many examples of well-written, quality texts with high interest level that are nevertheless written in an accessible way, so it is not necessary to resort to ‘dumbed down’ texts.
• If a complex text is of high interest for the student, the student is often keen to tackle the text regardless, using a variety of strategies to make meaning.
• Don’t avoid complex texts. At some stage, students will need to deal with them. Rather, teach students how to read such texts during modelled, guided and shared reading sessions.
• Calculating the difficulty level of a text is not straightforward. There are a number of online tools that measure text complexity. They only work with digitised texts, however, and generally use fairly rough measures such as word length, number of syllables, sentence length, and so on. Another way to get an idea of how readable a text is by noting the number of inaccuracies as the student reads. A score of around 90-95% accuracy indicates that the text is within the student’s comfort range.
A ‘Goldilocks’ common sense approach is the best guide text complexity – not too hard, not too easy, but ‘just right’. Students will generally be able to identify the ‘just right’ texts – though there should always be an element of challenge so that students’ understanding is constantly growing.

Text selection
There is no single criterion for the selection of texts to share with students. The choice of text will depend on the nature of the reading activity.

Putting it into practice
When selecting texts, effective teachers apply a range of criteria to different reading contexts.

• When reading aloud to students during modelled or shared reading sessions, the text should be engaging, thought provoking, and well written. It is not necessary for the text to be within the students’ comprehension level as the teacher will be scaffolding students’ understanding of the text in various ways.

• When selecting, creating or modifying mentor texts as models for students’ writing, the text should be within students’ instructional reading level and provide good, clear examples of the target language feature/s, the organisation of the text, grammatical resources, vocabulary and visual elements.

• When students are reading to consolidate skills and strategies, as in guided reading, the text should be within their instructional reading level (90-95% accuracy) so that they are not distracted by over-complex vocabulary or grammatical structures.

• When students are reading recreationally, they should be encouraged to select texts for personal interest, including texts within their reading level for sustained reading, but not excluding books beyond their current reading level or outside their usual choice of texts.

Text purpose and organisation
Texts are structured differently depending on their social purpose. It is generally recognised that knowledge of text structure promotes successful reading. Readers are able to predict how the text will unfold and to anticipate the kinds of relationships between ideas (Strangman, Hall & Meyer 2003).

Putting it into practice
• Start by getting students to compare the structure of two basic text types e.g.
  - a recount: orientation (introducing who, when, where) followed by a sequence of events
  - a compare/contrast information report: introduction to topic followed by contrasting features.

• Ask students to identify key signal words that help to organise the text type and guide the reader through the text e.g.
  - recount: yesterday, after that, then, later
  - compare/contrast report: in contrast, similarly, on the other hand, however...

• Provide students with a few different graphics organisers representing different text structures (see Appendix 3.1) and see if they can match the text to the relevant graphic organiser e.g.
Mode and medium

The way in which we read a text is influenced by the mode and medium in use. While traditionally we tend to focus on the reading of print texts, these days there is much greater emphasis on other modes such as the reading of images – both still and moving – and multimodal texts, with the combination of written text and images. (See the section on Viewing). And with the advent of digital technologies, the nature of reading has changed dramatically depending on the medium of communication. We don’t read multimodal texts in the same way as we do print texts. Navigating through texts on the Internet is a very different reading experience from reading a print novel or a text message or an interactive app or digital textbook. Research has shown that the choice of medium significantly affects the ability to recall even a simple, sequenced text.

Putting it into practice

Help students to explore the different challenges and advantages presented by print and digital texts e.g.
- the busy layout of the digital page and the mental effort in constantly adjusting to different layouts
- scrolling vs page turning
- navigating through websites as opposed to referring to multiple books
- the tendency to skim rather than read deeply in a sustained manner, potentially leading to superficial reading rather than analysis and evaluation
- difficulty in annotating a digital text
- overload of choice and complexity with online texts
- the distractions of pop-up ads and text messages
- the temptation of games and the need for self-regulation
- the ability to readily access reading tools online such as dictionaries and embedded videos.

Good reading of print doesn’t necessarily convert to good reading online – and vice versa. Students need different kinds of reading instruction to excel in both media. Model for the class, for example, how you would gather online information for a task: which key words would you insert into the browser? How might you need to adapt them to be more specific/relevant? How could you demonstrate using an app such as OneNote (https://www.onenote.com/classnotebook) to make notes while reading? How do you evaluate the relevance, reliability, complexity and usefulness of sites that you visit? How many sites would you visit?

The context

The instructional context plays a significant role in the development of successful readers. This includes the expectation that all students can become competent readers, the celebration of reading achievement, the enjoyment of reading, the kind of support provided by the teacher, and the nature of the reading required for various learning tasks.

Establishing a reading culture

Successful reading flourishes in a community that values reading as a precious resource enabling students to stretch their imaginations and take flight into unknown worlds beyond their own experience. Rather than seeing reading as a tedious chore to be endured in the ‘reading lesson’, students are encouraged to take pleasure in reading and to read voraciously – inside and outside the classroom.

Putting it into practice

To establish a reading culture, effective teachers:

• regularly engage students in extensive reading activities and encourage them to be eager readers
• become a living model of an avid reader: talk about the books you are currently reading or looking forward to reading; share the pleasure you gain from reading fiction and non-fiction texts; show them texts you are reading on your tablet or phone; introduce them to online book clubs such as Goodreads
• every day, read aloud and expressively to the class or groups of students
• draw the students in by reading the opening paragraphs of a story and then pass the book on to a student for later independent reading
• establish a daily routine of students reading quality material from the class library (picture books, caption books, poems, chapters from accessible children’s novels, information texts)
• refresh the class library regularly with a range of relevant reading material
• have procedures in place to make it easy to borrow books to take home
• encourage students to share their favourite books
• develop an expectation that students will read whenever there is a spare moment e.g. between activities, during interruptions
• monitor students’ reading choices and suggest books that might be of interest
• involve families in their children’s reading, providing them with suggestions for books to buy or borrow from the library
• ensure that students have ready access to digital media and know how to navigate to find appropriate material
• organise welcoming and inviting reading spaces for individual, pair and group reading activities.

The reading task
In real life, reading is not simply a matter of decoding skills or comprehension strategies. We read in order to do things. The classroom context provides opportunities for students to engage with texts for a range of purposes, promoting active, strategic reading. In Years 3–6, the range of purposes for reading will expand considerably as students engage in increasingly complex tasks across the curriculum.

Putting it into practice
• When designing tasks and activities, identify the reading challenges of the task and ensure that students are clear about the expectations.
• Support students in knowing how to vary their reading strategies depending on the nature of the task. Reading a novel for pleasure, for example, is very different from reading a procedure for an experiment or researching a topic for an information report. Some tasks require sustained reading of a whole text while others might involve scanning the text for specific information or careful reading of a brief text such as a maths problem.
• Consider how you would help students to meet the reading demands of tasks such as the following:
  - understanding explanations of natural phenomena e.g. Earth’s surface changes over time as a result of natural processes and human activity (Year 4: Australian Curriculum Science)
  - finding information on various topics e.g. Days and weeks celebrated or commemorated in Australia and the importance of symbols and emblems (Year 3: Australian Curriculum History)
  - getting to know significant people from various cultures and historical periods through biographies and autobiographies e.g. Important contributions to the advancement of science have been made by people from a range of cultures (Year 5: Australian Curriculum Science)
  - understanding how scientists classify the world e.g. The types of natural vegetation and the significance of vegetation to the environment and to people (Year 4: Australian Curriculum Geography)
  - analysing literary texts e.g. Discuss how language is used to describe the settings in texts, and explore how the settings shape the events and influence the mood of the narrative (Year 3: Australian Curriculum English)
- solving maths problems e.g. Solve problems involving multiplication of large numbers by one – or two-digit numbers using efficient mental, written strategies and appropriate digital technologies (Year 5 Australian Curriculum Mathematics)
- reading recounts of personal experience e.g. Stories of groups of people who migrated to Australia and the reasons they migrated, such as World War II and Australian migration programs since the war. (Year 6 Australian Curriculum History).

- Teach research skills, such as:
  - identifying relevant, trustworthy information from sources such as the Internet or the library
  - taking brief notes of key ideas from different sources without copying slabs of text
  - organising notes using a graphic organiser that reflects the purpose of the task (see Appendix 3.1) e.g. a compare/contrast pattern
  - synthesising information from notes into a coherent text (perhaps using the graphic organiser as a scaffold).

Scaffolding practices
One of the key roles of a teacher is to design aspects of the learning context, including providing a range of scaffolding practices to ensure that all students are able to read confidently, fluently and independently. Practices such as modelled, shared and guided reading are explicated in the following section.
Scaffolding reading and viewing

Reading and viewing
Gradual release of responsibility

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Teacher focused ('I do')</th>
<th>Shared ('we do/I lead')</th>
<th>Guided (shifting to 'you do')</th>
<th>Collaborative ('students do together')</th>
<th>Independent ('you do')</th>
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<tr>
<td>The teacher takes major responsibility for introducing targeted aspects of reading. This might be through explicit teaching in the form of a 'mini lesson' or through modelling, using a 'think-aloud' strategy. Each session has a planned focus and this learning intention should be shared with the students. (See p.45)</td>
<td>The teacher engages students in reading an enlarged text over a sequence of lessons, leading them to apply reading skills and strategies previously introduced and to observe features of the text, often in preparation for writing a similar text. (See p.45)</td>
<td>The teacher works with small groups of students who have similar reading levels. Students take greater responsibility for reading while teacher observes and intervenes as necessary to develop and reinforce skills and strategies. (See p.47)</td>
<td>Students read a text collaboratively in groups or pairs. This might involve activities practising the skills and strategies introduced previously. Such group work can take place while the teacher is involved with a guided reading group. (See p.47)</td>
<td>Independent reading is a time when students self-select and independently read appropriate books, applying and consolidating the reading strategies previously introduced and demonstrating understanding. (See p.48)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The focus shifts from the teacher explicitly teaching a specific aspect of reading (teacher-focused reading) to gradually involving the students in exploring the new knowledge as they share a text with scaffolding from the teacher (shared reading). The new understandings are then rehearsed in small groups (guided and collaborative reading), including opportunities for teacher monitoring and responsive feedback, until the students can apply the new knowledge on their own (independent reading). Although these teaching strategies represent a general progression in learning and independence, they are not necessarily taught in a linear, sequential fashion. Indeed, students may need to return to ‘an earlier stage’ when they tackle more challenging texts.
A. Teacher focused (‘I do’)  

In brief mini-lessons, the teacher introduces or extends a specific aspect of reading such as a comprehension strategy, fluency, a language feature, or vocabulary. The text is typically quality literature or a well-written informative text related to a curriculum task. It does not need to be at the students’ instructional level, as it will be scaffolded by the teacher.

Such mini-lessons sometimes take the form of modelling. As the teacher reads aloud to the class, they model a selected reading strategy, generally through a ‘think aloud’ technique. Before reading, the teacher annotates the text with comments and questions that a reader might ask at identified points during the reading e.g.

‘I wonder how I can work out the meaning of this word?’

‘I’m not sure how to pronounce this long word – maybe I can break it into syllables.’

‘I didn’t understand that bit – I’ll need to go back and read the sentence beforehand.’

‘I wonder why …?’

‘I wonder what the next section might be about?’

‘Maybe the pictures, graphs, headings or captions can help me.’

- Each session has a planned focus.
- An enlarged text should be clearly visible to all students.

B. Shared reading (‘we do/I lead’)  

During shared reading the students actively participate with the teacher in creating meaning from a quality literary or informative text. Generally, shared reading is conducted over a number of days using the same text, and includes a selection of practices such as the following.

Preparation phase:

- Select a quality text that is relevant to the students’ interests and/or the current topic, asking yourself such questions as:
  - Will it appeal to the students?
  - Is there a big idea or theme to explore?
  - Are there opportunities for thinking deeply?
  - Do students have the necessary background knowledge?
  - What are the vocabulary demands?
  - Are the illustrations engaging?
  - Do the story and the illustrations present cultural diversity in positive ways?

See Appendix 3.3 for sample lists of quality children’s literature.
• Prepare comments and questions on sticky notes at places where you want to create discussion.

• Enlarge the text so that it provides a shared point of reference e.g. big book, smartboard, visualiser.

**Orienting phase:**
• Prepare the students by discussing the topic/author/illustrator, asking students to predict from cover, title, illustrations, etc.
• Introduce any key vocabulary that is critical to understanding the main thrust of the text.

**While reading phase:**
• Read the text first for students’ pleasure or information, modelling effective reading expression.

• Then re-read the text – usually over a few days – involving the students through questions about targeted aspects of comprehension e.g.
  - links to students’ experience, to other texts and to the world
  - the message: the main idea; important facts; storyline development; character development
  - the purpose of the text and its organisation
  - the images and the relationship between image and text
  - literal and inferred meanings
  - strategies for finding the meaning of unfamiliar words e.g. covering the word with a sticky note and getting students to infer the meaning from context
  - reading strategies (predicting, locating, checking, confirmation, self-correcting at the letter, word, or text level)
  - information skills (title, contents, cover, illustrations, index, glossary)
  - any relevant language features e.g. rhyme, rhythm, vocabulary and grammar.

**Consolidation and expansion phase:**
Post-reading practices can include independent re-reading of the text, reconstructing the text (or part of the text) prompting memory by referring to the text or images, innovating on the text, illustrating events or information from the text, dramatising the text, making links to other texts, and responding to the text through questions such as:
  - What do you think is the difference between this story on monsters and this book about sea animals?
  - Who was your favourite character in the story? Why?
  - What was the most exciting part of the story? Why?
  - Why do you think xxx did xxx?
  - What would have happened if xxx?
  - How do you think xxx felt when xxx?
  - Can you draw this monster as I read out the description from the story?
  - Can you think of a different ending for the story?
  - What was the most interesting fact you learned about sharks?
  - Have you ever seen water creatures in real life? What type? Can you sort these pictures into different types of sea creatures? Can you put labels on the different parts of this whale diagram?
C. Guided reading (shifting to ‘you do’)

Guided reading provides opportunities for students to independently apply and practise the strategies introduced in teacher-focused and shared reading sessions. In a small group, the teacher orients the students to an instructional level text, introducing new vocabulary and reviewing key skills and strategies. As the students then read the text independently, the teacher moves around the group and listens to each student as they read a part of the text. The teacher supports the students as they take responsibility for gaining and maintaining meaning, controlling the choice of strategies, and developing accuracy and fluency.

The teacher’s role is to observe, prompt, ask questions, initiate problem-solving actions, or suggest alternatives when the reader is in danger of losing the meaning or becoming frustrated. The groupings are flexible, based on learners’ identified needs.

While the teacher is working with one group, the rest of the class can be in pairs or groups working on various reading activities, including collaborative reading (below).

See Appendix 3.3 for more detailed information on guided reading.

D. Collaborative reading (‘students do together’)

Students benefit from extensive practice in reading. Group work and pair work provide fruitful contexts for this to happen. Group work can involve structured activities where students read collaboratively in order to achieve an objective.

Paired reading can be used to promote fluency and confidence. Less fluent readers can be partnered with more fluent peers as ‘reading buddies’, either taking turns to read aloud sentences or paragraphs, reading simultaneously, or with the less proficient student listening as the other student reads and following the text by finger pointing.

A common collaborative reading activity is reciprocal teaching. In this activity, students in small groups take over the responsibility of investigating a text, drawing on previously modelled reading strategies such as predicting, questioning, clarifying and summarising. This is particularly effective with informative texts, especially textbooks, across various curriculum areas. To view a reciprocal reading session with Year 3 and 4 students, go to the AITSL website: http://www.teacherstandards.aiitsl.edu.au/Illustrations/ViewIOP/IOP00091/index.html
1. Predicting: students look at the cover and skim headings to predict what the text will be about.

2. Questioning: students generate different types of questions as they read:
   - right-there questions (answer in the text)
   - between-the-lines questions (inference needed)
   - critical thought questions (require their opinion)

3. Clarifying: students identify parts of the text that are unclear and can ask the other group members to clarify e.g. How do you pronounce that? What does the word mean? I think the author is saying ….

4. Summarising: students summarise verbally or use graphic overviews to summarise the main points of the text.

Individual students can be assigned the roles of predictor, questioner, clarifier or summariser.

E. Independent reading (‘you do’)

Students should be provided with many opportunities to independently read self-selected imaginative and informative texts (including online texts, digital interactive apps, graphic novels, and so on), either as a regular session during the week or whenever they have finished a task and have spare time. Having access to an individual collection of favourite texts at their reading level assists students to build independent reading stamina.

Readers workshop

Readers workshop brings together all the practices described previously in a daily reading session that includes:

- mini lessons on particular strategies or features of language
- shared reading of the current text
- teacher-student conferences where the teacher helps individual students or small groups with identified needs
- opportunities for collaborative reading
- independent reading of self-selected ‘just right’ texts (factual, fiction representing a range of topics, genres and authors), with older students keeping reading logs/journals of the books they have read and enjoyed
- closing conversations where students share insights and questions about what they learned from the session and connections that were made.

Viewing

While most attention is given to comprehending written text, these days images saturate the lives of students: in picture books and graphic novels, TV programs, cartoons, comics, diagrams, apps on tablets, video games, ads, photos, signs, symbols, and various multimodal and digital texts. It can’t be assumed that students will automatically know how to interpret such images in different forms and contexts. Students need ways of interpreting and talking about various types of images.

Putting it into practice

Imaginative texts

By considering points such as the following, students can be guided to appreciate how illustrators create imaginative worlds for the reader.

Characters
- Identify the main characters and minor characters in the story. Which characters appear in the illustrations?
• Ask students to visualise a character from a description in the text before seeing an illustration of the character (they might even draw the character as you read the description). See how their visualisation relates to the illustration. How do illustrations impact on the freedom of your imagination? Or do they help create richer descriptions of the characters than you can visualise?

• Develop a character network (a web of association) to describe the relationships between the characters (maybe including minor characters).

• What are the characteristics of each main character e.g.
  - How has the illustrator captured the personality/qualities of the character?
  - Is the character a human or animal (representing human)? If animal, which animal? Why has the author/illustrator chosen that particular animal? Is it a stock character (e.g. sly fox, sensible hen) or a specific individual?
  - What is the character wearing? How does the clothing help develop the character?

• How has the illustrator made you respond to the character e.g. do you feel empathy? fear? admiration?

• How realistic are the character illustrations? (like photographs? detailed and life-like? sketchy? fanciful? caricatures?) What difference does this make?

• What activities are the characters engaged in? How does this help to develop the character and their relationships e.g. actions, reflecting, interacting, initiating, reacting, feeling?

• Does the portrayal of the character change throughout the story? How? Why?

• How do the illustrations relate to the description in the written text? Do they mirror the written text? Do they add more than is in the written text? Do they contradict the written text? Look at the picture without reading the text. What do you notice? Now read the words. Do you notice more things/details than you did before?

With every book my first rule of thumb has been to not draw what is there already in the words. I try to find something from behind or between the words, something unsaid, something from the moment behind and beneath the moment, something about where those words come from, something from and about the heart, to then add to the words. (Drawn From the Heart, p. 296 R. Brooks, 2010).

• Have you seen other examples of characters by this illustrator? Can you notice any common features?

Setting and mood
• What is the physical setting of the story as represented visually? (Is it natural e.g. the bush, the seaside, the desert? Built e.g. the city, a village, inside a home? Real or imaginary?)

• What is the setting in time? What time of day do you think it is? What clues does the illustrator give? Is the time of day important for the reader? Do the illustrations portray a particular historical period?

• Does the illustrator include a particular social or cultural setting?

• What role does the setting play in the story?
• How are the characters positioned in the setting?

• Has the illustrator included any indication of the weather? What does this add to the story?

• How do the various colours create a particular mood e.g. ‘hot’ colours – excitement, happiness, anger; ‘cool’ colours – harmony, peace, sadness; ‘dark’ colours – mystery, gloominess, scariness.

• How does a certain artistic line style create a mood e.g. curves – warmth, safety; jagged, sharp – excitement, destruction, unease?

• Does the setting change during the story? How? Why? e.g. in Where the Wild Things Are (M. Sendak), the size and colour change as the story drama develops and then become smaller and less colourful as Max returns to his mundane life. In The Coat (J. Hunt & R. Brooks, Allen & Unwin, 2012), the illustrations begin in sepia tones, then colour is gradually added as the story progresses. Why? What happens to the landscape as the man travels? Do the scenes become more populated? Why? How are these changes in setting reflected in the end papers of the book?

• How does the setting and mood create suspense/empathy and the desire to read on? e.g. in The Stone Lion (M. Wild & R. Voutila, Little Hare, 2014) how do we feel at the double page spread of Sara in the snow? Do we want to find out what happens to her and the baby?

Creating relationships between image and reader

• How does the image invite you to interact by directing your gaze in a particular way e.g. face-to-face eye contact, averted gaze, free choice of gaze?

• How does the image construct a social distance e.g. by using a close, mid or long shot?

• How does an image in a narrative create a relationship between the characters e.g. in books by Anthony Browne such as Gorilla?

• How does the realism of the image affect the degree of interpretation involved e.g. what is the difference between a photo, a blurred image, a cartoon, a painting in terms of how much information/detail is provided and how much the viewer has to infer/imagine?

Composition

• How has the illustrator made certain features more prominent/drawn attention to a particular element of the illustration e.g. size, colour, position?

• What medium has been used e.g. pencil, watercolour, oils, chalk, charcoal, ink, collage, mixed media? What effect does this have?

Fox: That first picture was a real mixed-media job: a multilayered collage of bits and pieces of different papers, heavy impasto, oil paint, acrylic, ink, watercolour, shellac, oil sticks … and instead of drawing with pens, pencils or whatever, I gouged, scratched and scraped my way through all this stuff using kitchen forks, bits of wire, old dental tools, bits of rusty tin, sandpaper – whatever seemed to work – to find my lines. I then worked the oil sticks into and over the whole picture, working and rubbing them in across the entire surface, obliterating the whole image under deep black, red, blue, brown or green oil. After allowing this to dry a little, I rubbed and polished off the higher, flatter, smoother surfaces with soft cloth; laid glazes of acrylic and wash over the top, gouged back in again, varnished again with shellac; added more colour here and there – until I felt the image had everything I was able to find. Until I felt it matched the voice in the writing – the texture of the language. (Drawn from the Heart, pp. 282-283 R. Brooks, 2010)

• Has the illustrator used any unusual layout features? What is the effect e.g. space to create isolation, busyness to create energy, chaos?
• How are individual images framed? Does the
framing and layout change through the course
of the book? What effect does this have?
Are we allowed to see the whole picture of
something, or has the illustrator framed it to
focus on some features and exclude others?
• What is the ratio of written text to image?
• What typography/lettering style has been
used? Does this change at certain points in
the story e.g. size, colour, shape (smooth,
wavy, jagged), font? With what effect?

Informative texts:
Students need to be able to interpret the
variety of informative images encountered in
factual texts – either in print format or online.
We can’t assume that they will automatically
be able to comprehend such images fully.
• Use information big books to guide students
to identify elements of informative texts e.g.
diagrams, headings, table of contents, key
facts, glossary.
• Guide students to contrast the images in
imaginative and informative texts e.g. the
degree of realism, the creation of mood, the
expression of feelings, named characters vs.
non-living things, fantasy vs fact, and so on.
• Assess students’ comprehension by getting
them to retell or explain the information
provided by an image e.g. a table, a graph, a
system explanation, a timeline.
• Ask students to examine the relationship
between the visual and verbal text e.g. get
them to highlight those parts of the written
text that are represented in the image and
to consider what the image can do that the
written text can’t.
• Guide students to observe the composition
of informative images e.g. posters: how the
various elements are organised; how certain
features are made more prominent e.g. size,
colour, placement; how framing has been
used (or not).
• Ask students to identify the purpose of the
image and the kind of meaning it creates
(e.g. cause and effect, sequence in time,
explanation of a system, part/whole relations,
classification)

Note: Factual information is increasingly
presented in cross-genre formats. For example,
One Small Island, A. Lester & C Tulloch (Penguin/
Viking, 2011). This requires students to use
all their skills from reading fictional picture
books and their knowledge of how to read
graphs, captioned framed images, replicated
historical text and images with timelines.
The graphic organisers in Appendix 3.1
can provide students with understandings
about the different jobs that images do
and how the images vary depending on
their function e.g. to classify, to describe, to
compare, to explain. They can be used to:
• help students interpret the meaning of
an image
• take notes as they watch a documentary
• help students visualise the meaning
of a print text by representing their
understanding in visual form
• use as a scaffold for writing a text.

Monitoring and assessment
Teacher assessment practices
Most reading activities can also be used as
the basis of informal assessment. Teacher
assessment can range from casual observation
and interactions as students engage in reading
tasks through to keeping detailed checklists.
Such observations are used not only to map
progress over time but to inform teaching
practice in response to identified needs.
The following are just a few examples of the
areas of focus for teacher observation.

Self-perception as a reader is an important
indicator of reading development. All students
should be regularly monitored to observe
whether they are becoming avid readers
through, for example, student perceptions
of themselves as readers, the keeping of
reading logs, and informal discussions,
such as the reading interview below.
Burke Reading Interview Modified for Older Readers (BIMOR)

1. When you’re reading and you come to something you don’t know, what do you do? Do you ever do anything else?
2. Who is a good reader that you know?
3. What makes __________________________ a good reader?
4. Do you think __________________________ ever comes to something that gives him/her trouble when he/she is reading?
5. When __________________________ does come to something that gives him/her trouble, what do you think he/she does about it?
6. How would you help someone having difficulty reading?
7. What would a teacher do to help that person?
8. How did you learn to read?
9. Is there anything you would like to change about your reading?
10. Describe yourself as a reader: what kind of reader are you?
11. What do you read routinely, like every day or every week?
12. What do you like most of all to read?
13. Can you remember any special book or the most memorable one you have ever read?
14. What is the most difficult thing you have to read?

Comprehension can be assessed in the context of regular literacy activities such as:

Retelling
Ask the student to orally retell the passage, noting the extent to which the student is able to identify the main gist of the text and, where appropriate, to sequence the details in order.

Information transfer activities
Students demonstrate their understanding of a written text by representing the key ideas in another mode e.g. an illustration, a semantic map, a graphic overview, a dramatisation.

Frogs and Toads
Both frogs and toads are amphibians: they can live in water and on land. But they are not the same. You can tell the difference between frogs and toads by looking at their skin. The frog’s skin is smooth and moist, but the toad’s skin is generally rough, bumpy and dry. Frogs have long hind legs and can take big jumps, while toads have small hind legs and can only take small jumps. When a frog is frightened, it flees, but when a toad is frightened it freezes and stays still. ....

Graphic interpretation of written text
Sequencing
After a first reading, the text or illustrations are cut up into sections. These are jumbled up and placed in an envelope. Pairs of students then reassemble the text, explaining how they knew in which order to sequence the sections.
In addition to informal, formative assessment, more formal tools can be used to provide more detailed, systematic information.

**Running Records**

Running Records, developed by Marie Clay, are one of the most commonly used tools to identify what the student knows about the reading process. The following website gives a very clear explanation of how to conduct the Running Records procedure: [https://www.louisianabelieves.com/docs/default-source/louisiana-teacher-leaders/fi4-handout-assessment-data-collection-rti-running-record-info.pdf?sfvrsn=2](https://www.louisianabelieves.com/docs/default-source/louisiana-teacher-leaders/fi4-handout-assessment-data-collection-rti-running-record-info.pdf?sfvrsn=2)

The website includes information such as how to annotate a text read aloud by a student to find out what the reader’s miscues tell you about their reading behaviours and understanding:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behaviour</th>
<th>Notation</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correct response</td>
<td>mark every word read correctly with a check mark.</td>
<td>✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ Can you see my eyes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substitution</td>
<td>Write the spoken word above the word in the text.</td>
<td>✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ the ✔ Can you see my eyes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission</td>
<td>Place a dash above the word left out</td>
<td>✔ ✔ ✔ ✅ Can you see my eyes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insertion</td>
<td>Insert the added word and place a dash below it (or use a caret).</td>
<td>✔ ✔ ✔ big ✔ Can you see my eyes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attempt</td>
<td>Write each attempt above the word in the text</td>
<td>✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ e-ey Can you see my eyes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>Write R after the repeated word/phrase and draw an arrow back to the</td>
<td>✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ R ✔ Can you see my eyes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>beginning of the repetition.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appeal (ask for help)</td>
<td>Write A above the appealed word.</td>
<td>✔ ✔ ✔ A ✔ Can you see my eyes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Told word</td>
<td>Write T beside the word supplied for the reader.</td>
<td>✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ T ✔ Can you see my 1 eyes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-correction</td>
<td>Write SC after the corrected word.</td>
<td>✔ ✔ ✔ ✔ the/SC ✔ Can you see my  eyes?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Reading text level recommendations**

Reading records or benchmarks provide a framework for systematically observing a student’s reading behaviours. They provide evidence of change over time and ensure consistent practice in the administration and tracking of benchmark reading assessments.

It is recommended that up to and including Year 3, two reading assessments be undertaken each year – mid-year and end of year. The purpose of the mid-year assessment is to ascertain whether there are students who are at risk of not achieving the end of year benchmark. This allows time for targeted instruction or intervention to be provided for these students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prep</td>
<td>Level 3-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 1</td>
<td>Level 14-16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 2</td>
<td>Level 21-23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 3</td>
<td>Level 25-26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Refer to pages 24-26 of the PM Teachers’ Resource Book for consistent administration of the assessment. It is critical for school data reliability and validity that schools have a benchmarking procedure on administration of the benchmarking. **N.B. Before reading record is taken, students read text to themselves without teacher assistance.** It is important for teachers to embed the use of reading records in their practice to guide and determine teaching and learning foci.

**Questions for reflection**

- Is there an agreed whole school/grade approach to teaching reading at your school?
- How is this documented?
- How does your school/grade systematically assess and monitor students in the various aspects of reading?
- How are profiles of students’ reading progress made available to other teachers and parents/carers?
- To what extent are all your students reading fluently? How do you know? What provisions are made for those still needing support with basic reading skills?
- Are you aware of any students who have problems with following the meaning of a text because they do not understand the function of cohesive devices such as pronouns, omission and replacement of words, and synonyms? How might you apply such insights into gaps in students’ understanding in the context of modelled, shared and guided reading?
- Comprehension strategies are invisible. How do you identify the meaning-making processes your students are using?
- Do all teachers in your school/grade have similar understandings of what is meant by terms such as ‘modelled reading’, ‘shared reading’, ‘guided reading’, ‘reciprocal reading’ and ‘readers workshop’?
- How do you teach visual literacy?

• What would be your top three beliefs about reading? Discuss what that would mean for classroom practice:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My top three beliefs about reading</th>
<th>every day in my classroom you will see…</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Because I believe…</td>
<td>every day in my classroom you will see…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because I believe…</td>
<td>every day in my classroom you will see…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because I believe…</td>
<td>every day in my classroom you will see…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Miller 2012)

**Useful resources**

See Appendix 3: Reading and Viewing for resources to supporting reading.
Writing and creating

Key messages

We can think of writing not just as the production of a text but also as a tool for thinking. It is in the act of writing that we reflect more deeply on a topic, organise our thoughts coherently, pull threads together, fill gaps in our knowledge and establish a relationship with an intended reader.

The 3–6 years of school are a period of considerable growth and consolidation for young writers. They are typically moving beyond the early and transitional phases of writing and entering the conventional and proficient phases, where they are carefully crafting lengthier texts for a wider range of purposes and audiences (First Steps Writing Map). It is important to cultivate an enthusiasm for writing while providing explicit support so that students can successfully create print, digital and multimodal texts.

Here we will focus on the following aspects of developing as a writer:

- Writing development
- What does writing involve?
  - the writer
  - the text
  - the context
- Scaffolding writing and creating
- Assessing writing and creating.
The following tables highlight how writing and creating is represented in the Australian Curriculum: English. Teachers should also refer to the literacy learning continuum [www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/generalcapabilities/literacy/continuum#layout=columns](www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/generalcapabilities/literacy/continuum#layout=columns).

### Australian Curriculum: English

#### Writing and Creating – relevant Content Descriptors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 3</th>
<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
<th>Year 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Understand how different types of texts vary in use of language choices, depending on their purpose and context (for example, tense and types of sentences)</td>
<td>Understand how texts vary in complexity and technicality depending on the approach to the topic, the purpose and the intended audience</td>
<td>Understand how texts vary in purpose, structure and topic as well as the degree of formality</td>
<td>Plan, draft and publish imaginative, informative and persuasive texts, choosing and experimenting with text structures, language features, images and digital resources appropriate to purpose and audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plan, draft and publish imaginative, informative and persuasive texts demonstrating increasing control over text structures and language features and selecting print, and multimodal elements appropriate to the audience and purpose</td>
<td>Plan, draft and publish imaginative, informative and persuasive texts containing key information and supporting details for a widening range of audiences, demonstrating increasing control over text structures and language features</td>
<td>Plan, draft and publish imaginative, informative and persuasive print and multimodal texts, choosing text structures, language features, images and sound appropriate to purpose and audience</td>
<td>Reread and edit students’ own and others’ work using agreed criteria for text structures and language features</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reread and edit texts for meaning, appropriate structure, grammatical choices and punctuation</td>
<td>Reread and edit for meaning by adding, deleting or moving words or word groups to improve content and structure</td>
<td>Reread and edit student’s own and others’ work using agreed criteria for text structures and language features</td>
<td>Understand how to move beyond making bare assertions and take account of differing perspectives and points of view</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand that paragraphs are a key organisational feature of written texts</td>
<td>Understand how texts are made cohesive through the use of linking devices including pronoun reference and text connectives</td>
<td>Understand how to move beyond making bare assertions and take account of differing perspectives and points of view</td>
<td>Create literary texts using realistic and fantasy settings and characters that draw on the worlds represented in texts students have experienced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create imaginative texts based on characters, settings and events from students’ own and other cultures using visual features, for example perspective, distance and angle</td>
<td>Create literary texts that explore students’ own experiences and imagining</td>
<td>Create literary texts that experiment with structures, ideas and stylistic features of selected authors</td>
<td>Create literary texts that adapt or combine aspects of texts students have experienced in innovative ways</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Create literary texts by developing storylines, characters and settings</td>
<td></td>
<td>Experiment with text structures and language features and their effects in creating literary texts, for example, using imagery, sentence variation, metaphor and word choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Develop a handwriting style that is legible, fluent and automatic and varies according to audience and purpose</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Australian Curriculum: English

#### Writing and Creating – relevant Content Descriptors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 3</th>
<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
<th>Year 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Create texts that adapt language features and patterns encountered in literary texts, for example characterization, rhyme, rhythm, mood music, sound effects and dialogue</td>
<td>Write using clearly-formed joined letters, and develop increased fluency and automaticity</td>
<td>Present a point of view about particular literary texts using appropriate metalanguage, and reflecting on the viewpoints of others</td>
<td>Use a range of software, including word processing programs, learning new functions as required to create texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Write using joined letters that are clearly formed and consistent in size</td>
<td>Use a range of software including word processing programs to construct, edit and publish written text, and select, edit and place visual, print and audio elements</td>
<td>Develop a handwriting style that is becoming legible, fluent and automatic</td>
<td>Use a range of software including word processing programs with fluency to construct, edit and publish written text, and select, edit and place visual, print and audio elements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use software including word processing programs with growing speed and efficiency to construct and edit texts featuring visual, print and audio elements</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Australian Curriculum: English
Writing and Creating – relevant Achievement Standards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 3</th>
<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
<th>Year 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students create a range of texts for familiar and unfamiliar audiences.</td>
<td>Students create structured texts to explain ideas for different audiences.</td>
<td>Students create imaginative, informative and persuasive texts for different purposes and audiences.</td>
<td>Students create detailed texts elaborating on key ideas for a range of purposes and audiences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They understand how language can be used to express feelings and opinions on topics. Their texts include writing and images to express and develop in some detail experiences, events, information, ideas and characters.</td>
<td>Students understand that texts have different text structures depending on purpose and audience.</td>
<td>Students use language features to show how ideas can be extended. They develop and explain a point of view about a text, selecting information, ideas and images from a range of resources.</td>
<td>Students understand how language features and language patterns can be used for emphasis. They show how specific details can be used to support a point of view. They explain how their choices of language features and images are used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They re-read and edit their writing, checking their work for appropriate vocabulary, structure and meaning.</td>
<td>They understand how to express an opinion based on information in a text. They create texts that show understanding of how images and detail can be used to extend key ideas.</td>
<td>When writing, they demonstrate understanding of grammar, using a variety of sentence types. They select specific vocabulary and use accurate spelling and punctuation. They edit their work for cohesive structure and meaning.</td>
<td>They demonstrate an understanding of grammar, and make considered vocabulary choices from an expanding vocabulary to enhance cohesion and structure in their writing. They use accurate spelling and punctuation for clarity and make and explain editorial choices based on criteria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They write using joined letters that are accurately formed and consistent in size.</td>
<td>They re-read and edit their work to improve meaning.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Planning

Teachers and educators use the tabled curriculum information to plan by backward mapping from the curriculum outcomes. According to the level the students are operating at, teachers refer to the Australian Curriculum, using the achievement standards and the content descriptors of the English curriculum and the expected indicators in the Australian Curriculum Literacy Learning Continuum to set instructional goals.

The following writing and creating activities describe the sorts of learning opportunities teachers need to create in order to develop the required, stated learning in the table, both for literacy and for the English learning that underpins it.
Writing development

Most students on entry to Year 3 will have started to write relatively brief texts for a limited range of purposes. As we can see from the text below, they have a rudimentary grasp of text structure (depending on the purpose), paragraphing, and making their texts cohesive. Sentence structure is moving from a string of simple and compound sentences to more carefully structured and complex sentences. They write on topics that are familiar and close to their own experience but are starting to write about more academically-oriented topics across the curriculum. They have gained control over the basic skills of handwriting and keyboarding and are using various strategies to spell increasingly complex words. They use basic sentence boundary punctuation but might need further work on more advanced punctuation such as commas and quotation marks.

NARRATIVE (Year 3)

The cookaburer how took a Hot Dog

One morning I was walking down the street and I remme that there was a fair on today so I wen’t back home. “Mum” can I go to the fair?” Sally asked. Then when I was talking my brother Jacke said “can I go with her to the fair. Asked Jacke Sure you can. Here’s your mony. Said mum. Show then me and my brother Jacke when’t to the fair. Look there’s a Hotdog stand. Hay mister can I have a Hotdogs. I asked kindly.

By Year 6, most students are able to make more deliberate choices in creating texts and to discuss their choices using appropriate terminology. The text below illustrates how they are now writing longer texts that are carefully organised into paragraphs. They structure the texts into particular stages depending on the purpose and make their texts cohesive using a range of devices such as text connectives. They write on topics from all areas of the curriculum, using increasingly specific and nuanced vocabulary choices. They are becoming conscious of the need to engage the reader and to make their texts accessible. They choose from a range of sentence types, using various grammatical resources to express, develop and connect their ideas. Punctuation and spelling are becoming more accurate and handwriting is legible and fluent. They craft their texts carefully through processes of building topic knowledge, drafting, revising, editing, proofreading, and publishing in print, digital and multimodal formats.

By the end of Year 6, students who have good control over the above resources are more likely to make a successful transition into secondary school.

**NED KELLY (Year 6)**

| One cold, chilly evening, a family of nine sat on worn-down wooden chairs, receiving some terrible news. “I don’t quite know how to tell you this,” the policeman said flatly. “But I’m afraid you have lost a family member. Your father, the convict John Kelly, passed away earlier today. I’m sorry,” he finished and spun on his heel, heading straight out the door. Mrs Kelly knew at once what they must do. The family packed their bags and moved to a smaller, less expensive hut in the bushland of Greta. They settled into a regular lifestyle there, looking after not only their house, but their animals too.  

But Ned Kelly, like his father, just couldn’t stay away from crime and started plotting a ‘bit of fun’. His plan was carried out, and later he received a horse from a friend—a stolen horse. Unfortunately for Ned, he was discovered and sentenced but was discharged from prison, just before his mother’s second marriage to George King. Later that year, Ned met an idol of his—Harry Power. Harry was a well-known bushranger and Ned admired that. Harry came to trust Ned and one day asked him to assist him in a crime. Once again the pair were discovered and sentenced to jail. But while Harry Power carried out the sentence, Ned was discharged again.  

On the 15th of April in the year 1878 a policeman by the name of Fitzpatrick arrived on the Kelly’s doorstep, allegedly to arrest Dan Kelly, Ned’s older brother. Fitzpatrick instead assaulted Ned’s sister Kate, an action that brought out the | Kelly’s defensive side, and they reacted. Mrs Kelly was later sentenced to three years jail for using a shovel as a weapon. Dan and Ned were also supposed to be locked up for six years but the boys decided to run for it.  

Three policeman were sent to find the pair and they certainly did. Unfortunately for the troopers Dan and Ned were ready and waiting and so when the police found them, camped at Stringybark Creek, Ned and Dan pulled out their guns in self-defence. After only a short while, Dan and Ned emerged victorious, with three dead policeman at their feet.  

The pair soon set off again, robbing two banks as they went. Rewards were now being offered for the criminals but there was still no sign of them. The police were getting so desperate that the reward price kept climbing higher and higher until it reached 8000 pounds (about $200,000,000)! On the 27th of June 1880, the Kelly gang stopped at a specific railway station in Glenrowan. Ned, his brother, and two other outlaws they had picked up on the way, had made all homemade armour out of metal plates. The troopers, following a tip-off from a local school teacher, also reached the station prepared for battle. The clash was long and hard-fought, eventually ending when Ned Kelly collapsed with more than 23 bullet wounds to his arms and legs. While he was helpless and hurt he was captured and taken to the police station. |

What does writing involve?

As with reading, writing involves the construction of meaning as the writer engages with the developing text. The quality of the writing is influenced by the context, including ways in which the teacher supports the writing process. The various elements of writing are captured in the diagram below.

At the core of the writing process is the intent to make meaning. Meaning is constructed in the interaction between the writer and the developing text. But meaning making is typically not a solitary activity. It is a social process involving those with whom the writer interacts: the scaffolding provided by the teacher; ideas and feedback from peers; the writers of other texts; and the intended reader.

Here we will look in turn at the writer, the text and the context.

The writer

The student’s motivation to write and engagement with the writing task is of paramount importance in becoming a competent writer. Students need opportunities to experience success and to gain satisfaction from the activity of writing.

Topic knowledge

In order to write confidently, students need to have something to say.

Putting it into practice

• Build up topic knowledge in class through shared, collaborative and independent reading sessions.

• For informative texts, teach research skills such as how to use the library and other resources, how to identify relevant information, how to take notes and synthesise them into an original text.
Model to the class how you would find information on the Internet relating to the task: selecting key words; finding relevant and trustworthy sites; skimming articles; and so on.

Demonstrate how to use a relevant graphic organiser as a frame for taking notes e.g. if the task is to write a recount, a useful graphic organiser for the notes would be a timeline. See Appendix 3.1 for examples of graphic organisers.

If the task is to write an imaginative text, provide a stimulus for writing, immerse students in examples of similar imaginative texts, and model a particular feature of imaginative texts as a focus.

**Text knowledge**

In the 3–6 years, students will be writing longer texts that require greater attention to structure. Students need to know how to organise the content of their writing. This will depend on the purpose for writing and the related genre/text type.

**Putting it into practice**

- In planning the task, be very clear with students about the purpose for writing.
- During shared reading sessions, engage the students in exploring the structure and language features of the text type that is relevant to the task.
- During shared writing, jointly construct a text with the class, demonstrating how to structure the students’ contributions into a coherent, well-organised text.
- Teach the class how to write paragraphs. The structure of a paragraph will differ depending on the text type, but generally they contain a topic sentence along with details that elaborate on the topic sentence.

**Language knowledge**

Students need to have the language resources that allow them to develop the topic, respond to the purpose, and interact with the reader.

**Putting it into practice**

- Teach the students about different types of sentences and how to use them to make their writing interesting and accessible. (See section on Grammar and punctuation.)
- During shared reading, explore how writers use a variety of cohesive devices to make their texts flow smoothly and to guide the reader through the text. (See notes on cohesion in the section on Grammar.)

**Composing processes**

We have known for some time that writing is best thought of as a process rather than a ‘one shot’ activity. Students need to understand that good writers aren’t satisfied with a first draft and that good writing is a process not only of getting ideas on paper, but then revising the ideas and attending to language, punctuation and spelling.

It is in the process of drafting and revising that the meaning emerges and our understanding of the topic deepens. The act of writing differs depending on the task, the student’s level of experience, and the purpose and length of the text.

**Putting it into practice**

See Appendix 4.1 for suggestions regarding teaching composing as a process.

**Reader awareness**

In the mid to upper years of primary school, students are becoming less ‘writer-oriented’ and are starting to be sensitive to the needs and interests of the reader.

**Putting it into practice**

- In persuasive and informative texts, guide students to identify text connectives that guide the reader through the text, signalling transitions from one idea/point to another e.g. however, furthermore, on the contrary, therefore.
- In persuasive texts such as advertisements, debates, speeches and arguments, model for the students how they can draw on *pathos* (emotional appeal), *ethos* (ethical appeal, credibility, authority of the writer) or *logos* (reasoning, clarity) to persuade the reader.
• In narrative texts, guide students to identify how suspense is built up and how the writer engages the reader through the use of emotive and figurative language.

• In shared reading sessions, help students to observe examples of point of view e.g. in Anthony Browne’s Voices in the Park.

Basic skills
By Years 3–6, students should be well on the way to developing control over basic writing skills such as spelling, punctuation and handwriting.

Putting it into practice
• To assist students with spelling, see the section on Spelling and to assist with punctuation, see the section on Grammar and punctuation.

• For those students who are not confident in navigating the Internet for educational purposes, model how you would use digital devices such as tablets, phones or laptops to access information.

• Use games and online programs to teach keyboarding skills so that all students are confident and fluent.

• Ensure that all students are able to write fluently and legibly using an appropriate pen grip. For greater detail, see Handwriting, Department of Education, Tasmania (https://www.education.tas.gov.au/documentcentre/Documents/Handwriting.pdf).

The text
Here we will look at the nature of the texts that students write and the need to explicitly teach what is involved in writing an effective text.

Subject matter and vocabulary
The success of a text is reflected in the quality of the ideas, the connection between ideas, and the vocabulary choices made in expressing those ideas.

Putting it into practice
• Use a variety of strategies to develop students’ vocabulary resources in order to make their texts more specific, vivid or subtle. (See section on Vocabulary.)

• Demonstrate to students how they can use an appropriate graphic organiser to guide the structuring of their ideas. For example, a semantic web to organise an information report; a timeline to sequence a recount; a Venn diagram to compare and contrast information; a story map to guide the development of a narrative. (See Appendix 3.1 for examples of graphic organisers.)

• During shared writing sessions, guide the students to express their ideas more effectively through careful choice of verb groups representing different kinds of processes (doing, thinking, feeling, saying, and so on), expanding the noun groups representing the participants, and including adverbials to indicate how, when, where or why an action is taking place. (See section on Grammar.)

• During shared and guided reading sessions, point out how writers used compound and complex sentences to connect their ideas in various ways. (See section on Grammar.)
Text structure and organisation

In Years 3–6, students will be greatly extending the range of purposes for writing. These purposes will include writing informative, persuasive and imaginative texts (See Appendix 4.2 for further information on text purpose and organisation).

Putting it into practice

• Ensure that students are clear about the purpose for writing in any particular task, using common terms to indicate the text type that typically expresses the purpose e.g.
  - If the purpose is to tell what happened in the holidays or at an event, the text type (or genre) will be a recount of personal experience.
  - If the purpose is to provide information about a general class of things (e.g. volcanoes, marsupials), then the text type will be an information report.
  - If the purpose is to tell someone how to do something, then the text type will be a procedure.

• When modelling the organisation of a genre, it should not be taught as a formula. Rather, the students should be guided to consider the overall purpose of the text and to identify how each stage of the text has a certain job to do in contributing to successfully achieving the purpose.

• In the early stages, provide students with scaffolds that guide them to structure their texts in an appropriate way. These can take the form of a structured overview/graphic organiser (e.g. a table, a Venn diagram, a timeline, a compare-contrast matrix) or questions to guide their writing e.g. for an information report on an animal: what type of animal? Where does it come from? What does it look like? Where does it live? What does it eat?

• Display two texts side by side and ask the students to notice how they differ in terms of their purpose and the stages they go through in achieving their purpose e.g. a procedure vs a narrative.

• Mix up the information in a text and help the students to identify how the information could be better organised into coherent ‘bundles’.

Sentence structure

Sentences need to be structured tightly, avoiding rambling passages that string a number of clauses together as ‘speech written down’. Sentences also need to be punctuated correctly so that the text is accessible for the reader.

Putting it into practice

• To express their ideas effectively, teach students how to make discerning language choices (e.g. verb groups expressing different types of processes – doing, thinking, feeling, saying, relating etc.); extended noun groups to provide rich descriptions; adverbials to indicate when, where, how or why an action takes place. (See section on Grammar and punctuation.)

• To make various types of connections between their ideas, introduce students to compound and complex sentences. (See section on Grammar and punctuation.)

• Show students how to combine a series of short simple sentences into compound and complex sentences where appropriate.

• Teach students to avoid the ‘comma splice’ (using a comma instead of a full stop) and the ‘run-on’ sentence (which omits full stops).

Mode and medium

In the mid-upper primary years, many texts created by students will be multimodal as they include a combination of writing and still images (photos, illustrations, diagrams). As students become more confident with the technology, many of these texts will be digital, incorporating images, writing, animations, video and sound.

Science: Communicate ideas, explanations and processes in a variety of ways, including multimodal texts

History: Use a range of communication forms (oral, graphic, written) and digital technologies
Putting it into practice

• Provide opportunities for students to express their ideas using an informed combination of images and written text e.g. labels, comments, explanations, diagrams.

• When composing multimodal digital texts, ask students to choose between a number of relevant images and justify their choice rather than simply cutting and pasting. This forces the student to critically examine the image, to make a decision, and to justify the decision.

• Rather than simply importing an image into a digital text, it is often more effective if the students create their own image – even if copied or a synthesis of a number of similar images – as this requires the student to actually engage with the image and its meaning.

• Teach students about how multimodal images work to create various meanings. (See Reading: Viewing section.) Ask them to identify how they have used these various meaning making resources in their own images.

• Teach students how to use technologies to create digital multimodal texts e.g.
  - using Digi-blue cameras to create a short film
  - producing a storyboard and writing a script while creating digital story
  - using Slowmation techniques to explain a process in science. (Slowmation – a way for students to make stop-motion animation http://www.slowmotion.com/)

Audience
In the 3–6 years, students learn that texts they create need to support the reader by developing a shared understanding of the context, filling in gaps, and providing a pathway through the text for the reader. They also need to engage the reader, varying the tenor and perspective of the writing to suit the audience. (Both these aspects of audience are considered in the NAPLAN writing criteria.)

Putting it into practice

• Accustom students to craft and edit their texts with the reader in mind.

• Provide students with a poorly organised text that is difficult for the reader to follow and ask them to make it more coherent, talking about how and why they changed it.

• Delete the transition words (e.g. however, therefore, on the other hand, in summary) from a text and guide the students during shared writing to fill in the blank with an appropriate text connective.

• Get groups of students to do a quick write of a letter on the same topic but varying the tenor in terms of such aspects as the level of formality, social distance, familiarity, personal/family connection. Groups might write for audiences such as the principal, their best friend, their aunt that they haven’t seen for years, or their local Member of Parliament. Then project their texts (e.g. using a webcam) and ask the class to identify how the language choices vary in each case.

• Share texts with students that treat the same topic using a different tone (academic, humorous, friendly, spooky).

• In the context of social media, get students to identify how language can be used to both include and exclude. This could include a focus on the language of bullying.

• Look at two biographies of a controversial figure such as Ned Kelly and ask the class to identify the point of view of the writer, considering language choices such as ‘criminal’ vs ‘hero’, ‘settler’ vs ‘invader’.

• Share texts with students that demonstrate different levels of authority and how they use strategies such as providing evidence, citing credible sources, and so on.

• Model to the class how modality can be used to vary the degree of certainty (e.g. perhaps, probably, might vs definitely, should, must): model when it might be useful to project a strong voice using high modality and when it might be useful to leave ‘wriggle room’ and create a space for other possibilities by using low modality.
Accuracy

Accurate use of spelling, punctuation and grammar makes a text much more accessible for the reader and gives the text greater authority.

Putting it into practice

• Impress on students the importance of careful proofreading of their texts.
• Discuss issues concerning the ‘gatekeeping’ role of correct spelling, punctuation and grammar in society, such as employers’ reactions to poorly written job applications or people’s perceptions of texting language in serious blogs.
• During shared reading, use a poorly punctuated text to demonstrate to students how this disrupts comprehension.
• During shared writing, share a text with no punctuation and ask the students to suggest where to insert capitals, full stops, commas and any other useful punctuation.

The context

Classroom writing culture

As the designer of the context, the teacher is primarily responsible for establishing a culture in the classroom where writing is valued and where students view themselves as competent writers, taking pride and pleasure in creating texts that are well-crafted and interesting.

Putting it into practice

• Model for students that you are a writer and that you enjoy writing all kinds of texts.
• Discuss with students the power of writing as a tool for thinking, for changing people’s understanding, and for developing relationships.
• Provide opportunities and time for daily writing across all areas of the curriculum.
• Encourage students to see themselves as authors. If they are struggling, talk with them about what roadblocks they are encountering and work out a support plan.
• Explain that good writing requires perseverance.
• Foster collaboration among students: group projects; peer conferencing; generating ideas; contributing to class blogs; using apps such as Google docs to jointly construct a text.
• Ensure that students have ready access to a variety of resources for composing: different kinds and sizes of paper; folders to keep drafts; different writing implements (pens, highlighters, pencils); digital devices of various types; apps such as OneNote; and so on.
• Display students’ written and multimodal compositions, selecting not only the ‘best’ examples but also those that have shown improvement and effort in some area.
• Contribute to a whole school writing culture, where students share texts across grades, writers’ festivals are held, student’s texts are celebrated at assemblies and in the school newsletter; authors from the community are invited to talk with the students about their writing, parents support and praise their children’s writing, and so on.

Writing task

A well-designed task is a key factor in the production of quality writing.

Putting it into practice

• The writing task should be very clear about the purpose for writing: to describe a particular person or thing; to explain; to tell someone how to do something; to recount what happened; to entertain; to provide information about a general class of things; and so on. With help, students should then be able to identify a relevant genre to achieve the goal of the task.
• Ensure that, over the year, tasks cover the range of informative, imaginative and persuasive genres/text types.
• Wherever possible, ask the class to identify a potential audience for the writing task.
• Vary the length of the writing task. Some tasks will lend themselves to quick writes, where students simply jot down their ideas. Other tasks will require an extended text, taking the students through the writing process from beginning to end.
• Make sure that the tasks provide opportunities for students to use a range of media and modes: written texts; multimodal texts that include writing and images; digital texts that include still or moving images; voice-overs; music or sound accompanying the writing.

• In order to experience what is involved in the writing task, write a model answer yourself. It is often quite revealing and throws up unexpected complexities. Your text can be used later as a model for the students’ own writing, especially if, to avoid copying, it has been modified to deal with a slightly different topic but using the same genre.

• Conduct an audit of writing tasks across the grade (or preferably the school). This will give an indication of any gaps (e.g., particular genres not covered) and overlaps (e.g., several tasks involving the writing of letters or creation of posters). It will also show the areas of the curriculum in which writing might be neglected.

Scaffolding practices
As with reading, we can think of teaching writing in terms of a progression of teaching practices ranging from high levels of teacher control with a gradual release of responsibility leading to high levels of student control.
Scaffolding writing and creating

The diagram below outlines in some detail the kinds of practices that have proven over the years to be effective in the scaffolding of students’ writing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writing and creating</th>
<th>Gradual release of responsibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher-focused</strong></td>
<td><strong>Shared writing</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(‘I do’)</td>
<td>(‘we do/I lead’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Guided writing</strong></td>
<td><strong>Collaborative writing</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(shifting to)</td>
<td>(‘we students do’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Independent writing</strong></td>
<td>(‘you do’)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teacher-focused sessions involve mini-lessons where the teacher introduces the students to various aspects of writing or to targeted features of a text such as the purpose and structure of the text-type, sentence structure, handwriting or spelling. The teacher might also demonstrate to the students how to write a text, typically while thinking aloud about the processes involved. (See p.69)

In shared writing sessions (‘joint construction’) the teacher and students work together to compose brief texts. Students provide the ideas typically from common understandings developed through shared reading) and the teacher acts as a scribe, demonstrating how to shape the students’ ideas into a coherent written text. (See p.69)

Guided writing sessions are temporary small-group lessons reinforcing those writing skills and strategies that the group of students most need to practise with immediate guidance from the teacher. Guided writing lessons can be held while other students are actively engaged in collaborative or independent writing. (See p.70)

Students participate in peer writing conferences where they read each other’s texts, ask questions, provide feedback, and participate in peer editing, focusing on the particular skill or strategy introduced in modelled or shared writing. Older students can collaboratively produce a written text or digital composition to share with the class. (See p.70)

Ultimately, students are given regular opportunities to write independently, drawing on the understandings developed in mini-lessons, shared, guided and collaborative writing activities. Independent writing can take the form of quick writes for personal expression or can be more structured to reinforce previous learning. (See p.71)

The focus shifts from the teacher explicitly teaching and modelling a specific aspect of writing (teacher-focused writing) to gradually involving the students in creating a text with support from the teacher and focusing on a particular aspect of writing (shared writing). The new understandings are then rehearsed in small groups (guided and collaborative writing), including opportunities for teacher input, monitoring and responsive feedback, until the students can apply the new knowledge and strategies on their own (independent writing). Although these teaching strategies represent a general progression in learning and independence, they are not necessarily taught in a linear, sequential fashion.
The following practices should not extend for too long and should focus on one or two selected aspects of writing.

A. Teacher-focused writing (‘I do’)

Teacher-focused writing involves mini-lessons where the teacher introduces the class to a particular aspect of writing, such as handwriting, spelling, punctuation, text organisation, sentence structure, vocabulary, or cohesion. The mini-lesson might also model the writing process, starting with jotting down a few ideas, shaping those ideas into a rough first draft, ‘thinking aloud’ about how and why you are revising the language and organisation of the text, and finally proofreading for punctuation and spelling.

For older students, mini-lessons can include modelling (or ‘deconstructing’) the text type – its purpose, structure and targeted language features. Display a text using the same text type as the one that students will be writing but with a slightly different topic e.g. if the students are writing an information report on land creatures, you could model an information report on sea creatures. Guide students to observe how a particular text type works so that they can write a text in the same genre but with a slight shift in the field:

- What is its purpose?
- Does it have more than one purpose?
- How is it organised to achieve its purpose/s?
- What are the main stages? What is the job of each stage?
- Are there any minor phases within the stage? What is their job?

B. Shared writing (‘we do/I lead’ – joint construction)

Shared writing involves the class or a group in jointly constructing a text similar to one they will later be writing independently. If, for example, the students were going to write an explanation of the respiratory system as the culminating task, the teacher might first engage the students in writing a similar explanation e.g. of the digestion system.

After developing their understanding of the purpose of the text type and how it is organised, the students contribute ideas through a brainstorming stage with the teacher jotting these down and showing how to group the ideas depending on the text type.

As the first draft evolves, students keep contributing to the content of the text, drawing on understandings of the topic developed in shared reading sessions. The teacher takes their ‘spoken’ ideas and demonstrates how to shape them into a well-crafted written text. The teacher begins with everyday language in note form and gradually moves to more structured, complete sentences. During this phase, students’ attention can be drawn to any model/mentor texts examined in previous sessions.

Shared writing often involves emphasis on a specific targeted understanding or strategy, such as attending to vocabulary and grammatical...
choices, making letter-sound connections, noticing sight words, creating cohesion across the text, attending to the readers’ needs, and so on. Finally, if appropriate, the text can be proofread for spelling and punctuation, often with a student ‘sharing the pen’ with the teacher. The students are then in a position to draw on these understandings to write their own text.

Less proficient writers can still feel the achievement of participating in writing a text by jointly constructing a retelling of a familiar text rather than an original one. The teacher might write a brief recount, for example, and share it with a group. The students then jointly reconstruct the recount with the guidance of the teacher.

Example of shared writing (‘joint construction’)

While the students offer ideas and information to include in the collaboratively developing text, the teacher demonstrates how to shape their offerings into a written text, asking questions such as those below:

- What could we include in the opening stage of this text?
- Could we include a definition here?
- Could we say that more succinctly?
- What’s a more technical word for that?
- How can we combine all that information into a single sentence?
- How could we connect these two ideas?
- Could we move this around to change the emphasis?
- Do we need a connective/transition word here to guide the reader?

The digestion process begins in the mouth where the saliva glands.

As a transition to independent writing, the teacher can meet with small, flexible groups with similar needs. The session might start with reminding the students of the focus of previous mini-lessons or shared writing activities, reinforcing understandings for those that need it or extending students who are keen for further exploration. If the focus of the shared reading or shared writing session was on the choice of action verbs, for example, this could become the focus for the guided writing session. The teacher might then observe students as they write, conferencing with them about their writing, providing assistance as needed, and reminding them of strategies they have observed previously.

D. Collaborative writing (‘we students do’)

To provide practice in the processes of composing a text, students can be supported by classmates or older students from other classes to engage in writing a text together.
For students in the early writing phase, collaboration may take the form of pairs or small groups contributing to a text in response to a problem-solving activity, a small project, or a topic relating to a current curriculum theme. Teachers support students by providing process guidelines (e.g. designating time for deciding on a purpose and audience, brainstorming ideas, organising the ideas, revising and editing) as well as by assigning leadership roles at various stages in the process. Students are reminded to draw on strategies and targeted features that have been introduced in mini-lessons, shared writing and guided writing sessions.

E. Independent writing (‘you do’)

Students should now be in a position to confidently write a text using the same text type but with a slight change in topic. If the teacher has modelled writing a procedure on how to make a gourmet sandwich, for example, the students could choose to write a procedure on how to make a meal of their choice.

The focus for independent writing can be drawn from the targeted feature previously modelled in shared and guided writing (such as the use of punctuation, the creation of simple or compound sentences, or the choice of action verbs). Every so often, the teacher can guide the students through the process, providing structured time for brainstorming, drafting, conferencing, revision, proofreading and publishing.

This should not become a ritual, as every act of writing does not involve such a process, but students should at least be aware that good writing is not a ‘one-shot’ activity. At times, there should be opportunities for quick writes, where students are given a few minutes to engage in personal choice writing. The focus here is on fluency and experimentation. For those students in search of inspiration, a prompt can be provided, such as a photo, illustration, or text starter. Sometimes, quick writes can be more structured, with a series of quick writes contributing to the development of a larger text e.g. quick writes of different events that eventually form a recount.

Writers workshop

As with readers workshop, writers workshop brings together a number of the above activities. Students are engaged in authentic literacy experiences for real purposes. The workshops include the exploration of mentor texts, mini-lessons on aspects of writing relevant to students’ developing texts, guided writing conferences, opportunities for writing with peers and independently, and sharing writing with others.

Bringing together reading and writing

Although reading and writing have been presented here in separate sections, in practice they should be brought together (along with oral interaction). Shared reading of a text, for example, can provide insights into how students might write a similar text, using the same text type but changing the topic slightly.
Reading/writing workshop

Reading and writing are sometimes taught in separate lessons or workshops. Ideally, however, there should be close integration between reading and writing, facilitated by oral interaction. In this way, students are able to see the connection between reading like a writer and writing like a reader.

As in the diagram below, the teacher structures reading/writing workshop sessions with flexible choices of mini-lessons, group work and individual work depending on the needs of the students, the demands of the task, and the purpose for reading and writing. Understandings introduced in a modelled or shared reading session, for example, might feed into subsequent shared writing sessions. The focus of a guided reading session might become the focus of a guided writing session. Collaborative reading might support collaborative writing. Independent writing might draw on texts encountered in shared reading, and so on.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading and viewing</th>
<th>Writing and creating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher focused ('I do')</td>
<td>Teacher focused ('I do')</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shared ('we do/I lead')</td>
<td>Shared ('we do/I lead')</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guided (shifting to 'you do')</td>
<td>Guided (shifting to 'you do')</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative ('students do together')</td>
<td>Collaborative ('students do together')</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent ('you do')</td>
<td>Independent ('you do')</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Monitoring and assessment

Monitoring writing development

The following observation checklist, drawing on First Steps Writing Continuum, can be used to create a broad profile of students’ current writing proficiencies and to monitor development over time. It can also be a useful tool for moderating sessions with colleagues, where student writing samples are compared using agreed criteria. To indicate a student’s current level of achievement, a tick can be placed against those aspects of writing that are a particular focus at the time.

While such an observation checklist can be used to obtain a general picture of the level of a student’s writing, it is not the most appropriate instrument to assess the outcome of a particular writing task with a particular focus. (See success criteria below.)

It is useful to refer to the K–2 Literacy booklet for any students still operating at the role-playing stage. For spelling and vocabulary, see the relevant sections of this booklet. For a slightly different checklist, see also the Writing Analysis Tool by Mackenzie, Scull and Munsie at: https://doms.csu.edu.au/csualc/file/83223c64a-855c-4e39-aac51dc9a9f8a8cf/1/Writing%20Analysis%20Tool.zip/Writing%20Analysis%20Tool/index.html, which includes examples of students’ writing development at various stages.

Amy: Year 4 Term 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text composition</th>
<th>Transitional</th>
<th>Conventional</th>
<th>Proficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writes for some basic purposes (e.g. recount, description, procedure).</td>
<td>Selects text type to suit a greater range of purposes (to inform, to argue, to entertain, etc.).</td>
<td>Controls an expanding range of text types for school and social purposes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Might not include or fully develop all stages of the genre.</td>
<td>Attempts to organise text into basic stages according to purpose.</td>
<td>Organises longer texts into more complex stages and phases to achieve purpose.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some attempts at using paragraphs.</td>
<td>Uses paragraphs in longer texts.</td>
<td>Varies paragraph structure depending on the text type.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composes text using a number of sentences, though the relationship between sentences is often not coherent.</td>
<td>Uses basic cohesive resources to make texts flow (e.g. pronoun reference, word associations).</td>
<td>Uses a range of cohesive resources such as text connectives and sentence beginnings to make texts flow coherently.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Displays little awareness of audience.</td>
<td>Displays a rudimentary awareness of audience.</td>
<td>Is aware of audience needs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses familiar words and stock phrases from current topic, stories or conversations.</td>
<td>Uses an expanding range of vocabulary choices.</td>
<td>Selects precise, vivid or technical vocabulary to develop topic.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses simple images, sometimes as proxies for writing.</td>
<td>Expands written text with various types of images.</td>
<td>Integrates text with carefully chosen images.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transitional</td>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>Proficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sentence structure</strong></td>
<td>Writes simple sentences to represent a single idea or event.</td>
<td>Chooses between simple, compound and complex sentences depending on purpose.</td>
<td>Connects ideas using a range of compound and complex sentences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uses a series of unconnected simple sentences, though sometimes joins ideas into rambling compound sentences using and, but or so.</td>
<td>Greater control over increasingly elaborated sentences.</td>
<td>Generally tight control of sentence choice and structure, though some longer sentences might ramble.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uses the occasional complex sentence (e.g. using when).</td>
<td>Some evidence of selection of grammatical resources such as verb groups, noun groups and adverbials.</td>
<td>Consiously makes careful choices of grammatical resources such as verb groups, tense, noun groups, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inconsistent grammatical accuracy.</td>
<td>Some grammatical errors.</td>
<td>Grammar is mostly accurate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Punctuation</strong></td>
<td>Uses capital letters for names and most sentence beginnings.</td>
<td>Regularly uses capital letters and full stops.</td>
<td>Consistently uses basic punctuation accurately.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attempts to use full stops, question marks, and commas in lists.</td>
<td>Experiments with commas, speech marks and exclamation marks.</td>
<td>Experiments with colons, semi-colons, dashes, &amp; brackets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Handwriting</strong></td>
<td>Forms most upper and lower case letters though often with effort.</td>
<td>✔  Consistent letter formation using correct grip and body position.</td>
<td>Legible, fluent print and cursive with consistent size, shape, slope.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Writing processes</strong></td>
<td>Some attempts at supported planning, revising and editing.</td>
<td>Evidence of some planning, revision, editing &amp; proofreading.</td>
<td>Knows how and when to plan, research &amp; develop ideas, revise &amp; proofread.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Success criteria**

One way of assessing students’ writing achievement – and encouraging self assessment – is to use success criteria. Criteria for success should:

- focus on the learning intention of the task and what has been explicitly taught
- be written in language that students are likely to understand
- be limited in number so students are not overwhelmed by the scope of the task
- be supported, where necessary, by exemplars or work samples that make their meaning clear
- be created, ideally, with input from students so that they have greater understanding and ownership of them.
A ‘bump it up’ wall is a dynamic display of annotated writing samples showing a continuum of gradual improvement in writing. The teacher and students discuss the features of each text, highlighting how the focus element or feature improves or becomes more sophisticated across the continuum of writing samples. The observations are recorded as annotations on each writing sample. The series of texts demonstrate visually to the students the value of rereading their own texts with an eye to intentionally improving their message. The annotated writing samples highlight or map the ‘where to next’ for students. Making these elements of effective writing visible enables students to know what ‘better’ looks like. It empowers them to set personal goals for achievement. The ‘bump it up’ strategy enables students to consider:

- Where am I now with my writing?
- Where am I going?
- What do I need to do to get there?

The writing continuum should be collaboratively developed and referred to during modelled, shared and independent writing.

Handwriting assessment
Handwriting can be assessed in terms of preparation for writing and handwriting skills.

Preparation for writing:
- correct pencil grip
- appropriate seated position
- correct paper position.

Handwriting skills:
- consistent letter formation along with the starting position, the direction of movement, and the completion of letters
- position on line
- direction of writing
- spacing
- shape
- size
- pencil pressure
- fluency.

For further information on assessing handwriting, refer to *Handwriting*, Department of Education, Tasmania. e.g. the observation guide on pp.27-28.
Questions for reflection

- What systems does your grade/school have in place to monitor and record student progress in writing?
- What markers are used to evaluate whether students are progressing satisfactorily in their writing development?
- In your practice, what is the balance between ‘self-selected writing’ for personal expression and more structured practices such as modelled writing, shared writing and guided writing? What do you think is the appropriate balance?
- How often do you:
  - model the various processes of writing?
  - jointly construct a text with the class?
  - work with small groups for guided writing?
- If you were mentoring a colleague, what advice would you give in terms of supporting learners in Years 3–6 to become confident, successful writers?
- What would you identify in your own teaching of writing as an area in which you could benefit from further extension?

Useful resources

See Appendix 4: Writing and Creating for a detailed list of resources to support writing and creating.
Developing a curiosity about words and how they work is the key to a successful spelling program. Each student needs to develop a mindset where they see spelling as a thinking activity at which they can succeed.

Establish a word conscious classroom – noticing, naming, thinking and explaining as you explore words together – where students are actively encouraged to have a go at writing.

Links to the curriculum
The following tables highlight how spelling is represented in the Australian Curriculum: English. Teachers should also refer to the literacy learning continuum www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/generalcapabilities/literacy/continuum#layout=columns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Australian Curriculum: English Spelling – relevant Content Descriptors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Year 3</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand how to use letter-sound relationships and less common letter patterns to spell words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Know how to use common prefixes and suffixes, and generalisations for adding a suffix to a base word.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognise and know how to write most high frequency words including some homophones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand how to apply knowledge of letter-sound relationships, syllables, and blending and segmenting to write multisyllabic words with more complex letter patterns.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

GOOD TEACHING: Literacy 3–6
Australian Curriculum: English
Spelling – relevant Achievement Standards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 3</th>
<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
<th>Year 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students use knowledge of letter-sound relationships and high frequency words to spell words accurately.</td>
<td>They use accurate spelling.</td>
<td>They use accurate spelling.</td>
<td>They use accurate spelling.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Planning

Teachers and educators use the tabled curriculum information to plan by backward mapping from the curriculum outcomes. According to the level the students are operating at, teachers refer to the the Australian Curriculum, using the achievement standards and the content descriptors of the English curriculum and the expected indicators in the Australian Curriculum Literacy Learning Continuum to set instructional goals.

The following spelling activities describe the sorts of learning opportunities teachers need to create in order to develop the required, stated learning in the table, both for literacy and for the English learning that underpins it.

Spelling knowledge and strategies

Effective spellers use a repertoire of spelling strategies to spell words as they write. These spelling strategies need to be explicitly taught. Students will use their spelling knowledge to help them apply the spelling strategy.

Sound strategy

Focusing on the sounds in words (phonological knowledge)

Students need to listen to the sounds in a word then represent those sounds with letters using phonic knowledge (the relationship between sounds and letters).

Phonological and phonic knowledge – knowledge about the sounds of language and sound-letter relationships.

Implications for teaching:

- For less advanced spellers, ask students to listen to the individual sounds in a short word (using their phonemic awareness) then represent those sounds with letters (using their phonic knowledge – the relationship between sounds and letters) e.g. p / i / g >> pig. Prompt students to use this strategy by reminding them to say the word slowly; listen carefully; then write the sounds they hear in order.

- Demonstrate how the same letter pattern can sound differently e.g. said, plait, train.

- Investigate how the same sound can be represented by different letter patterns e.g. the sound / k / can be represented by the letters c, k, ck, etc.

- In Years 3–6, students will be encountering many more long words. Such words can be broken into syllables to aid spelling e.g. in / ven / tion. Tell students to listen and write the word, syllable by syllable, making sure they have represented each sound in each syllable with a letter or letters.
Visual strategy

Focusing on the look of words (orthographic knowledge)

With many common words in English there is not a one-to-one relationship between sounds and letters (even though the words might include some regular sound/letter relationships). Such words are better learnt by sight e.g. want, what, build, little, picture. Words that are spelt by sight include words containing silent letters e.g. know, lamb.

**Orthographic knowledge** – an awareness of how letters are typically combined in written words and knowing how words should look e.g. ‘ck’ doesn’t look right at the beginning of words.

**Implications for teaching:**

- Encourage students to think about how the word looks and try several possible combinations when spelling unusual words.
- Ask students to consider which part of a word looks right and to put a tick above the letters that look right.
- For words with unusual spelling (such as beautiful, Wednesday or yacht) use the Look, Say, Cover, Write, Check strategy.
- Alert advanced students to the spelling of unstressed vowels in many words of more than one syllable, as in definitely or elephant. This is called the ‘schwa’, where the unstressed vowel ends up sounding like ‘uh’. In such cases, students will need to rely on their visual memory rather than the sound.
- Teach high frequency words, especially those whose spelling is irregular. The Oxford Wordlist has been developed from Australian children’s writing and is recommended as a useful list for a whole school approach to spelling. [http://www.oxfordwordlist.com/pages/](http://www.oxfordwordlist.com/pages/)
- Ask more advanced spellers to articulate the decisions they make in spelling unfamiliar words, with reference to the strategies they have used.

Meaning strategy

Thinking about the meaningful parts of words (morphological knowledge)

It is important to explicitly teach students to think about how words are put together and to think about what the word might mean in the context of a sentence. Many words in English cannot be written using only phonological skills. We need to think about the meaning of the word and how this can give a clue to the spelling pattern, such as the difference between ‘saw’ and ‘sore’. We also need to explore generalisations for adding prefixes and suffixes to words, changing their meaning. When adding suffixes, for example, we might have to double the final consonant or drop the ‘e’.

**Morphological knowledge** – understanding that words are made up of meaningful parts (or morphemes).

The word ‘friend’ has one morpheme, while the word ‘friends’ has two morphemes: ‘friend’ and ‘s’ to indicate that there is more than one. Similarly, ‘unfriendly’ has three morphemes: the base morpheme ‘friend’, a prefix morpheme (‘un’) and a suffix morpheme (‘ly’).

**Implications for teaching:**

- Present students with compound words and see whether they can hear/see the two words e.g. keyboard, notebook, doghouse. Challenge the class to see who can find the most compound words in the texts they are reading.
- Draw students’ attention to words that sound the same but that are spelt differently and have different meanings (homophones such as ‘whole’ and ‘hole’).
- Assist students to identify the base/root word (e.g. unsinkable) in a word with more than one morpheme. Guide them to identify the prefix and its meaning (un-) and the suffix and its meaning (-able).
• With more advanced students, explore spelling generalisations for adding beginnings and endings to words. When adding suffixes, for example, we might have to double the final consonant (hum >> humming) or drop the ‘e’ (hope >> hoping), or change the –y of the base word to –i before adding –es (story >> stories).

• Develop spelling lists that include the different ways in which adding prefixes and suffixes to words can affect the spelling.

• Rather than teaching ‘rules’, provide students with problem-solving tasks to see whether they can generalise about what happens when you add a prefix or suffix to various types of base words.

As students progress through the primary years, we could include further knowledge of word origins (etymology), particularly when we consider how a familiarity with base words, prefixes and suffixes derived from Latin and Ancient Greek can help students with spelling. For example, the Ancient Greek morpheme ‘tele–’, meaning ‘distant’, can be used in the spelling of such words as telephone, telegraph, telescope, television and telecast.

Connecting strategy
Making connections with other words
Combinations of letters appear in predictable patterns in some words e.g. brother, other, mother. Students need to come to understand that they can use what they know about one word to work out how to write a new word. Connection strategies are often referred to as ‘spelling by analogy’. For example, if I know how to spell ‘talk’, then I could probably work out ‘walk’ and ‘stalk’. Guide students to notice patterns in words through word searching and sorting, developing a culture where students are noticing and naming patterns they see in the words they read and write e.g. love, above, shove, dove.

Implications for teaching:
Teachers prompt students to use the connecting strategy when they say:
• Is there any other word that looks or sounds the same? Can you use this information to help you spell this word?
• Think of other words that are like your word; try using parts of other words to make parts of the new word.
• Do you know a memory trick (mnemonic) to help you with this word e.g. ‘My niece is nice’?
• Let’s see if we can find more words with this pattern in our story.

Checking strategy
Making use of other resources: live, print and electronic to proofread writing
Learners need to check words by referring to resources in the environment.

Implications for teaching:
Prompts used to develop this strategy include:
- You have one word to check in that line; remember the long /ee/ words we collected?
- Is there a chart that can help you with the spelling of the word?
- Is there someone in the room that can help you with that word?
- Remember when we came across that word in our story? See if you can find it.

Teach students to be independent spellers by guiding them to use environmental print, dictionaries, word walls created from topic words and high frequency word displays to check their writing, as well as electronic tools.

When the efficient use of these strategies is modelled, students build a repertoire of spelling strategies. This opens up new ways for them to think about words, so they can make conscious choices when writing, and find new ways to make connections with new words they are learning.
A key goal – spell from memory
When students are attempting to spell an unfamiliar word, they should draw on a range of strategies. Ultimately, however, the aim is that students can spell previously encountered words with automaticity. To this end, explicit teaching should address the identified needs of individuals and groups of students, along with regular opportunities for repeated and intentional engagement with words in the context of reading and writing.

General implications for teaching
• Discuss the importance of spelling in relation to being considerate to the reader and social attitudes towards poor spelling.
• Encourage students to take responsibility for their spelling and to experience a sense of pride in correct spelling.
• Foster extensive and repeated reading so that students encounter many words and have a chance to revisit them.
• Engage students regularly in purposeful independent writing where they have opportunities to develop hypotheses about how words are spelt.
• During modelled reading sessions, comment on spelling features as they are encountered in the text being read aloud.
• During shared and guided reading, focus students’ attention on aspects of words e.g. beginning, middle, or ending sounds, letter patterns noticed.
• During modelled and shared writing, think aloud about how you would draw on various strategies to spell words in the texts being constructed.
• In guided writing, help students to select strategies relevant to their identified spelling needs.
• Do word-sorting activities where students have to group words into categories representing the main spelling strategies e.g. sound/letter relationships; sight words with irregular sound/letter relationships; base words that change the ending when adding a suffix.
• Find good apps to provide practice in spelling. (Keeping in mind that many apps are aimed at younger students.)
• Teach proofreading skills to students as they work on their final drafts.
• Provide activities to practice the skills of proofreading.
• Encourage students to make use of environmental resources such as charts and word walls, electronic tools and peer advice.
• Value what students can do and see ‘errors’ as opportunities for development.
• Use a variety of sources as the focus for class, group and personal spelling lists e.g. words from students’ own writing; high frequency sight words; words that illustrate the use of vowel and consonant digraphs; analogy patterns such as ask, cask, mask, task; and selected generalisations when adding suffixes to base words.
• Provide dictionaries for students to use when they have a fair idea of how a word is spelt but want to check on some detail. Dictionaries written these days specifically for primary age students are generally colourful and inviting, and promote a curiosity about and enjoyment of words.
Monitoring and assessment

See Appendix 5.1 for assessment tools for spelling

A weekly spelling test with a mark assigned is not an effective way to assess students’ spelling competence. These days a variety of assessment strategies are used to allow students to demonstrate their spelling skills and progress across a range of contexts and activities over a period of time.

Spelling checklists

To collect data on the progress of groups or individuals, teachers can use recording formats such as whole-class grids, individual student sheets and checklists that target specific skills and strategies.

Teachers can use a spelling checklist such as the one below to check students’ progress on current spelling focus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual student checklist</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Name</strong>: James Year 3 (June)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sound strategy</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. phonological knowledge, e.g.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- can recognise, segment and produce syllables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- can segment, and blend onset and rimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- can identify, blend and segment individual phonemes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- can manipulate phonemes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good control over distinguishing phonemes in basic consonant vowel consonant (CVC) words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has problems distinguishing individual sounds in consonant clusters (e.g. stripe).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Phonics knowledge, e.g.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- identifies sound-to-letter relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- in basic CVC words (e.g. bat)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- in CVC words with a two-consonant cluster (e.g. pram, task)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- in more complex clusters (e.g. CCCVC – strip)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- represents short vowel sounds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- represents long vowel sounds (e.g. vowel digraphs (seat), silent ‘e’ (make))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- breaks longer words into syllables (e.g. fa/ther)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- uses onset and rime where useful (e.g. im/p-or/t-ant)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- recognises that sounds can be written using different letters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- recognises that letters can represent more than one sound.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breaks long words into syllables to assist spelling (e.g. don-key).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Needs work on representing long vowel sounds (e.g. meat, coat) using vowel digraphs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Individual student checklist (cont.)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name: James Year 3 (June)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Visual strategy</strong> (orthographic knowledge), e.g.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can identify combinations of letters in words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can use visual strategies to spell high frequency words from an appropriate list of sight words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognises and can spell most sight words on Oxford Wordlist, but not yet ‘friend’ and ‘Saturday’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Meaning strategy</strong> (morphological knowledge), e.g.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>associates the spelling with the meaning of the word</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>distinguishes between words with the same sound but different spellings and meanings (homophones)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identifies the base word and any prefixes or suffixes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>generalises about changes to the base word when adding prefixes and suffixes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can distinguish some common homophones (e.g. bare vs bear).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can identify base word and affixes (e.g. unkindly).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is able to develop a generalisation about adding a suffix to base words ending in –ey (e.g. storey &gt; storeys) but still needs reminding with words ending in –y (e.g. story &gt; stories).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Connecting strategy</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identifies words that contain the same letter combinations (night, sight, flight, might)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>draws on these analogies when trying to spell an unfamiliar word.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can collate a list of words with similar patterns from current reading material (e.g. mother, brother, other).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Checking strategy</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>takes care to check spelling when proofreading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uses environmental print to confirm spelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>knows how to use a suitable dictionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asks for help when stuck.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely bothers to check spelling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Automaticity</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spelling of commonly used words is becoming internalised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spells familiar words from memory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some evidence of automatic retrieval of familiar words, but overly reliant on sound-letter knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Disposition</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>curiosity about spelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>willingness to take risks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>persistence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>desire to make and share meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>problem-solving attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>integrates the strategies rather than being dependent on a single strategy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Becoming more willing to draw on a range of strategies and take risks.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Spelling sight words

Use the Oxford Wordlist to keep track of students’ growing knowledge of high frequency words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Ben</th>
<th>Jamie</th>
<th>Heather</th>
<th>Emma</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>something</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>sumthink</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wasn’t</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>wozent</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday</td>
<td>wednesday</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>wednay</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>thea</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wrong</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>rong</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teaching</td>
<td>teeching</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>teatching</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>come</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>kum</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bread</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>braed</td>
<td>bred</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis of student writing samples

- Collect samples of student writing at various intervals throughout the year.
  - What can students do – how are they clever?
  - What might be some of the student’s misconceptions about how words work?
  - What strategies are they using?
  - What knowledge is missing in their attempts at spelling?
  - What were they thinking about when they chose to write particular letter combinations?
- Identify strengths and weaknesses in spelling strategies.
- Provide timely and regular feedback.
- Develop teaching activities in response to the analysis.
- Monitor for improvement.

Diagnostic assessment

Diagnostic assessment identifies spelling strengths and weaknesses in some detail in order to develop personalised spelling programs for individual students or groups of students, especially those who are experiencing problems with spelling. Data can be collected from teacher-designed tests, commercial assessment instruments, or from students’ writing samples. Analysis of the data should inform ongoing teaching and monitoring.

Diagnostic assessment can target various aspects of spelling:

- strategies used when attempting new or unfamiliar words
- knowledge of segmentation and syllabification
- knowledge of high frequency sight words
- knowledge of word families
- spelling generalisations
- willingness to ‘have-a-go’
- proofreading skills.
Word solving interview with a student

• What do you do when you want to write a word you don’t know how to spell?

• What are some words that are tricky for you to spell?

• Why do you think they are tricky?

• What helps you to learn to spell new words?

• What could you do to get better at spelling new words?

Questions for reflection

• Does your school have a shared understanding of the range of spelling strategies?

• Are the spelling strategies taught and assessed in a consistent way from class to class?

• Is there a scope and sequence for spelling?

• How do you incorporate the teaching of spelling strategies into your literacy program?

• Do you use spelling lists in your class? If so, on what basis do you choose the words to include in the list?

• How do you track individual students’ progress in spelling?

• How do you support the diversity of students’ levels of spelling ability?

• How is the evidence from assessment used to inform instruction?

Useful resources

See Appendix 5.2 for useful resources to support spelling
Grammar and punctuation

Key messages
These days we see grammar as our main resource for creating different kinds of meanings that vary depending on the context. While we are interested in expanding our students’ meaning-making potential, we also want them to create texts that are grammatically accurate and reader-friendly.

Grammar as a meaning-making resource
Learning grammar from a functional perspective provides students with an understanding of how language works in order to enhance their reading and writing. It is our job as teachers to ensure that students have a wide range of grammatical choices for expressing themselves and an understanding of how these choices vary depending on the context: the purpose for writing; the topic; the audience; and the channel of communication. In doing this, we need to develop a language for talking about language that allows us to discuss the meanings being made in a text.

Grammatical accuracy
Most issues to do with accuracy will generally sort themselves out as students become increasingly immersed in the written language, but attention can be drawn to persistent errors. In their oral language, many children will come to school with social dialects that differ from Standard Australian English. These may include features such as ‘youse’, ‘me and him are gunna …’; and the like. It is important to recognise that such social dialects are part of the child’s identity as a member of a community. Rather than branding such dialects as ‘incorrect’, it is preferable to lead students to an understanding that in different contexts we use language differently, and that in school contexts – especially in more formal situations and when writing – we use Standard Australian English (‘school language’).

Punctuation
Most punctuation is linked to the grammatical structure of sentences. It is therefore useful to teach it alongside sentence structure.

In this section we will look at:

- Groups and words
- Simple sentences
- Compound and complex sentences
- Text level grammar.
The following tables highlight how grammar and punctuation is represented in the *Australian Curriculum: English*. Teachers should also refer to the literacy learning continuum [www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/generalcapabilities/literacy/continuum#layout=columns](http://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/generalcapabilities/literacy/continuum#layout=columns).

### Australian Curriculum: English

**Grammar and Punctuation – relevant Content Descriptors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 3</th>
<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
<th>Year 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Understand how different types of texts vary in use of language choices, depending on their purpose and context (for example, tense and types of sentences)</td>
<td>Understand how texts are made cohesive through the use of linking devices including pronoun reference and text connectives</td>
<td>Understand that the starting point of a sentence gives prominence to the message in the text and allows for prediction of how the text will unfold</td>
<td>Understand that cohesive links can be made in texts by omitting or replacing words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand that a clause is a unit of grammar usually containing a subject and a verb and that these need to be in agreement</td>
<td>Understand that the meaning of sentences can be enriched through the use of noun groups/phrases and verb groups/phrases and prepositional phrases</td>
<td>Understand the difference between main and subordinate clauses and that a complex sentence involves at least one subordinate clause</td>
<td>Investigate how complex sentences can be used in a variety of ways to elaborate, extend and explain ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand that verbs represent different processes, for example doing, thinking, saying, and relating and that these processes are anchored in time through tense</td>
<td>Understand how adverb groups/phrases and prepositional phrases work in different ways to provide circumstantial details about an activity</td>
<td>Understand how noun groups/phrases and adjective groups/phrases can be expanded in a variety of ways to provide a fuller description of the person, place, thing or idea</td>
<td>Understand how ideas can be expanded and sharpened through careful choice of verbs, elaborated tenses and a range of adverb groups/phrases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn extended and technical vocabulary and ways of expressing opinion including modal verbs and adverbs</td>
<td>Investigate how quoted (direct) and reported (indirect) speech work in different types of text</td>
<td>Understand how the grammatical category of possessives is signalled through apostrophes and how to use apostrophes with common and proper nouns</td>
<td>Understand the uses of commas to separate clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand how noun groups/phrases and adjective groups/phrases can be expanded in a variety of ways to provide a fuller description of the person, place, thing or idea</td>
<td>Recoginse how quotation marks are used in texts to signal dialogue, titles and quoted (direct) speech</td>
<td>Identify and explain characteristic text structures and language features used in imaginative, informative and persuasive texts to meet the purpose of the text</td>
<td>Analyse how text structures and language features work together to meet the purpose of a text</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Australian Curriculum: English
### Grammar and Punctuation – relevant Achievement Standards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 3</th>
<th>Year 4</th>
<th>Year 5</th>
<th>Year 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They demonstrate understanding of grammar and choose punctuation appropriate to the purpose and context of their writing.</td>
<td>They demonstrate understanding of grammar and use accurate punctuation.</td>
<td>Students use language features to show how ideas can be extended.</td>
<td>They explain how their choices of language features are used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students understand how language features are used to link and sequence ideas.</td>
<td>Students use language features to create coherence and add detail to their texts.</td>
<td>When writing, they demonstrate understanding of grammar using a variety of sentence types.</td>
<td>They demonstrate an understanding of grammar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They read texts that contain varied sentence structures and a range of punctuation conventions.</td>
<td></td>
<td>They edit their work to provide for cohesive structure and meaning.</td>
<td>They make considered choices to enhance cohesion in their writing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Planning

Teachers and educators use the tabled curriculum information to plan by backward mapping from the curriculum outcomes. According to the level the students are operating at, teachers refer to the Australian Curriculum, using the achievement standards and the content descriptors of the English curriculum and the expected indicators in the Australian Curriculum Literacy Learning Continuum to set instructional goals.

The following grammar and punctuation activities describe the sorts of learning opportunities teachers need to create in order to develop the required, stated learning in the table, both for literacy and for the English learning that underpins it.

### Groups and words

The focus in Years 3–6 is on building understanding of how language enables us to represent what is going on in our lives. We do this by identifying how words cluster into groups (‘meaningful chunks’) to answer questions such as:

- ‘what’s happening?’ (the process)
- ‘who or what are involved?’ (the participants in the process)
- ‘any extra details about the activity?’ (e.g. Where? When? How? Why? With whom? – the circumstances surrounding the process)

Eventually we can get down to the level of the individual word when it is useful to do so.
Putting it into practice

Word clusters
This activity helps students to recognise the main units of meaning in a simple sentence.

- Find an image that represents lots of things happening.
- Ask students to tell you what’s going on in the picture.
- Write down selected responses on the board. Make sure that each is a complete simple sentence (clause) containing an ‘action word’ e.g.

```
Smoke is billowing from the fire.
The Duchess is sitting on a stool in the middle of the room.
She is wearing a ridiculous hat.
She is nursing a baby on her lap.
The baby is howling at the top of its voice.
The cook is stirring a big pot of soup.
A large grinning cat is sitting next to the fire.
Alice is trying to calm the screaming baby.
```

- Ask students to identify the ‘chunks of meaning’ in each sentence by asking the following questions in this sequence:
  - ‘Which word/s tell us about the action?’ e.g. is stirring
  - ‘Which word/s tell us who or what are involved in the action?’ e.g. ‘who or what is doing the action’ (the cook) or ‘who or what is also involved in the action’ (the pot of soup). Note: not all sentences will have a ‘receiver’ of the action.)
  - ‘Are there any extra words that tell us about the activity?’ e.g. ‘how’ (at the top of its voice), ‘where’ (next to the fire).

Colour coding
Colour coding helps the students to see the patterns of meaning in a sentence. The conventional colours are:

**Green for ‘what’s happening?’** **Red for ‘who or what is involved?’** **Blue for any additional details about the activity (‘when’, ‘where’, ‘how’, etc).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Later that night</td>
<td>Pooh Bear</td>
<td>took</td>
<td>the honey pot</td>
<td>gleefully</td>
<td>from the shelf.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Going deeper into the clause
When the students are familiar with answering these three questions, then they can start to examine the various word clusters in terms of their function and their grammatical form, focusing on the following elements that together form a clause:

- Verb groups representing various types of processes (doing, thinking, feeling, perceiving, saying, being and having).
- Noun groups representing the participants in these processes (people, things, places, ideas, etc).
In the later primary years, students can explore in greater detail the resources of each word group.

A basic verb group can contain a ‘main verb’ which gives the content meaning of the process, and potentially other words that locate the process in time, or indicate the degree of certainty about the action:

- Guide students to identify verbs/verb groups in texts they are reading.
- Get them to identify whether the verbs represent present, past or future time (and perhaps how this differs depending on the genre).
- Ask them to assess the choice of verbs in their own texts to see whether they can be made more specific or vivid.
- In narratives, ask them to look at how different types of verbs are used to develop the characters: what they do; what they think; what they feel; how they interact; and so on.
- In persuasive texts, ask them to think about how changes in the level of certainty (modality) can either open up or close down space for negotiation of positions e.g. could vs should.
- Find instances in students’ texts where subject and verb don’t agree in number and discuss this during guided writing sessions.

A basic noun group can contain descriptive information before the noun and after the noun:

- Play games to see which team can create the longest noun groups using all the resources before and after the noun.
- In shared reading, identify richly descriptive noun groups and discuss how this enables us to picture the participant (e.g. character/setting/object) more clearly.
- In shared writing, guide students to build up noun groups to make the text more descriptive.
- Point out to students that long noun groups aren’t necessarily better. Find examples of effective brief noun groups in their own texts and in texts being read.
- In students’ own writing, emphasise that the descriptive details aren’t random – each word in a noun group is carefully chosen to contribute towards the overall development of the text.
**Adverbials** can take various grammatical forms such as adverbs and phrases:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>He went</th>
<th>ADVERBIALS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>wearily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>how? adverbial</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Ask students to identify adverbials in texts they are reading and to see which questions the adverbials answer (e.g. how? when? where? why? with whom? how far?). Discuss the role the adverbial is playing in the text e.g. sequencing the actions in time, developing the setting, building up the character.

- Get students to do actions in the manner suggested by the ‘how’ adverbials e.g. he said **angrily; she danced in a wild manner**.

- Delete the adverbials from a text (e.g. a procedure) and see whether the students can insert something plausible.

**Simple sentences**

Simple sentences are sentences that contain a single clause (and have a single main verb). Students in Years 3–6 need to understand that a simple sentence represents a single idea or event, with something happening, one or more participants in the activity, and some possible extra details about the activity such as ‘when’, ‘where’ and ‘how’.

**Putting it into practice**

**Sentence strips**

- Using simple sentences from books being read or from students’ own writing, create sentence strips on cardboard using all lower case letters.

- Colour code the sentences as above. (See Groups and words) e.g. **later that night, Pooh Bear took the honey pot gleefully/from the shelf**.

- Cut up the sentence strips into the coloured ‘chunks’. (These could be laminated.)

- In groups, mix up the sentence strips and guide the students to create the original sentence:
  - Find the word that tells us the action.
  - Now find the words that tell us who or what is doing the action.
  - Which words tell us who or what is receiving the action?
  - Are there any words that tell us ‘when’?
  - Are there any words that tell us ‘how’?
  - Are there any words that tell us ‘where’?

| later that night Pooh Bear took the honey pot gleefully from the shelf |

Make a set of laminated upper case letters and full stops so that students can place them at the beginning and end of the sentence.

- Older students could be guided to play with the order of the chunks:
  - Could we put ‘gleefully’ at the front?
  - Could we move ‘later that night’ to the end?
Compound and complex sentences

Compound and complex sentences are our main resource for making connections between ideas.

**Compound sentences** consist of two or more independent clauses. The clauses are joined by a coordinating conjunction: and, or, but, so, for, neither … nor, yet e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>independent clause</th>
<th>independent clause</th>
<th>independent clause</th>
<th>independent clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pooh Bear was hungry</td>
<td>so he went to the larder</td>
<td>and reached up to the top shelf</td>
<td>but he found — nothing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NB: conjunctions can also be used to join words (Frog and Toad went out to fly a kite.) or groups of words (Do you want a cup of tea or a mug of coffee?)

**Complex sentences** consist of one independent clause plus one or more dependent clauses. These clauses are usually joined by a subordinating conjunction e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>independent clause</th>
<th>dependent clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eeyore was standing by himself in a thistly corner of the Forest</td>
<td>when Winnie the Pooh came along</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Putting it into practice

The Australian Curriculum expects that students in Years 3–6 will not only use compound and complex sentences but will be able to recognise them and talk about them. It is most purposeful and effective to teach students about different types of sentences in the context of their own reading and writing – particularly during shared and guided reading and writing activities.

**Creating links in compound sentences**

- On cardboard strips, write words, word groups, or clauses from books being read in class. Get students to link these using the conjunctions and, but, or and so to create compound sentences. (Use orange for conjunctions.)

- Have a set of capital letters and full stops on cards so that the students can place them at the beginning and end of sentences.

- Introduce the word conjunction (and for advanced students, coordinating conjunction – for compound sentences).

**Text detectives**

- In their texts – and in texts being read – ask students to use different colours to highlight simple sentences (a single clause) and compound sentences (two or more independent clauses joined with a coordinating conjunction).

- Ask them to consider whether the choice of a particular simple sentence is effective e.g. for dramatic effect or to keep the sentence uncluttered.

- Ask them to see if there are any ideas expressed in separate simple sentences that could be better combined into compound sentences.

**Moving to complex sentences**

In the upper primary years, students will be using compound and complex sentences in their writing. They are now expected to be able to identify and talk about how they are making connections between their ideas by their choice of sentence structures. They should also be broadening their range of choices, depending on the type of text.
When students are comfortable with simple and compound sentences, introduce them to complex sentences. Provide them with a list of subordinating conjunctions and talk about how many more meanings you can make with subordinating conjunctions than the half dozen or so coordinating ones. Ask students to identify their own use of complex sentences in their writing. Get them to see whether they could create complex sentences by combining simple sentences.

Guide students to manipulate the dependent clause in a complex sentence by moving it to the beginning or end of the sentence to change the emphasis. If it is moved to the front, it needs to be followed with a comma (as in this sentence). Here is a list of common subordinating conjunctions and their functions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS</th>
<th>TIME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>WHEN?</strong></td>
<td>after, before, when, as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>HOW LONG?</strong></td>
<td>as long as, since, until, while</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>HOW OFTEN?</strong></td>
<td>whenever, every time</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MEANS</th>
<th>by, through, with</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>COMPARISON</strong></td>
<td>as if, like, as though, as</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REASON</th>
<th>as, because, since, in case, as a result of</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PURPOSE</strong></td>
<td>so that, in order to, so as to, in order that</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONDITION</th>
<th>if, as long as, in case, unless, on condition that</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CONCESSION</td>
<td>although, even though, even if, while, whereas, despite, much as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ADDING</strong></td>
<td>besides, as well as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>REPLACING</strong></td>
<td>except for, other than, instead of, rather than</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS</strong></th>
<th><strong>TIME</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>WHEN?</strong></td>
<td>She disappeared <strong>when</strong> it was her turn to wash up. <strong>Before</strong> I decide, I want to talk to Brian.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>HOW LONG?</strong></td>
<td>I haven’t seen her <strong>since</strong> she moved to Western Australia. <strong>Until</strong> your ankle heals, you will have to stay at home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>HOW OFTEN?</strong></td>
<td>I feel frustrated <strong>whenever</strong> I hear her speak. <strong>Every time</strong> he calls, I pretend I’m not at home.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>MANNER</strong></th>
<th><strong>MEANS</strong></th>
<th><strong>COMPARISON</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>MEANS</strong></td>
<td><strong>by, through, with</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>COMPARISON</strong></td>
<td><strong>as if, like, as though, as</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>REASON</strong></th>
<th><strong>football cards are banned at our school because they cause arguments. Since</strong> you obviously aren’t interested, let’s leave it.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PURPOSE</strong></td>
<td>They went outside <strong>in order</strong> to see what the noise was. We left early <strong>so that</strong> we could get a parking space.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>CONDITION</strong></th>
<th>If she wants to join us, she’ll have to hurry up.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CONCESSION</strong></td>
<td><strong>Even though</strong> they weren’t hungry, they ate a full meal. <strong>While</strong> recognising his skill, I don’t think he is right for this job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ADDING</strong></td>
<td>Besides working full-time, she was volunteering at the shelter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>REPLACING</strong></td>
<td>Except for, other than, instead of, rather than <strong>Instead</strong> of attacking them, the wolf led them out of the forest.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Text level grammar

We can go beyond the level of sentences and look at those language resources that operate at the level of the whole text.

Cohesion

Writers use various cohesive devices to make their texts flow more smoothly and to avoid repetition. It helps to draw students’ attention to such devices as they are reading, before expecting them to use them in their own writing.

Pronouns

Pronouns are generally used to make a link back to something already mentioned in the text. By Year 3, students should have no problems tracking simple links, as between 'a jar' and 'it':

Alice took down a jar from one of the shelves but it was empty.

When there are several pronouns referring to different things in the one paragraph, however, it could become confusing for some students, particularly as pronouns are short, ‘non-content’ words that are easy to skip over e.g.

When Alice got to the door, she found she had forgotten the little golden key, and when she went back to the table for it, she found she could not possibly reach it. She could see it quite plainly through the glass, and she tried her best to climb up one of the legs of the table, but it was too slippery.

- As less advanced students read aloud during a guided reading session, keep asking them to make links back from the pronoun to the thing it is referring to.
- As a fun activity, select a passage with several pronouns referring to various participants and get students to track the participants using different colours, as above.

One way to identify cohesive links is to take a sentence from a text and ask whether it makes complete sense on its own or whether you have to refer back to something previously mentioned. In the following sentences, for example, see if you can understand what this, that and it refer to before reading the preceding greyed-out sentence:

'I'll put a stop to this,' she said to herself, and shouted out, 'You'd better not do that again!'

Who are YOU,' said the Caterpillar. This was not an encouraging opening for a conversation. ‘Come back!’ the Caterpillar called after her. ‘I’ve something important to say!’ This sounded promising, certainly: Alice turned and came back again. ‘Keep your temper,’ said the Caterpillar. ‘Is that all?’ said Alice. ‘Little girls eat eggs quite as much as serpents do, you know.’ ‘I don’t believe it,’ said the Pigeon.

During shared reading sessions, cover up the bit of text referred to by this or that and ask students to speculate on what these vague pronouns might refer back to. Sometimes it might be a whole paragraph that is being summarised with this or that.

Omitting or replacing words

In English, we often omit a word to avoid repetition. This forces the reader to make a cohesive link backwards in the text to retrieve the meaning. In the following sentences, for example, the greyed out bits were omitted in the original as they would have made the text sound clumsy and in any case could have been inferred from the context:
Alice was beginning to get very tired of sitting by her sister on the bank, and [she was beginning to get very tired] of having nothing to do.

She found in the tin a very small cake. She ate a little bit [of the cake].

Proficient readers don’t even notice such ‘holes’ in the text, but younger readers starting to encounter more complex texts can sometimes lose the thread. This potential source of confusion is noted by Alice when the Caterpillar leaves out information:

‘One side will make you grow taller, and the other side will make you grow shorter.’

‘One side of WHAT? The other side of WHAT?’ thought Alice to herself.

‘Of the mushroom,’ said the Caterpillar.

Again, look at the sentences below before reading the preceding greyed-out sentence and think how you would guide your students to fill in the blank:

How do you know I’m mad?’ said Alice.

‘You must be […?.….],’ said the Cat, ‘or you wouldn’t have come here.’

‘Serpent!’ screamed the Pigeon.

‘I’m NOT […?.….],’ said Alice indignantly.

‘I’m not looking for eggs, as it happens.

And if I was […?.….], I shouldn’t want yours. I don’t like them raw.’

‘Please would you tell me,’ said Alice, ‘why your cat grins like that?’

‘It’s a Cheshire cat,’ said the Duchess, ‘and that’s why […?.….].

‘I didn’t know that cats COULD grin.’

‘They all can [….?.….],’ said the Duchess; ‘and most of ’em do […?.….].’

Sometimes, rather than omitting words, we replace them with a vague word such as do, one, it, some or so. This also creates cohesion by making a link back to the preceding text to find the meaning.

‘Little girls eat eggs quite as much as serpents do [= ‘eat eggs], you know.

‘I hope it will make me grow large again,’ she said to herself.

It did so [=‘did maker her grow large again’] indeed.

Consider how you would guide students to identify the meaning of vague words such as did, so and one/s in sentences such as the following:

And with that she began nursing her child again, singing a sort of lullaby to it as she did so.

Alice went on ‘And how do you know that you’re mad?’

‘To begin with,’ said the Cat, ‘a dog’s not mad. You grant that?’

‘I suppose so,’ said Alice.

The next thing was to eat the comfits: this caused some noise and confusion, as the large birds complained that they could not taste theirs, and the small ones choked and had to be patted on the back.

Synonyms

Synonyms are used to add variety, avoid repetition and contribute additional layers of meaning. They can, however, create problems when students don’t realise that a synonym used later in a text refers back to something already mentioned. In Alice in Wonderland, for example, the following synonyms all refer back to the baby:

Her child
The poor little thing
My boy
A queer-shaped little creature
The little thing
This creature
The little creature
A dreadfully ugly child

Rather than teaching synonyms simply as lists of paired words, get students to find synonyms in a text and discuss how they create cohesion.
Monitoring and assessment

See Appendix 6.1 for suggestions of assessment tools for grammar and punctuation.

Focused assessment

Rather than try to assess everything in students’ texts, focus on the particular feature that you have been teaching. In this case, you could focus on the students’ use (or non-use) of conjunctions to join words, groups of words and clauses.

Student self-assessment

Ask students to see whether there are any sentences in their texts that they could profitably join together with conjunctions.

I was scared. I ran to my bedroom. The ghost followed me.

I was scared so I ran to my bedroom but the ghost followed me.

Grammar and punctuation checklist

See also: National Minimum Standards (Grammar and Punctuation) http://www.schools.nsw.edu.au/learning/7-12assessments/naplan/nms/lang_gramm.html

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name:</th>
<th>Date:</th>
<th>Not evident</th>
<th>Developing</th>
<th>Evident</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can identify the main elements of a clause/simple sentence using the questions:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Which word/s tell us what’s happening?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Which word/s tell us who or what is involved in the activity?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Are there any extra details about the activity? (E.g. when? where? how?)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colour codes the key elements of a clause/simple sentence (the processes, the participants and any circumstances).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes deliberate choices of verb/process types in their writing (e.g. doing, thinking, feeling, saying, being, having).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiments with noun groups to represent the participants (human and non-human) in their texts.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can identify conjunctions (joining words) that link words, groups of words, or clauses.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edits own work for use (or non-use) of conjunctions.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can identify the use of compound and complex sentences to join ideas in texts they are reading or in their own texts.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can identify ways in which cohesive links are made in texts.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses commas to separate items in a list of words, groups of words or clauses.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can punctuate direct and indirect speech.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses a capital letter at the beginning of a sentence and a full stop at the end.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoids using ‘run-on’ sentences and ‘comma splice’ sentences.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Questions for reflection

• How does the teaching of grammar today differ from how it was taught in the past?
• Does your school have a unified approach to the use of terminology to talk about language?
• How confident do you feel about your own knowledge about contemporary grammar and how to teach it? What support might you need?
• What suggestions for teaching punctuation might you share with a colleague?
• If you had EAL/D students in your class, how would you support them in terms of their understanding of English grammar? Are you familiar with the EAL/D Learning Progression?

Useful resources

See Appendix 6 for useful resources to support grammar and punctuation.
Vocabulary

Key messages
An extensive vocabulary is at the heart of learning and is a major predictor of educational success. One of a teacher’s key jobs is to ensure that students’ repertoire of vocabulary resources is constantly expanding. Each new vocabulary item represents a new idea. If students’ vocabulary is limited, then their ability to think deeply and creatively is limited.

Teachers encourage students to be excited about learning new words rather than regarding them as difficult or irrelevant.

In this section we will look at:
- Vocabulary extension
- Vocabulary skills.

Links to the curriculum
The following tables highlight how vocabulary is represented in the Australian Curriculum: English. Teachers should also refer to the literacy learning continuum www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/generalcapabilities/literacy/continuum#layout=columns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Australian Curriculum: English</th>
<th>Vocabulary – relevant Content Descriptors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year 3</td>
<td>Year 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examine how evaluative language can be varied to be more or less forceful. Learn extended and technical vocabulary and ways of expressing opinion including modal verbs and adverbs.</td>
<td>Incorporate new vocabulary from a range of sources into students’ own texts including vocabulary encountered in research. Understand differences between the language of opinion and feeling and the language of factual reporting or recording.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Australian Curriculum: English</th>
<th>Vocabulary – relevant Achievement Standards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year 3</td>
<td>Year 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They choose vocabulary appropriate to the purpose and context of their writing.</td>
<td>They select vocabulary from a range of resources.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Planning

Teachers and educators use the tabled curriculum information to plan by backward mapping from the curriculum outcomes. According to the level the students are operating at, teachers refer to the Australian Curriculum, using the achievement standards and the content descriptors of the English curriculum and the expected indicators in the Australian Curriculum Literacy Learning Continuum to set instructional goals.

The following vocabulary activities describe the sorts of learning opportunities teachers need to create in order to develop the required, stated learning in the table, both for literacy and for the English learning that underpins it.

Tiered Vocabulary

Vocabulary is often thought of in terms of three tiers:

**Tier 1 (already known):** Basic words that commonly appear in everyday spoken language and are a regular part of the vocabulary of most students. Tier 1 words rarely require explicit instruction. Examples of Tier 1 words are clock, baby, happy and walk. Tier 1 words can include idioms such as follow your nose, pull the other leg, by leaps and bounds, around the bend.

**Tier 2 (must know):** These are high utility words commonly used in school contexts across all areas of the curriculum. Examples of Tier 2 words are regulations, problem, evidence, verify, contrast, nuance, summarise, concept. Vocabulary items aren’t necessarily single words. Some Tier 2 words, for example, will be vocabulary clusters (multi-word expressions) encountered in literary texts such as too much of a good thing, in a nutshell, so far so good, to his surprise.

**Tier 3 (should know):** Words that are specific to a particular area of the curriculum. Students would need to know such words in order to successfully complete tasks in any particular unit of work a curriculum area. Tier 3 words are central to building knowledge and conceptual understanding within the various academic domains and are essential for teaching about content. Examples of these words are measure, software, clause, natural resources, nutrition, continuity and change, digit.

Research over a considerable period of time indicates that:

- Students from high SES backgrounds are likely to have twice as many Tier 1 words as those from low SES backgrounds.
- Students from EAL backgrounds will have a store of Tier 1 words in their home language and will need to develop Tier 1 words in English.
- Students with language delays will need quite specific help with Tier 1 words.

Even though students might have a good command of conversational Tier 1 words, this is not sufficient for success in educational contexts. All students will benefit from explicit teaching of Tier 2 words as these are useful across multiple contexts. Tier 3 words should be taught in the context of tasks where they apply.

Tiered Vocabulary

- **Tier 3** Domain-specific academic vocabulary
- **Tier 2** High-utility academic vocabulary found in many content texts, cross-curricular terms
- **Tier 1** Everyday words familiar to most students primarily through conversation
Vocabulary extension

Vocabulary extension happens throughout the day in all areas of the curriculum as students are actively engaged in tasks. As well as immersing students in texts and discussions, teachers need to teach word-learning strategies explicitly in planned vocabulary sessions.

Reading and listening increases our receptive vocabulary. To turn our receptive vocabulary into productive vocabulary, we need to use it in our speaking and writing. Students need to hear, read and use a word several times before it becomes part of their productive vocabulary repertoire.

A confident, deep knowledge of a word develops gradually over time. Deep knowledge of a word includes:

• its meaning in a particular context
• other meanings it might have in other contexts
• how it is pronounced
• how it is spelled
• how it enters into different relations e.g. word associations, part/whole, class/subclass, synonyms, antonyms
• its grammatical form e.g. noun, verb, adjective
• how and when to use it in speaking or writing (and when not to use it).

Putting it into practice

One of the most effective ways of extending students’ vocabulary is for them to read extensively and purposefully; to listen to texts being read aloud at school and at home; and to participate in discussions with more knowledgeable others. Effective strategies include the following:

• Pre-teach key vocabulary items before students meet them in a text; draw attention to other items of interest during shared and guided reading sessions; and directly teach a range of significant vocabulary items after reading the text.

• Engage students with words by revisiting them in a variety of ways:
  - Showing the word and saying it aloud (e.g. ‘personification’).
  - Asking questions to determine whether students understand the word (e.g. ‘What do you think … might mean?’, ‘Give me an example of …’, ‘Can you put that in another way?’).
  - Showing a related picture, photo, diagram, or object where possible.
  - Using gestures and activity where appropriate (e.g. walking slowly for saunter).
  - Looking for any contextual clues in the surrounding text.
  - Identifying where words are defined in a text (e.g. when the word is in bold).
  - Using the glossary in information texts.
  - Seeing whether prefixes, suffixes or word origins can assist in understanding the meaning (e.g. the word democracy comes from two Greek words: demos meaning ‘the people’ and kratos meaning ‘power’).
  - Creating word associations/collocations (e.g. refugee: fear, despair, war, poverty).
- Describing properties such as the colour, size and shape (e.g. a rectangle has four sides and four 90 degree angles).
- Finding synonyms (e.g. blow up for inflate).
- Finding antonyms (e.g. poetry vs prose).
- Asking students to provide a relevant metaphor or simile to illustrate the vocabulary item (e.g. poetry is like painting with words; a poem is like a puzzle).
- Putting a word’s meaning into a category (e.g. a marsupial is a type of mammal).
- Finding word patterns (e.g. part-whole pattern: the solar system consists of planets orbiting around the sun).
- Naming the function, use or purpose (e.g. scientific knowledge is used to solve problems).
- Creating word clines/scales (gradable words – especially those relating to attitudes – going from one extreme to another, e.g. from delighted through to livid).

- Extend students’ vocabulary repertoire by helping them to:
  - move from general meanings to specific (cut >>> slice, dice, julienne)
  - move from bland to vivid (walk >>> lope, saunter, slink, prowl)
  - move from predictable to novel/unexpected/playful (the parrots huffed and puffed and fluffed)
  - move from the literal to the figurative e.g. metaphor
  - move from the everyday to the technical e.g. cut >>> dissect; give in >>> capitulate
  - move from the concrete to the abstract e.g. issue, debate, factor, consequence, process, circumstances.

- Model how you would go about writing a text, explaining and verbalising vocabulary choices as you go.
- Define and rephrase words in classroom discourse: ‘… all these things work together – they form a system – a system has a number of components that form a whole – for example, in the circulatory system …’
- Create interactive word walls/displays so that students can capture new, exciting and unusual vocabulary for later use. Make sure that students are involved in constantly changing the word walls and organising them in various ways e.g. words related to the current topic, words categorised according to function (e.g. action verbs, saying verbs, sensing verbs), synonyms.

Provide information for parents and carers on the importance of extending students vocabulary e.g. through reading together, including them in adult discussions, developing a collection of appealing books, involving them in activities and excursions that expose them to new words, and to TV shows and digital apps that promote vocabulary expansion.
Vocabulary skills

It is important to introduce students to the skills that enable them to unlock the meaning of unfamiliar or complex words.

Morpheme knowledge

As we have seen in the Spelling section, words are made of meaningful units called morphemes. A word can consist of one or more morphemes: the base word (sometimes called the root word) along with any prefixes and suffixes. The word unsuccessful, for example, consists of three morphemes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>un</th>
<th>success</th>
<th>ful</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>prefix</td>
<td>base word</td>
<td>suffix</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The word unsuccessfully consists of four morphemes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>un</th>
<th>success</th>
<th>ful</th>
<th>ly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>prefix</td>
<td>base word</td>
<td>suffix</td>
<td>suffix</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compound words

Compound words consist of two base words joined to create a new word e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>air-conditioning</th>
<th>chewing gum</th>
<th>common sense</th>
<th>fancy dress</th>
<th>fast food</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>first aid</td>
<td>lost property</td>
<td>make-up</td>
<td>old age</td>
<td>pocket money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>science fiction</td>
<td>social work</td>
<td>table tennis</td>
<td>toilet paper</td>
<td>address book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alarm clock</td>
<td>bank account</td>
<td>remote control</td>
<td>car park</td>
<td>contact lens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fairy tale</td>
<td>credit card</td>
<td>police officer</td>
<td>letterbox</td>
<td>swimming pool</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note how some compound words form a single word, some are hyphenated, and some are two separate words. There are no hard and fast rules about this.

Prefixes and suffixes in academic texts

Knowing the meaning of prefixes can help students to decode unknown academic vocabulary. Suffixes can also be used to decode the meaning of words. Many suffixes can be added to a word to create a different vocabulary item e.g. beauty (noun) > beautiful (adjective). Note that there are often implications for spelling in the way suffixes are added.

Some suffixes are used to create grammatical meanings such as tense, plurals, possessives, comparatives and superlatives.

See Appendix 7.1, 7.2 and 7.3 for lists of common prefixes and suffixes

Word origin knowledge

Latin and Greek roots

Students in upper primary school and the secondary years will benefit from learning common Latin and Greek roots. These were the languages of the scholarly community. Scholars communicated in Latin regardless of their home language. Textbooks were written in Latin for almost 2000 years.

Today we use Latin and Greek for technical terms:

- to create a scientific international *lingua franca* with neutral, stable, agreed-upon meanings
- to ensure that technical terms are unambiguous e.g.
  - Latin: used for legal terms as well as medical, biological, botanical, zoological, architectural, geographical terms e.g. aqua, aud, austral, dent, hydro, hypno
  - Greek: used for many military and scientific terms, especially botany and medicine e.g. biblio, bio, dem, log, phon, tele

See Appendix 7.4 for lists of common Latin and Greek roots

Other foreign words

Apart from Greek and Latin roots, it is interesting to learn words that come from other languages:

- Jeans: from the Italian city of Genoa where the cloth for making jeans was first made
Jodhpurs: named after the city of Jodhpur in India where trousers like this are worn

Pyjamas: from the Urdu word ‘paejama’ meaning trousers

Sandal: from the Greek word ‘sandalon’ meaning a wooden shoe

Sari: from Hindi

**Etymology**

Students can be intrigued by the history of words (etymology) e.g.

**Clue:** a fact or piece of evidence that helps to clarify a mystery or solve a problem. ORIGIN originally denoting a ball of thread, hence one used to guide a person out of a labyrinth.

**Cobweb:** ‘Coppe’ was an Old English word for a spider, so a ‘cobweb’ is a ‘spider’s web’

**New words**

English is a living language and new words are constantly entering our vocabulary. Students might be interested to find out the latest ones to be included in the dictionary e.g.

**shoulder-surfing**

*n.* the practice of spying on the user of a cash-dispensing machine or other electronic device in order to obtain their personal identification number, password, etc.

**five-finger discount**

*n.* US, euphemistic, the activity or proceeds of stealing or shoplifting.

**hoody** *(also hoodie)*

*n.* informal a person, especially a youth, wearing a hooded top.


**Idioms**

Idioms can cause problems for some students such as EAL learners, who might interpret the individual words literally, instead of understanding that the words can take on a different meaning when brought together in an idiomatic phrase e.g.

*Once in a blue moon.*

*He’s got a real chip on his shoulder.*

*Let’s cut to the chase.*

*I’m going to play devil’s advocate.*

*They went the full monty.*

*She got out on the wrong side of the bed.*

*Hold your horses.*

*Keep your chin up!*

**Dictionary and thesaurus skills**

It is important for students in Years 3–6 to start to acquire skills in using dictionaries and thesauri. A dictionary will provide a range of information about a word: its origin; its grammatical form; its definition/s; examples of use; and so on. A thesaurus is invaluable in extending students’ vocabulary with synonyms and antonyms.

There are a number of dictionaries and thesauri designed specifically for young students. There are also several online sites that provide practice in the use of dictionaries and thesauri.

**Monitoring and assessment**

See Appendix 7.5 for suggestions of useful resources to assess vocabulary

Assessment of vocabulary is a complex area. When we assess vocabulary, we assess students’ knowledge of words. But as we have seen above, knowing a word is more than simply providing a definition.

When we assess students’ knowledge of vocabulary items, we need to consider whether we are assessing:

- general word knowledge vs knowledge of words related to a specific topic/unit of work
- decontextualised words vs words in context
Assessing general word knowledge
If we want to get an idea of how a particular student’s range of vocabulary compares with his or her peers, we could test their understanding of words from lists of the most common vocabulary items for a particular age group (such as the Fry Word Lists, Marzano Vocabulary Lists, the Oxford Wordlists, or Dale and O’Rourke’s (1981) The Living Word Vocabulary: Grade levels 2, 4 and 6). General vocabulary can be assessed through such items as:

- Given a list of three or four words, which one does not belong?
- Choose the word that best fits in the sentence.
- Read the word and circle a picture of it.
- Look at a picture and circle the word for it.
- Read the word and circle a definition.
- Read the word and circle a synonym.
- Read the word and circle an antonym.
- Read a sentence and write the missing word.
- Read a sentence and supply the missing word orally.
- Read the word and put it in a category.
- Find the word in a category to which it doesn’t belong.

Assessing topic-specific words
To assess vocabulary development in relation to a current unit of work, questions can be asked in class or small group discussion e.g.

- Can you remember the word we used to describe ….?
- How would you define ….?
- Can you see a word on the board that means ….?
- Show me the …. in the illustration?
- What is the main character’s relationship to ….?
- How could you group these words into categories relating to ….?
- What do we call it when the water changes to a gas?

- What is another word for ….?

It is easier to identify vocabulary development in relation to topic-specific words than general words. Topic-specific word understanding should be the focus of formative assessment to track students’ gradual acquisition of specialised vocabulary.

Assessing decontextualised words
Particularly in formal/summative tests, word meanings are often assessed as discrete vocabulary items. These can take the form of, for example:

- Multiple choice questions
- True/false questions
- Matching questions
- ‘Odd one out’ questions
- Questions relating to word formation and origin e.g. prefixes, suffixes, compound words, Greek and Latin roots.

Assessing words in context
Because word meanings change according to context, students’ vocabulary is often assessed in the context of a particular text from a unit of work. In relation to the selected text, students can answer questions such as:

- In paragraph 2, can you find a word that means ….?
- From lines 23-30, can you find a word that has a similar meaning to ….?
- Can you find two antonyms in the passage for ….?
- From p.2, can you complete this semantic map showing the parts of the digestive system and their functions?
- Label the parts of this diagram with words from paragraph 3.
- From the historical recount on p.7, place words/phrases in this timeline that show when the various events occurred.
- In line 21, ‘run’ means to move more swiftly than a walk. How many other meanings do you know for ‘run’?
• In paragraph 4, can you find a definition of the word …?  
• Which words in lines 14–16 could help you to work out the meaning of …?  
• What do you think is meant by the idiom in line 8 ‘at the drop of a hat’?  
• What does the word ‘issue’ refer to in paragraph 5?

**Self-assessment**
As a self-assessment activity, students could complete tables such as the following in relation to words specific to a particular unit of work:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Points awarded</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>autobiography</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>I think it means …</td>
<td>I know this word. It means …</td>
<td>I can use this word in a sentence. My sentence is …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reveal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>to show something</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This can be used as a pre – and post – activity to monitor vocabulary growth.

**Monitoring vocabulary development**
When monitoring students’ vocabulary, teachers often rely on their professional judgement based on experience. Informally, they identify those students who have limited vocabulary resources as they observe them in activities such as group discussions, guided reading, and writing various types of texts. These informal observations can be documented with reference to a checklist such as the following:

**Signs of underdeveloped vocabulary in Years 3–6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relies heavily on Tier 1 everyday vocabulary.</th>
<th>Uses a small variety of simple words.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Has trouble with technical or abstract terms.</td>
<td>Has trouble understanding figurative and idiomatic language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has reduced reading comprehension due to limited vocabulary range.</td>
<td>Does not know a range of words with multiple meanings.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has difficulty learning new words, especially from hearing words in discussions.</td>
<td>Has limited ability to generate synonyms and antonyms for common words.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If there is an expectation that data be collected in relation to students’ vocabulary, then the focus should be on Tier 2 words – those that are relevant to educational contexts and which are encountered across several areas of the curriculum.

When assessing EAL students, remember that they will typically have a much greater vocabulary range in their home language than in English. Their repertoire will often tend to be Tier 1 words, however, relating to home and community, depending on their level of education in their home language and length of time in Australia. (See the EAL/D Progression for an indication of how EAL students’ language typically develops: [http://www.acara.edu.au/verve/_resources/eald_resource__eald_learning_progression.pdf](http://www.acara.edu.au/verve/_resources/eald_resource__eald_learning_progression.pdf))
Questions for reflection

• How do you know whether your students’ vocabulary is becoming more extensive?
• What do you see as your most successful strategy for teaching vocabulary?
• How do you excite students about learning new words?
• If you had a student with special literacy needs, how might you provide extra support with vocabulary instruction?
• How would you support parents and carers in developing their child’s vocabulary repertoire?

Useful resources

See Appendix 7 for useful resources to support vocabulary.
REFERENCES AND FURTHER READING


Alexander, R., Dialogic Teaching, at Robin Alexander’s homepage: http://www.robinalexander.org.uk/dialogic-teaching/


Dawson L. (Northern Territory Literacy Achievement Adviser) Notes for the Principals As Literacy Leaders (PALL) Project managed by the Australian Primary Principals Association.


APPENDIX 1: 
USEFUL RESOURCES TO SUPPORT LITERACY DEVELOPMENT

The following are a few examples of resources available to support literacy development.

1.1 Key national and state documents


Good Teaching: Differentiated Classroom Practice www.education.tas.gov.au/documentcentre/Documents/Good-Teaching-Differentiated-Classroom-Practice-Learning-for-All.pdf (staff only)


1.2 Whole school approaches


Supporting Literacy and Numeracy Success, Department of Education Tasmania (p.24)

National School Improvement Tool (Department of Education, Employment and Workplace 2013)

A series of videos to illustrate classroom practices that facilitate literacy development.


AITSL: information and videos on quality literacy practices.


TCH: The Teaching Channel

An excellent collection of videos demonstrating effective classroom strategies for literacy teaching. It has been developed to support the US national curriculum, but has many videos relevant to Australian schools.

www.teachingchannel.org/

Teaching Australian Curriculum: English

Teaching AC English is a rich, practical and contemporary professional resource to support teachers and school leaders implementing the Australian Curriculum: English from Foundation to year 10. This collection of video snapshots – or vignettes – illustrates ideas, approaches and strategies for teaching, learning and assessment. The vignettes demonstrate approaches to differentiation and aspects of explicit teaching about a select group of content descriptions for reading, spelling, punctuation and grammar.

www.teachingacenglish.edu.au/
### 1.4 Literacy resources and units of work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>English for the Australian Curriculum</strong></th>
<th>A resource developed specifically to address the three strands of the <em>Australian Curriculum: English</em>. There are three units in the Early Years, each unit consisting of 12 lesson sequences.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><a href="http://e4ac.edu.au/">http://e4ac.edu.au/</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Scootle** | *Scootle* gives teachers access to many thousands of digital curriculum resources they can use to inform their own planning and support their teaching. The resources include learning objects, images, videos, audio, assessment resources, teacher resources and collections organised around common topics or themes. The resources are aligned to the endorsed areas of the *Australian Curriculum*.

**Logging in:** Teachers in Tasmanian government schools log in using their DoE username and password. |

| **TES Education Australia** | Access to hundreds of literacy resources for ages 3-7 relating to The Early Years Learning Framework and the *Australian Curriculum: English*:

[www.tesaustralia.com/](http://www.tesaustralia.com/) |

| **Australian Curriculum Lessons** | *Australian Curriculum Lessons* is an excellent user-submitted site that depends on teachers to post their great lessons so that other teachers can get ideas and lessons to use in the classroom.


| **Teachertube** | A collection of videos, audios, photos, blogs and documents for teachers, parents and students. |
|  | [www.teachertube.com](http://www.teachertube.com) |

| **ABC Teach** | A US site, but with useful literacy material for Australian classrooms. |
|  | [www.abcteach.com](http://www.abcteach.com) |

| **Teach This** | Printable teaching resources, lessons, games and activities to download. |

### 1.5 Students needing additional support

| **Teaching English Language Learners in Mainstream Classes**, Margery Herzberg, PETAA 2011 | This book addresses English language learning (ELL) pedagogical practices, and will be particularly useful for mainstream teachers who have limited experience working with EAL/D (English as an additional language/dialect) students. |
Classrooms of possibility: supporting at-risk EAL students, Jennifer Hammond and Jenny Miller (Eds.) PETA 2015

This book aims address the needs of At Risk EAL students once they are integrated into mainstream classes, focusing on teaching and learning practices within mainstream classes that are likely to support At Risk EAL students to engage fully and equitably in the school curriculum.

EAL/D Learning Progression: Foundation to Year 10 (ACARA)

Invaluable resources published by ACARA to help track EAL/D students’ progress and to provide tips for teaching EAL/D students in the various curriculum areas.

EAL/D Annotated Content Descriptions (English, History, Mathematics, Science)

Student Diversity and the Australian Curriculum (ACARA)

www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/studentdiversity/eal-d-teacher-resource

Shaywitz, S. 2004, Overcoming Dyslexia: A New and Complete Science-Based Program for Reading Problems at Any Level, Vintage Books, USA

A practical book based on scientific information with the latest research about how the brain works and problems with reading, with proven practical techniques to overcome them.

McKay, N., 2015 Total Teaching- Raising the achievement of vulnerable groups

Total teaching is a philosophy as well as a set of practical ideas and teaching techniques for teachers in mainstream classes. This book contains lots of fresh ideas for raising the achievement of kids with ADHD, dyslexia, dyspraxia, Aspergers, autism and more.

Yale Centre for Dyslexia and Creativity

This website provides resources for educators and parents about dyslexia, supports and ideas for the classroom and home, as well as testimonials from learners with dyslexia.

1.6 New literacies

Thinking Through New Literacies for Primary and Early Years, Eileen Honan, PETA 2013

This book explores a wide range of new literacies and considers how they can be incorporated into English and Literacy teaching in primary schools. It responds to the new Australian Curriculum: English, the general capabilities of Literacy and ICT, and the forthcoming new Australian Curriculum: Digital Technologies.
### 2.1 Individual student receptive language checklist

The following checklist can be used to help identify students who might be experiencing listening difficulties:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Name</th>
<th>Year Level</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Home Language and Cultural Background</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Receptive Language Warning Signs</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Has trouble concentrating during teacher talk</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doesn’t initiate responses to instructions – follows what others do</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often looks ‘blank’ or confused</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only partially follows directions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does not respond to questions appropriately</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misinterprets information; confuses who did what to whom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has difficulty remembering information</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copies from peers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doesn’t understand humour at same level as peers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is disorganised; forgets items</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has difficulty remembering common sequences, such as days of the week</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Takes longer than peers to learn new words</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixes up long words to a greater degree than peers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This Checklist was prepared by Linda Dawson (NT Literacy Achievement Adviser) to support principals and schools involved in the Principals As Literacy Leaders (PALL) Project managed by the Australian Primary Principals Association. The checklist is based on information from the following reference source: Konza, D. (2006) Teaching Students with Reading Difficulties, Second Edition, Thomson/Social science Press, Australia, pages 133 & 134.
2.2 Individual student expressive language checklist

The following checklist can be used to help identify students who might be experiencing expressive language problems:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Name</th>
<th>Year Level</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Home Language and Cultural Background</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expressive Language Warning Signs</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speech is not intelligible</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has limited vocabulary compared to peers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has long pauses in speech with many fillers (e.g. um, er etc)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘news’ is often unintelligible and disorganised</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often restarts when speaking; leaves listener confused</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentences are short and simple</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words are often in an incorrect order</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses word endings (for tense or plural, etc) incorrectly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confuses pronouns</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has problems taking turns</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes topics frequently and inappropriately</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cannot retell a simple event or story</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has trouble sequencing events when retelling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses few descriptive words</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has difficulty linking words</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often leaves out important details</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cannot give clear explanations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is the class clown</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talks less than peers generally, but may take a long time to say what he or she is trying to say</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This Checklist was prepared by Linda Dawson (NT Literacy Achievement Adviser) to support principals and schools involved in the Principals As Literacy Leaders (PALL) Project managed by the Australian Primary Principals Association. The checklist is based on information from the following reference source: Konza, D. (2006) Teaching Students with Reading Difficulties, Second Edition, Thomson/Social science Press, Australia, pages 133 & 134
### 2.3 Assessment tools for oral language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment Tool</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PIPS (Performance Indicators in Primary schools)</strong></td>
<td>Mandated system level assessment—twice yearly. DoE data support through EPS. DoE uses it to inform longitudinal data on individual students. Standardised. Uses for pre and post assessment. Supports targeted teaching in Prep and beyond.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>English Developmental Continuum F-10: Speaking and Listening</strong> (Department of Education and Training, Victoria)</td>
<td>Provides an overview of relevant content descriptions from the AC:E for each year level, organised into the following categories: - Communicating orally - Purposes of communication - Conventions of language - Ideas communicated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Steps: Speaking and Listening, Map of Development</strong></td>
<td>The Speaking and Listening Map of Development is designed to help teachers map their students’ progress. It has a strong focus on supporting teachers as they plan and implement a dynamic and interactive model of speaking and listening.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Record of Oral Language (ROL)</strong> (Clay et al., 2007)</td>
<td>Provides teachers with an instrument for observing a child’s control of the structures of the English language and for monitoring changes in control over time, enabling them to adjust their teaching in a variety of ways.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The ICPALER Oral Language Screening Profile</strong></td>
<td>Provides a model for analysing oral language, well suited to literacy leaders, teachers and researchers who need this for understanding development, diagnosing difficulties and teaching to support appropriate development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Oral Language Assessment</strong> (Crevola and Vineis)</td>
<td>A receptive oral language screening test consisting of 15 sentences especially developed to meet the context, comprising three sets of five sentence types.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher Rating of Oral Language and Literacy (TROLL)</strong></td>
<td>An instrument that measures skills that research has identified as critical for literacy acquisition, including oral language, reading, and writing abilities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 2.4 Useful resources to support speaking and listening

#### General speaking and listening resources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>URL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Steps: Speaking and Listening Resource Book</strong></td>
<td>The Speaking and Listening Resource Book is designed to help teachers focus on the explicit teaching of the different forms of spoken language; speaking and listening processes, strategies and conventions; and the contextual aspects associated with composing and understanding oral texts.</td>
<td><a href="http://det.wa.edu.au/stepsresources/detcms/navigation/first-steps-literacy/">http://det.wa.edu.au/stepsresources/detcms/navigation/first-steps-literacy/</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Classroom Talk: Understanding dialogue, pedagogy and practice,**  
| **PETAA Paper196: Critical conversation: Joint Construction,**  
Joanne Rossbridge & Kathy Rushton, 2014 | The focus on joint construction is due to its role in assisting students in the shift from spoken to written language. In doing so, we draw upon the teaching and learning curriculum cycle as a framework for planning to support students to engage in critical conversation around texts. | [www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/w/Store/Item_Detail.aspx?iProductCode=PP196&Category=PEN](www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/w/Store/Item_Detail.aspx?iProductCode=PP196&Category=PEN) |
| **PETAA Paper195: Talk Moves,**  
Christine Edwards-Groves, 2014 | A repertoire of practices for productive classroom dialogue. Talk moves prompt particular responses from students; they also signal the function of the turn of talk (e.g. to evaluate a response such as: ‘Good answer’; to nominate the next speaker; ‘Jacob, your turn’; to evoke an extended response, ‘Can you explain that further?’ or ‘Does anyone have something else to add?’). | [www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/w/Store/Item_Detail.aspx?iProductCode=PP195&Category=PEN](www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/w/Store/Item_Detail.aspx?iProductCode=PP195&Category=PEN) |
| **Talking and Thinking Floorbooks**  
Warden, C.,(2006). |  
Perthshire: Mindstretchers. |  |
### Poetry and songs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Website/Link</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ken Nesbitt’s Poetry for Kids</td>
<td><a href="http://www.poetry4kids.com/">www.poetry4kids.com/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fizzy Funny Fuzzy Poems</td>
<td><a href="http://www.fizzyfunnyfuzzy.com/links">www.fizzyfunnyfuzzy.com/links</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children's poems by guest poets</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLpET_d-dUEhhlGlXNOyQi5ioTDj-IHvbH">https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLpET_d-dUEhhlGlXNOyQi5ioTDj-IHvbH</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Skeleton Dance</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eS4m6XOpRgU">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eS4m6XOpRgU</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poetry for Kids: Shel Silverstein</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CNiaYHZme_U&amp;list=PLC8B6997A30896D687">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CNiaYHZme_U&amp;list=PLC8B6997A30896D687</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Oral presentations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Website/Link</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tips on Giving Oral Presentations by Mr Brewer</td>
<td><a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QKOO99UjsSE">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QKOO99UjsSE</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Oral interaction

- **AITSL website**
  - On the AITSL website you will find videos illustrating effective oral interaction.
3.1 Graphic Organisers

The following graphic organisers can be used as frames for note-making, scaffolds for writing, advance organisers for reading, or prompts for oral presentations. They are not intended as the only ways of representing text organisation and can be adjusted for particular tasks.

**Describing**

*Various features* of a general class of things: ‘all about’ diagram/semantic web (e.g. used for information reports and brainstorming).

**Classifying:** A class-subclass pattern (‘types of . . .’) often found in information reports, e.g. ‘Living things can be grouped on the basis of observable features.’ (ACSSU044)

**Part-whole pattern:** the relationship between the whole and its parts, e.g. ‘The Earth is part of a system of planets orbiting around a star (the sun).’ (ACSSU078)
COMPARING AND CONTRASTING

Similarities and differences:
Venn diagram, e.g. ‘Make connections between the ways different authors may represent similar storylines, ideas and relationships.’ (ACELT1602)

Comparing numerical data:
Graph, e.g. ‘Use a range of methods including tables and simple column graphs to represent data and to identify patterns and trends.’ (ACSI5057).

Comparing a number of items in relation to multiple characteristics: Matrix/table e.g. ‘The similarities and differences between places in terms of their type of settlement, demographic characteristics and the lives of the people who live there.’ (ACHGK019)
EXPLAINING

**Sequential explanation:**
Explaining how something works or changes (without including cause), e.g.: ‘Earth’s surface changes over time...’ (ACSSU075)

**Simple cause and effect:** e.g.
‘A change of state between solid and liquid can be caused by adding or removing heat.’ (ACSSU046)

**Cyclical explanation:** e.g. ‘Living things have life cycles.’ (ACSSU072)
EXPLAINING (cont.)

**System explanation**: the parts of the system, their functions, and how they operate as a system, e.g.: ‘Living things, including plants and animals, depend on each other and the environment to survive.’ (ACSSU073)

**Multiple causes**: Factorial explanation (the factors leading to an outcome) e.g. ‘Reasons (economic, political and social) for the establishment of British colonies in Australia after 1800.’ (ACHHK093)

**Multiple effects**: Consequential explanation (the consequences of an input) e.g.: ‘The impact of a significant development or event on a colony; for example, drought.’ (ACHHK095)
STORYING

Recounting: e.g. a timeline diagram showing sequence of events, e.g. ‘Sequence historical people and events.’ (ACHHS065)

Narrating: a basic story that includes a complication, e.g.: ‘Experiment with text structures and language features and their effects in creating literary texts.’ (ACELT1800)

Life stories: autobiography, biography, e.g.: ‘Important contributions to the advancement of science have been made by people from a range of cultures.’ (ACSHE082)
EVALUATING

Arguing: Taking a position, presenting arguments in support of the position, and concluding with a reinforcement of the position, e.g. ‘Why laws are important.’ (ACHCK013).

Discussing: presenting two or more positions on an issue, e.g. ‘Identify alternative views on how to respond to a geographical challenge and propose a response’ (Year 5 Geography).

Responding: simple review of literary text, e.g. (ACELT1609).

Reference: Beverly Derewianka

INTRODUCTION TO TEXT
(eg. author, illustrator, type of text)

SUMMARY OF TEXT
(eg. theme, key characters, setting, introduction to plot)

EVALUATION
(eg. plot, mood, language, illustrations, effect)

JUDGEMENT
## 3.2 Assessment tools for reading

### General observations and checklists of progress

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tool</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>An Observation Survey of Early Literacy Achievement (Clay 2002, 2005)</td>
<td><a href="http://readingrecovery.org/reading-recovery/teaching-children/observation-survey">http://readingrecovery.org/reading-recovery/teaching-children/observation-survey</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developmental Reading Assessment (DRA/DRA2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Phonics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
- Assessment: Progress Check  
- Assessment Tasks. |
### Burt Reading Test

The Burt Word Reading Test is a measure of single word recognition. Students are required to read a list of words presented in isolation that increase in difficulty. Students are presented with this list and asked to read as many words as they can, as accurately as they can.

**Oxford Word List**
- **Assessment of high frequency words.**

**Burt Word Reading Test**
- Gilmore, A., Croft, C., Reid, N.
- New Zealand revision.
- Standardised test with NZ norms – 6yo-12yo. Assesses word recognition and word solving strategies as complexity of word list increases.

### Fluency

**Wheldall Assessment of Reading Passages (WARP)**
- Students are asked to read a specifically designed passage for one minute. If a student is having difficulty with reading accuracy, their reading fluency score is usually also affected because reading fluency is dependent on reading accuracy.

### Comprehension

**Running Records**
- Running records provide insights into how a child is processing text by observing miscues as the text is read aloud.

**PM Benchmark Kit 2**
- (Nelley and Smith, 2002)
- Using a running record process along with retelling and comprehension questions, this oral reading assessment tool provides information about each student’s ability to decode and read fluently from texts at age appropriate level. They allow the observer to determine the reading behaviours or strategies being employed by the reader rather than simply examining the results of a test. Thus, they provide information that helps teachers make decisions about teaching most productively in the context of the classroom.

**Tests of Reading Comprehension (TORCH)**
- (Mossenson, Hill, Masters, 1987).
- This assessment tool is from Western Australia and tests students’ ability to obtain meaning from a reading text.
| **Progressive Achievement Tests in Reading** | www.acer.edu.au/pat-reading | The PAT Reading Fourth Edition is a thoroughly researched and normed test for measuring and tracking student achievement in reading comprehension, word knowledge and spelling. It provides teachers with objective information for setting realistic learning goals and planning effective programs. PATReading assessment contains multiple-choice questions in: Reading comprehension, Word knowledge (vocabulary). |
| **Neale Analysis of Reading – 3rd Edition** |  | In this assessment, students are required to read a series of passages that increase in difficulty. After each passage students are asked comprehension questions about the passage. This assessment measures reading accuracy and reading comprehension. |
| **Probes 2 Reading Comprehension Test,** | http://comprehenz.com/probe-2-reading-comprehension-assessment | For students who are independent readers. Works in determining a reading comprehension level and as a controlled in-depth interview to achieve a greater understanding as to how readers engage with text and what specific teaching is required. |
| **From Assessment to Programming** | www.schoo... | A process of assessment to gather detailed information about individual students’ skills and their instructional needs. It is designed to extend teachers understanding of students who need additional support by assessing aspects of their reading skills that have not already been assessed. |
| **Students needing additional support** |  |  |
### 3.3 Useful resources to support reading

The following are just a few of the many resources available to support reading instruction.

#### General reading resources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>URL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Steps Viewing Resource Book</strong></td>
<td>The Viewing Resource Book is designed to help teachers focus on the explicit teaching of the different forms of multimodal texts; viewing processes, strategies and conventions; and the contextual aspects associated with understanding multimodal texts. Again, available at no cost online from the Department of Education and Training, WA:</td>
<td><a href="http://det.wa.edu.au/stepsresources/detcms/education/stepsresources/first-steps-literacy/viewing-resource-book.en?cat-id=13601995">http://det.wa.edu.au/stepsresources/detcms/education/stepsresources/first-steps-literacy/viewing-resource-book.en?cat-id=13601995</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Multiliteracies and Diversity in Education: new pedagogies for expanding landscapes. Oxford University Press.</strong></td>
<td>Exploring multimodal communication as literacy education from a research platform. This resource combines analyses of the changes to communication and pedagogic practice with sound research based activities for multiliteracies classroom projects.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Teaching for Comprehending and Fluency – Thinking, Talking and Writing about Reading K-8 and Guiding Readers and Writers
Fountas and Pinnell

A complete picture of how to skilfully teach meaning-making and fluency within any instructional context, *Teaching for Comprehending and Fluency, K–8*, provides frameworks for high-quality instruction that describe appropriate expectations for comprehending, fluency, and vocabulary development.

### Teaching Reading Comprehension Strategies
Sheena Cameron

Outlines a range of comprehension strategies and practical ideas for how to teach them, including guided and independent student activities and support materials.

### Reading Comprehension: Taking the learning deeper
Edited by Margaret Kelly and Christine Topfer, ALEA Publications 2011

Presents some outcomes of a major professional learning project undertaken by ALEA Tasmania which provided teachers with opportunities to design, monitor and implement research based on powerful, accessible ideas about reading comprehension in their own classrooms.

### Reading Rockets

Reading activities, blogs and current research into reading.  
www.readingrockets.org/

### Teaching phonics

#### Digital games such as:
Teach your Monster to Read: www.teachyourmonstertoread.com/

#### Sets of cards such as:
http://teachers.theguardian.com/teacher-resources/7036/Year-1-Phonics-Screening-----40-Cards-and-Tracking

#### Free Tips and Resources for Phonics Teaching (SPLED)
Helpful hints for blending  
FAQ  
Games and activities  
Word banks  
Literature that supports the introduction of new words  

#### Literacy Teaching Guide: Phonics
NSW Department of Education and Training 2009  

#### Letters and Sounds: (Centre for Effective Reading)
A comprehensive and practical series on the basics of reading and spelling. It deals with the development of these skills in a series of phases across the early years of primary school, including daily activities, practice, assessment and resources. Available free online.  
### The Place of Phonics in Learning to Read and Write, Emmitt, Hornsby and Wilson, ALEA Publications

This free booklet has been published by ALEA in order to give literacy educators access to a clear statement about how children learn and use phonic understandings appropriately and the knowledge that teachers need in order to support phonics.

### Teaching Phonics in Context, David Hornsby and Lorraine Wilson, Pearson 2011

This book describes how phonics can be taught as children learn to read and write. The book looks at classrooms that shimmer and shine as children learn phonics through reading picture books, having fun with rhymes, playing with words and writing meaningful texts. It explains how within these contexts children learn the sounds of the English language, the letters of the alphabet, and the relationship between them.

### Starfall

Interactive phonics activities and animated picture books.

[www.starfall.com](http://www.starfall.com)

### Literacy Zone

Interactive phonics activities.

[www.woodlands-junior.kent.sch.uk/interactive/literacy.html](http://www.woodlands-junior.kent.sch.uk/interactive/literacy.html)

### Oz Phonics

An iPad-based reading app that caters for beginning readers and students from non-English speaking backgrounds.


### Comprehension

#### Teaching Comprehension Strategies: NSW Department of Education and Training


#### Pre-, during, and post-reading activities: Queensland Studies Authority


‘With numerous exciting and engaging classroom-tested strategies, with an expanded focus on educating the whole child, and research to support each of these literacy strategies, these timeless tools will help empower your students to be intrinsically motivated, engaged, strategic, and able to direct their own learning. An appendix with digital resources provides at-your-fingertips printables to organise your classroom.’


A practical resource for teaching comprehensions, including assessment tools and strategies for using in the classroom. Hoyt believes that thoughtful reflection and retelling are the keys to making meaning.


Practical strategies for navigating non-fiction and solution for comprehending fiction.
Debbie Miller shares her new thinking about comprehension strategy instruction, the gradual release instructional model, and planning for student engagement and independence.

### Teaching activities

**Using Guided Reading to Develop Student Reading Independence**


**Teacher read-aloud/modelled reading**

- [www.readwritethink.org/professional-development/strategy-guides/teacher-read-aloud-that-30799.html](http://www.readwritethink.org/professional-development/strategy-guides/teacher-read-aloud-that-30799.html)

**YouTube videos providing examples of Shared reading**

- [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jfGjgOc-rjw](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jfGjgOc-rjw)

**YouTube videos providing examples of Guided reading**

- [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=r-cFWeTMZis](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=r-cFWeTMZis)
- [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NBy6Bgo7lvg](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NBy6Bgo7lvg)
- [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GdGZON3rigY](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GdGZON3rigY)
- [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3AHxqggc-yI](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3AHxqggc-yI)

**An interview with a teacher about how to use guided reading**

- [www.haven.k12.pa.us/title1/guidedreading.html](http://www.haven.k12.pa.us/title1/guidedreading.html)

**Readers workshop resources**

Videos, apps and lesson suggestions relating to readers workshop.

- [www.readersworkshop.org/](http://www.readersworkshop.org/)

### Children’s Literature

**Mem Fox Stories**

Mem Fox reads stories aloud (audio stories – no pictures).

- [www.memfox.net/mem](http://www.memfox.net/mem)

**Roy the Zebra**

Interactive reading games, guided reading stories, literacy worksheets, songs.

- [www.roythezebra.com](http://www.roythezebra.com)

**Storyline Online**

Popular stories reread for children by famous people.

- [www.storylineonline.net](http://www.storylineonline.net)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Storynory</strong></th>
<th>Audio stories.</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><a href="http://www.storynory.com">www.storynory.com</a></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Tumblebooks</strong></th>
<th>Online collection of animated talking picture books.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><a href="http://www.tumblebooks.com">www.tumblebooks.com</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>A Literature Companion for Teachers</strong>, Lorraine McDonald, PETAA 2013</th>
<th>Offering practical insights into literary texts, this book supports teachers’ understanding of the writer’s craft related to the quality literary texts they read with their students.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>A Guide to Literature in the Primary Classroom</strong>, Denise Ryan, ALEA Publications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Highlights a wide range of literature that can excite, inspire, amuse and delight children from their very first year at school. Selections are followed by practical suggestions showing how they contribute to the growth of literacy competencies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Reading Australia: Primary</strong></th>
<th>A rich collection of detailed teacher resources developed by the Primary English Teaching Association of Australia and the Australian Literacy Educators’ Association for introducing students to quality Australian literature.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### Lists of quality children’s literature

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Teachers’ Choice Reading List</strong></th>
<th>This is an annual annotated list of fiction and non-fiction books compiled by the International Literacy Association. It tends to favour American books, but is worth a look.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><a href="http://www.reading.org/Resources/Booklists/TeachersChoices.aspx">www.reading.org/Resources/Booklists/TeachersChoices.aspx</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Reading level descriptors</strong> (NSW AGTC)</th>
<th>Descriptions of the attributes of texts appropriate for different age groups.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
### Students needing extra support

| **Fountas and Pinnell Leveled Literacy Intervention (LLI)** | A series of levelled readers for students reading below their expected year level from Foundation through to Year 12. |
| **Square Pegs Dyslexia Support Tasmania** | This website provides practical ideas and resources for parents and educators of students with dyslexia. [http://dyslexiatas.org](http://dyslexiatas.org) |
| **Dragon Naturally Speaking** | Assistive technology that highlights texts and reads aloud with voice command to search websites. Students are able to dictate and have their work typed and read back. |

### Viewing

| **Picture Books and Beyond, Kerry Mallan (editor), PETAA 2014** | Picture Books and Beyond is a welcome and timely resource for the explicit integration of picture books for literacy and literary development in today’s classrooms. Each chapter offers readings and interpretive opportunities through the complex interplay of words and images, narrative strategies, digital interactivity, or filmic adaptation in the sample texts. [www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/ItemDetail?iProductCode=PET106&Category=BOOK&WebsiteKey=23011635-8260-4fec-aa27-927df5da6e68](http://www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/ItemDetail?iProductCode=PET106&Category=BOOK&WebsiteKey=23011635-8260-4fec-aa27-927df5da6e68) |
| **The Shape of Text to Come: How image and text work, Jon Callow, PETAA 2013** | This book contains a stunning collection of images and a variety of quality texts, as well as associated classroom strategies and activities integrating appropriate ICT. This book will have broad appeal across many key learning areas and will have links with the Australian Curriculum. [www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/w/Store/Item_Detail.aspx?iProductCode=PET100&Category=BOOK](http://www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/w/Store/Item_Detail.aspx?iProductCode=PET100&Category=BOOK) |
APPENDIX 4: WRITING AND CREATING

4.1 The writing process

Preparing for writing
This stage will depend on the topic, purpose and audience. If the motivation is expressive free writing, then students might need help in getting the creative juices flowing: making connections with their life experiences and special memories; keeping a writer's notebook of interesting or unusual things they have observed; noticing the tiny details of something quite ordinary, drawing on the writing of others, or imaginatively responding to an image (Who/what is this? Where is it? Why is this happening? What happened beforehand? What will happen now?) or object (What is it? What is it used for? Why does it have…? Where did it come from?).

If the purpose, however, is to inform or persuade, then the preparation will be different. An information report, for example, might require research from the Internet or notes from a field trip; an explanation might need hands-on experience of how something works; an argument might involve lots of class or group discussion to clarify ideas and develop a position; an historical recount could mean taking notes from documentary videos of the period; and so on. These ideas and notes can then be organised into a pattern that provides a springboard for developing the written text – perhaps using a graphic organiser depending on the purpose (see Appendix 2).

The rough draft
At this point, the students are encouraged to have a go at getting their ideas and information down on paper (or in digital form). The emphasis here is on making and conveying meaning rather than spelling, handwriting, punctuation and presentation. It is a good idea to make sure that students keep copies of their rough drafts. These provide a baseline against which to observe subsequent improvement – important for developing a sense of achievement arising from effort and persistence, for including in writing portfolios and sharing with parents, and for assessment.
It is at this stage of the process that the most effective writing instruction can take place. The students already have something to say and have made a first attempt at composing a text. This provides a context for teaching — at the point of need — details directly relevant to the task, or to the text type, or to observed needs. The input needs to be very focused and specific and can form the basis of success criteria to be referred to later when assessing. You might model how such a text is organised depending on its purpose. You might look at how language is used to describe, or explain, or argue. You could do vocabulary extension activities relevant to the topic. You might focus on spelling needs that you have observed from the drafts. If the students are writing stories or poems, you might introduce personification, metaphors or similes. When reviewing their first draft — and when appropriate — students can be asked to revise it to include the feature that has been explicitly taught. When assessing their writing, they can indicate the improvements they have made to their text.

Reviewing, evaluating and revising

It is not necessary to take all texts beyond the first draft. It is important, however, that students see the process of revising as an important phase in producing a text they can be proud of and which allows the reader to clearly understand what they are trying to say. Students need to be guided to see themselves as text designers — crafting and refining their writing in a way that makes the meaning more accessible and interesting. They need to see that the meaning expands as they work with the text. Revising and reviewing is not simply a matter of correcting mistakes; it is a process of making a text more effective as a piece of communication. At this stage students can be reminded to:

- read the text to themselves, highlighting bits they are not happy with
- incorporate insights from the mini lessons above
- refer to criteria that have been negotiated for a successful text of this type
- confer with peers or with the teacher (e.g. in a guided writing session), including reference to the criteria
- do further research if needed
- attend to reader needs
- look at mentor/model texts for ideas on language use and coherence.

It is useful for you to model how your own texts benefit from the revision process by showing students various drafts of your writing. In writing this booklet, for example, I have completely reorganised sections, deleted whole passages, undertaken additional research, received welcome feedback from literacy leaders and classroom teachers — and learnt a lot.

Editing, proofreading and going public

When students are happy with their near-final draft, they can be guided to edit it for any final polishing to improve the meaning. This might involve tweaking a paragraph, improving vocabulary choices, attending to cohesion and other minor changes. This is different from proofreading, which is more concerned with accuracy in terms of such matters as spelling, grammatical errors, typos, and punctuation. When the text is nearly ready, more thought is given to presentation: layout, handwriting or word processing, placing of images, and so on. While presentation is important for certain significant, selected texts, generally, time should be spent on composing, not on unnecessary decoration.

The process of writing a text should not be seen as a set of mechanical steps to endure, but rather as a flexible context for learning what it means to be a writer.
4.2 Writing purposes

The particular purpose for writing impacts on the organisation of the text. Some will be organised as a sequence of events (e.g. recounts, narratives, procedures). Some will be organised in terms of argumentation (e.g. expositions and discussions). Others will be organised around the nature of ‘things’ (e.g. information reports, descriptions). Some of these are represented visually in the Reading section (Appendix 3).

Each purpose for writing results in different genres (or text types). Each genre goes through different stages in achieving its purpose. The table below provides an indication of the typical stages of some key genres:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Genre</th>
<th>Typical stages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To tell what happened</td>
<td>Recount, e.g.</td>
<td>Orientation &gt; Events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal recount</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Historical recount</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experiment recount</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Biographical recount</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To entertain</td>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>Orientation &gt; Complication &gt; Resolution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To respond to literary texts</td>
<td>Personal response</td>
<td>Introduction to text &gt; personal response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Review</td>
<td>Introduction to text &gt; summary &gt; evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To argue for a position</td>
<td>Argument/exposition</td>
<td>Position/Thesis &gt; Arguments &gt; Conclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To discuss two or more positions on an issue</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>Issue &gt; Arguments for and against &gt; Recommendation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To explain how something works</td>
<td>Sequential explanation</td>
<td>Thing to be explained &gt; explanation sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To explain cause and effect</td>
<td>Cause-and-effect explanations</td>
<td>Thing to be explained &gt; multiple causes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Thing to be explained &gt; multiple effects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describing a general class of things</td>
<td>Descriptive report</td>
<td>Thing to be described &gt; description of aspects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Classifying report</td>
<td>Thing to be classified &gt; classification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Part-whole report</td>
<td>Thing to be described &gt; its parts (&amp; their function)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Compare/ contrast report</td>
<td>Things to be compared &gt; similarities/differences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How to do something</td>
<td>Procedure</td>
<td>Goal &gt; Materials &gt; Steps</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Within each broad stage, we might find more detailed phases. In the orientation stage of a narrative, for example, we might find phases describing the main character/s, creating the setting, introducing initiating event/s, and sowing the seeds of the complication. In the position stage of an argument, you might include phases dealing with the background and significance of the topic, your point of view, and a foreshadowing of how your arguments will unfold. While the stages of a genre are fairly obligatory in achieving the purpose, the phases are more flexible, allowing for more creativity.
Some purposes for writing will involve the combination of different genres. A basic science experiment report, for example, will usually include:

The reason for the experiment
• An hypothesis
• A procedure for carrying out the experiment
• A recount of what happened
• A conclusion based on observations

The following are samples of student writing from Years 3–6 illustrating some of the purposes for which students write in mid-upper primary.

Year 3 Science: Science Experiment
Recount: Change of state

http://www.acara.edu.au/curriculum/worksamples/Year_3_Science_Portfolio_Above.pdf

Year 4 English Portfolio: Compare/contrast report: Different genres dealing with same topic


Year 5 History: Historical Recount: The Chinese and the Gold Rush

http://www.acara.edu.au/curriculum/worksamples/Year_5_History_Portfolio_Above.pdf
4.3 Assessment tools: writing

**General observations and checklists of progress**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Steps: Writing map of development</th>
<th><a href="http://det.wa.edu.au/stepsresources/detcms/navigation/first-steps-literacy/">http://det.wa.edu.au/stepsresources/detcms/navigation/first-steps-literacy/</a></th>
<th>The Writing Map of Development is designed to help teachers map their students’ progress; it offers suggestions for teaching and learning experiences that will assist with further development of students’ writing.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing Analysis Tool  Mackenzie, Scull and Munsie (2013)</td>
<td><a href="https://doms.csu.edu.au/csu/file/832c364a-855c-4e39-aac5-1d9a96fa8cf1/Writing%20Analysis%20Tool.zip/Writing%20Analysis%20Tool/index.html">https://doms.csu.edu.au/csu/file/832c364a-855c-4e39-aac5-1d9a96fa8cf1/Writing%20Analysis%20Tool.zip/Writing%20Analysis%20Tool/index.html</a></td>
<td>A writing analysis tool which can be used to assess students’ writing across six areas – text structure, sentence structure and grammatical features, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation and handwriting.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4 Useful resources to support writing

The following are just a few of the many resources available to support writing instruction.

### General writing resources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Steps Writing Resource Book</strong></td>
<td>The Writing Resource Book is designed to help teachers focus on the explicit teaching of different forms of text; writing processes, strategies and conventions; and the contextual aspects associated with composing texts. <a href="http://det.wa.edu.au/stepsresources/detcms/navigation/first-steps-literacy/">http://det.wa.edu.au/stepsresources/detcms/navigation/first-steps-literacy/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Writing (Better) Stories, Vivienne Nicoll-Hatton (Ed.), PETAA 2015</strong></td>
<td>In this book, well-known children's authors give advice on how to get students writing, each describing how they conduct writing workshops and sharing their own writing secrets and tips. Writing (Better) Stories is full of strategies, handouts and exercises that have been used by teachers and writers to help get their students writing. <a href="http://www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/w/Store/Item_Detail.aspx?iProductCode=PET083E&amp;Category=DIGITAL">http://www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/w/Store/Item_Detail.aspx?iProductCode=PET083E&amp;Category=DIGITAL</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Put it in Writing: Engaging Learners with Texts, Joanne Rossbridge &amp; Kathy Rushton, PETAA 2015</strong></td>
<td>In this book a carefully selected group of imaginative, persuasive and informative texts, suitable for use across the primary years, are deconstructed and presented as starting points for students to compose a range of different types of texts for different purposes. <a href="http://www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/w/Store/Item_Detail.aspx?iProductCode=PET108&amp;Category=BOOK">http://www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/w/Store/Item_Detail.aspx?iProductCode=PET108&amp;Category=BOOK</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Australian Curriculum student writing samples</strong></td>
<td>These annotated work samples give an indication of expectations of standards for each year – not only in English but in other areas of the curriculum, e.g.: <a href="http://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/english/curriculum/f-10?layout=1">http://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/english/curriculum/f-10?layout=1</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Writing Book, Sheena Cameron</strong></td>
<td>A teacher-friendly guide to teaching writing at emergent, early and fluent levels. It includes practical information that will support primary teachers to plan and deliver an effective writing program.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Writing activities

**Critical Conversation: Joint Construction**, PETAA Paper 196 by Kathy Rushton and Joanne Rossbridge

The focus on joint construction in this PETAA paper is due to its role in assisting students in the shift from spoken to written language. In doing so, we draw upon the teaching and learning curriculum cycle as a framework for planning to support students to engage in critical conversation around texts.


## Handwriting

**Handwriting:** Department of Education, Tasmania.

An excellent resource outlining expectations for the teaching of handwriting in Tasmanian schools.


**Handwriting: Developmental stages of learning**

How handwriting develops from pre-school through to the middle years. A very useful resource from the South Australian Curriculum Standards and Accountability Framework.


## Keyboarding

**Keyboarding: More than just typing**

www.educationworld.com/a_tech/tech/tech072.shtml

**Proven Techniques for Teaching QWERTY Keyboarding**

Jill Hallows, a former K-8 keyboarding teacher, provides this printable booklet with information and activities about positioning, memorisation, and motivation in keyboarding instruction.

https://www.google.com.au/search?q=proven+techniques+for+teaching+qverty+keyboarding&ie=utf-8&oe=utf-8&gs_rd=cr&ei=UKFGVaO7EElbEmAXtt4HAAw

**Acquiring and Developing the Skill of Keyboarding**

Explore the specific components of proper keyboarding technique as well as activities to help your students learn correct technique.

**Typing Pal Online**

A personalised, customised approach to learning keyboard skills through games and tailor-made exercises with engaging animations and detailed statistics.

www.typingpal.com/

**Dance Mat Typing**

How to type using the correct fingers. BBC Dance Mat Typing has four levels and each level has three stages.

www.typing-games.org/a/learning/2010/0723/90.html

**Various keyboarding resources**

http://thomasleedesign.co.uk/doorwayonline.org.uk/texttype2.html

www.freetech4teachers.com/2012/03/7-resources-for-developing-typing.html#VUakLWa23_Q
# APPENDIX 5: SPELLING

## 5.1 Assessment tools for spelling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment Tool</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Steps: Writing Map of Development, Department of Education W.A</strong></td>
<td>Includes spelling and spelling error analysis. The Writing Map of Development is designed to help teachers map their students' progress; it offers suggestions for teaching and learning experiences that will assist with further development of students' writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SRA Spelling Mastery Placement Test</strong></td>
<td>Spelling Mastery is an SRA program which teaches the four strands of spelling – phonetic, whole word, rule based and morphographic spelling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Oxford Spelling words</strong></td>
<td>Research-based (2007). The 307 most frequently used words in order of use in writing for students in the first three years of school. Support materials are available to assist students in learning to write and read these words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Astronaut Invented Spelling Test (AIST2)</strong></td>
<td>Uses Australian norms – suitable for students from the middle of their first year of schooling up to mid-year 3. It is quick and easy to administer, and can be given to whole classes or individuals in ten minutes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>South Australian Spelling Test</strong></td>
<td>In this assessment, students are asked to write a series of words presented in increasing difficulty. It begins with phonetically regular words and some sight words and progresses through to rule based spelling and more difficult words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PAT SPG</strong></td>
<td>Australian normed tests on spelling, punctuation and grammar.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 5.2 Useful resources to support spelling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Guiding Thinking for Effective Spelling</strong>,</td>
<td>Guiding Thinking for Effective Spelling explains practical ways to assess your students’ spelling needs and implement a consistent, supportive spelling approach across the whole school at all primary levels. Learning activities demonstrate engaging ways to explicitly teach spelling strategies, including: sound – focusing on sound; visual – focusing on how words look; meaning – thinking about word meaning; connecting – making connections with other words; and checking – using resources to find the correct spelling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christine Topfer and Deidre Arendt, Curriculum Corporation 2010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spell Record Respond</strong>, Anne Bayetto, OUP 2011</td>
<td>Assess your students’ spelling abilities, identify areas for improvement and select appropriate teaching strategies to develop students’ spelling competencies. The program draws on a range of information-gathering processes. It may be used throughout the school year to confirm your students’ spelling practices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Letters and Sounds: (Centre for Effective Reading)</strong></td>
<td>A very useful and practical series on the basics of reading, writing and spelling. It deals with the development of these skills in a series of phases across the early to mid years of primary school, including daily activities, practice, assessment and resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Words Their Way</strong> Bear et al.</td>
<td>A teacher-directed, student-centred approach to vocabulary growth and spelling development whereby students engage in a variety of sound, pattern and meaning activities, sorting pictures and words. It caters for differentiated learning in the classroom, rather than a one-size fits all solution. The spelling inventory is particularly useful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching Australian Curriculum: English</strong></td>
<td>TeachingACEnglish is a rich, practical and contemporary professional resource to support teachers and school leaders implementing the Australian Curriculum: English from Foundation to Year 10. This collection of video snapshots – or vignettes – illustrates ideas, approaches and strategies for teaching, learning and assessment. The vignettes demonstrate approaches to differentiation and aspects of explicit teaching about a select group of content descriptions for reading, spelling, punctuation and grammar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><a href="http://www.teachingacenglish.edu.au/">www.teachingacenglish.edu.au/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A Closer Look at Spelling in the Primary Classroom</strong>, Grace Oakley and Janet Fellowes, PETAA 2015</td>
<td>This book draws on research and theory, as well as classroom examples, to explain how to teach primary school students with diverse needs to use multiple strategies to spell. The work is linked to the Australian Curriculum: English and also includes the assessment of spelling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching AC English</strong></td>
<td>Videos of classroom practice e.g. using etymological and morphemic strategies for spelling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spelling It Out</strong> Misty Adoniou, Cambridge University Press, 2016</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.1 Assessment tools for grammar and punctuation

While it is preferable to assess students’ grammar and punctuation in the context of their own writing, there are some tools available for the purpose of assessing the accuracy of their grammar and punctuation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tool</th>
<th>Link</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Smeebu Practice Tests for NAPLAN</td>
<td><a href="http://www.smeebu.com/">http://www.smeebu.com/</a></td>
<td>Provides a range of online practice tests designed to help build familiarity with the NAPLAN test format. Each test contains 15 questions. Typically, questions are multiple-choice or open-input format.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2 Useful resources to support grammar and punctuation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Souping it up with Grammar, Ruth French, Practically Primary (ALEA) October 2014</td>
<td>The way in which a knowledge of how language works can help with appreciating quality literature and promoting enjoyment in reading.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar and Meaning New Edition, Sally Humphrey, Louise Droga, Susan Feez, PETAA 2012</td>
<td>The new edition of this bestseller aims to help teachers build their knowledge of the grammatical resources of the English language system and apply that knowledge to their teaching practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conversations About Text 1</strong>, Joanne Rossbridge and Kathy Rushton, PETAA 2010</td>
<td>Teach grammar in the context of literary texts in the primary and middle years. The introduction discusses what is meant by ‘teaching grammar’ in the context of literary texts in which the emphasis is placed on students developing not just skills and strategies, but also knowledge and understanding about how language works. Outstanding classroom practitioners share their strategies, programs and, in some cases, whole units of work demonstrating how you can work with literary texts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conversations About Text 2</strong>, Joanne Rossbridge and Kathy Rushton, PETAA 2010</td>
<td>A companion to <em>Conversations About Text 1</em>, book 2 focuses on teaching grammar in the context of factual texts in the primary and middle years. Unlike book 1, the chapters are organised around genres rather than grammatical features like: describing, instructing, recounting, explaining and persuading. Each chapter is further divided into: linking talking and listening to reading and writing; building the field-technical vocabulary; the development of oral language; modelled texts; strategies for reading and writing; and joint construction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grammar Rules!</strong> Tanya Gibb</td>
<td>A series of student workbooks that introduces and teaches grammar in context of real text types. It uses real texts, real contexts, and real grammar, written for the needs of young students! Students will learn about grammar, from the whole text down to the sentence and word level, and how to use that grammar knowledge, both when responding to texts and when constructing their own texts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Learning about Language in the Australian Curriculum: English</strong> Beryl Exley, Lisa Kervin and Jessica Mantei, ALEA Publications, 2015</td>
<td>Incorporates strategies for working with students in Year 3 through to Year 6 aimed to purposefully tie teaching and learning to authentic discussions about the language of literature and community texts. Selected children’s literature, Internet and community text examples are embedded in each experience, creating opportunities for focused discussion and shared exploration of language and literacy learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Exploring with Grammar in the Primary Years</strong> Beryl Exley, Lisa Kervin, and Jessica Mantei, 2014</td>
<td>Includes 24 highly practical language experiences for scaffolding young students. Each experience is connected to content descriptions from the <em>Australian Curriculum</em> and incorporates strategies for working with students in Foundation (Prep). Selected children’s literature examples are embedded within each experience with opportunities for focused discussion, shared exploration and time to play with language.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 7.1 Common prefixes in academic texts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Negative</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>un-</td>
<td>not, opposite</td>
<td>uncover, unlock, unsafe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in-, im-, ir-, i</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>incorrect, inexpensive, illegal, irregular, imperfect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dis-</td>
<td>not, away, apart, negative</td>
<td>disagree, distrust, disability, disobedient, discord</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>non-</td>
<td>not, lack</td>
<td>nonsense, non-stop, non-smoker, nonfiction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de-, dis-</td>
<td>opposite of, not</td>
<td>depose, discord, disagree, disappoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mis-</td>
<td>wrongly</td>
<td>misrepresent, misjudge, misplaced, misconduct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anti-</td>
<td>against</td>
<td>antidote, antisocial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mal-</td>
<td>bad, evil</td>
<td>malicious, maladjusted, malnutrition, malfunction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Positive</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pro-</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>proactive,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bene-</td>
<td>good, well</td>
<td>beneficial, benefit, benevolent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Place, time</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in-, im-</td>
<td>in, into</td>
<td>invade, insert, immigrate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pre-</td>
<td>before</td>
<td>preview, pre-test, prevent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fore-</td>
<td>before</td>
<td>foreshadow, forecast, foreground, forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ante-</td>
<td>before</td>
<td>antecedent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post-</td>
<td>after, behind</td>
<td>post-war, post-mortem, postdate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inter-</td>
<td>between, among</td>
<td>interrelated, interstate, international</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trans-</td>
<td>across; move between</td>
<td>transfer, transport, transaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mid-</td>
<td>middle</td>
<td>midterm, midway, midstream, midnight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub-</td>
<td>under</td>
<td>submarine, subtext, subversive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>super-</td>
<td>above</td>
<td>superstar, supernatural, superstore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>para-</td>
<td>alongside, beside</td>
<td>paramedic, paralegal, paraplegic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tele-</td>
<td>distant</td>
<td>telephone, telegraph, televisual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retro-</td>
<td>back, backward</td>
<td>retroactive, retrogressive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pro-</td>
<td>forward, earlier, prior to</td>
<td>proceed, progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circum-</td>
<td>around, about</td>
<td>circumference, circumvent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>co-, com-, con-, col-</td>
<td>together, with</td>
<td>cooperate, co-pilot, committee, contact, collaborate, colleague, collide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefix</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>Examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dia-</td>
<td>across, through</td>
<td>diagonal, diameter, diagnose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ex-, e-</td>
<td>out, from</td>
<td>expel, excavate, exhale, emigrate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Amount, size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>prefix</th>
<th>meaning</th>
<th>examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>over-</td>
<td>too much</td>
<td>overload, overact, overboard, overdoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>under-</td>
<td>too little, not enough</td>
<td>underfed, underdog, underage, underestimate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>semi-</td>
<td>half</td>
<td>semicircle, semiprecious, semicolon, semi-final</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>micro-</td>
<td>very small</td>
<td>microscopic, microcosm, microbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mini-</td>
<td>small</td>
<td>miniskirt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hyper-</td>
<td>over, above, excessive</td>
<td>hyperactive, hypercritical, hyperventilate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Number

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Greek</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mono</td>
<td>uni</td>
<td>1 monologue, monotone, monopoly, monorail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>unicycle, unified, unicorn, universe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>di</td>
<td>bi-, du-, duo-</td>
<td>2 dichotomy, bicycle, bilingual, duet, duel, duplicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tri-</td>
<td>tri-</td>
<td>3 tricycle, triad, triangle, tripod, triathlon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tetra-</td>
<td>quadri-, quart-</td>
<td>4 tetragon, tetrameter, quadrangle, quadruple, quarter, quartet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>penta-</td>
<td>quin-</td>
<td>5 pentagon, pentameter, quintet, quintuplet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hexa-</td>
<td>sext-</td>
<td>6 hexagon, hexameter, sextuplet, sexet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hepta-</td>
<td>septem-, septi-</td>
<td>7 heptagon, September (was once the seventh month)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>octo-</td>
<td>octa-, oct-</td>
<td>8 octagon, octogenarian, octopus, October (used to be the eighth month)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ennea-</td>
<td>novem-</td>
<td>9 November (used to be the ninth month)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deca-</td>
<td>deci-, decem-</td>
<td>10 decagon, decade, decimal, decibel, December (used to be the tenth month)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hecto-</td>
<td>cent-, cente-</td>
<td>100 cent, century, centipede, centenary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kilo-</td>
<td>milli-, mille-</td>
<td>1000 kilogram, kilometre, kilobyte, milligram, millisecond, millennium</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Prefixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hemi-</td>
<td>semi-</td>
<td>half</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poly-</td>
<td>multi-</td>
<td>many</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Other**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>re-</td>
<td>again, back</td>
<td>rewrite, reread, return</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en-, em-</td>
<td>cause to</td>
<td>enjoy, endure, enlighten</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### 7.2 Common suffixes in academic texts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verbs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ate</td>
<td>become</td>
<td>complicate, hesitate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-en</td>
<td>become, to make</td>
<td>enlighten, tighten, frighten, brighten, dampen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ify, -fy</td>
<td>make or become</td>
<td>terrify, clarify, dignify, magnify, classify</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ize, -ise</td>
<td>to make or become</td>
<td>fertilise, civilise, hypnotise, categorise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Adverbs |         |         |
| -ly     | how     | quickly, easily, happily, majestically, carefully |

<p>| Nouns   |         |         |
| -acy    | state or quality | privacy, democracy, literacy |
| -ance, -ence | state or quality | maintenance, dominance, decadence |
| -dom    | place or state of being | freedom, kingdom, wisdom, boredom |
| -er, -or, -ist, -ian, -eir | one who … | trainer, teacher, mentor, survivor, motorist, biologist, realist, librarian, magician, pioneer, mountaineer, engineer |
| -ism    | doctrine, belief | communism, socialism, capitalism, Buddhism |
| -ity, -ty | quality of | honesty, veracity, clarity, vanity, sanity |
| -ment   | condition of | argument, judgment, resentment, contentment |
| -ness   | state of being | happiness, heaviness, openness, harshness |
| -ion, -sion, -tion | state of being, quality, act | action, erosion, vision, transition, conclusion, invitation, condemnation |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-o-logy</td>
<td>study of</td>
<td>biology, ecology, mineralogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-age</td>
<td>result of an action</td>
<td>marriage, pilgrimage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-hood</td>
<td>condition of being</td>
<td>neighbourhood, manhood, childhood, falsehood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ary</td>
<td>place for, collection of, one who</td>
<td>library, glossary, dictionary, secretary, dignitary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ship</td>
<td>art or skill of, condition, rank, group of</td>
<td>leadership, citizenship, ownership, companionship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-al</td>
<td>relating to</td>
<td>refusal, rehearsal, proposal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Adjectives**

| -able, -ible | able to be, worthy of, capable of | comfortable, likable, enjoyable, predictable, edible, visible |
| -ful | notable for, full of | beautiful, wonderful, colourful, fearful |
| -ic, -al, -ial | pertaining to, relating to | energetic, historic, volcanic, fatal, social, magical, historical, comical |
| -ious, -ous | characterised by, full of, having | nutritious, pretentious, curious, furious, prosperous |
| -ish | having the quality of, somewhat like | fiendish, childish, selfish, foolish, boyish, warmish, sourish |
| -ive | having the nature of | creative, festive, responsive, positive, negative, inventive |
| -less | without | endless, fruitless, worthless, powerless, selfless |
| -y, -ly | characterised by, act in a way that | sleazy, funny, foggy, risky, milky, sudsy, curly, crazy, shiny |
### 7.3 Grammatical suffixes

#### Tense

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-ed</td>
<td>in the past</td>
<td>walked, jumped, helped</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ing</td>
<td>a continuous action</td>
<td>walking, jumping, helping</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Plurals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-s, -es</td>
<td>more than one</td>
<td>hotels, stories, houses, wishes, prefixes, quizzes, branches</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Some common irregular plurals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>curriculum</td>
<td>curricula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>criterion</td>
<td>criteria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phenomenon</td>
<td>phenomena</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>analysis</td>
<td>analyses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hypothesis</td>
<td>hypotheses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crisis</td>
<td>crises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oasis</td>
<td>oases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appendix</td>
<td>appendices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cactus</td>
<td>cacti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fungus</td>
<td>fungi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stimulus</td>
<td>stimuli</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>child</td>
<td>children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>woman</td>
<td>women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fish</td>
<td>fishes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sheep</td>
<td>sheep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foot</td>
<td>feet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goose</td>
<td>geese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>half</td>
<td>halves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hoof</td>
<td>hooves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thief</td>
<td>thieves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loaf</td>
<td>loaves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wife</td>
<td>wives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wolf</td>
<td>wolves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wharf</td>
<td>wharves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mouse</td>
<td>mice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ox</td>
<td>oxen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tooth</td>
<td>teeth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Possessives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-‘s, – s’</td>
<td>ownership</td>
<td>girl’s, girls’, lady’s, ladies’, boss’s, bosses’, child’s, children’s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Comparatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-er</td>
<td>comparing two things</td>
<td>stronger, darker, prettier, bigger, better</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Superlatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-est</td>
<td>identifying the thing that surpasses all others</td>
<td>the strongest, the prettiest, the biggest, the best</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 7.4 Common Latin and Greek roots

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Latin</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aud</td>
<td>hearing</td>
<td>audio, audition, audience, audiovisual, auditorium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cide</td>
<td>to kill, a killer</td>
<td>homicide, suicide, genocide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>corp</td>
<td>body</td>
<td>corpse, corporation, corps, corpulent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cred</td>
<td>to believe</td>
<td>credit, credible, credentials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dic, dict</td>
<td>speak, tell</td>
<td>dictate, dictation, dictator, predict, contradict, edict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dorm</td>
<td>sleep</td>
<td>dormitory, dormant, dormouse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ject</td>
<td>throw</td>
<td>reject, deject, project, inject, injection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>junct</td>
<td>to join</td>
<td>junction, conjunction, adjunct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>luna</td>
<td>moon</td>
<td>lunar, lunatic, lunacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>min</td>
<td>small, little</td>
<td>minimal, minimize, minimum, miniature, miniscule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mit, mis</td>
<td>send</td>
<td>transmit, mission, missile, submission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ped</td>
<td>foot</td>
<td>pedestrian, pedestal, peddle, biped, pedicure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>port</td>
<td>carry</td>
<td>port, transport, portable, report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rupt</td>
<td>to break</td>
<td>disrupt, interrupt, rupture, corrupt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spect</td>
<td>to see</td>
<td>respect, inspection, spectator; spectacles, prospect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>script</td>
<td>to write</td>
<td>scribble, manuscript, scripture, prescription</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sol</td>
<td>sun</td>
<td>solar, parasol, solarium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>struct</td>
<td>build, form</td>
<td>construct, instruct, destruction, instrument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>terra</td>
<td>land</td>
<td>terrarium, terrestrial, subterranean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vert, vers</td>
<td>to turn</td>
<td>reverse, versatile, invert, convert, divert</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Greek</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aqua</td>
<td>water</td>
<td>aquarium, aqueduct, aquaplane, aquatic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>auto</td>
<td>self</td>
<td>autograph, autobiogrophy, automobile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>astro</td>
<td>star</td>
<td>astronomy, astronaut, astronomer, astrology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>biblio</td>
<td>book</td>
<td>Bible, bibliography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bio</td>
<td>life</td>
<td>biography, biology, antibiotic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chron</td>
<td>time</td>
<td>chronology, chronic, chronicle, synchronize</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>demo, dem</td>
<td>the people</td>
<td>democracy, demographic, pandemic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>geo</td>
<td>earth</td>
<td>geology, geography, geometry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Root</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>Examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>graph</td>
<td>to write, draw</td>
<td>autograph, biography, photography, telegraph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>homo</td>
<td>same, like</td>
<td>homonym, homophone, homogenize</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hydro</td>
<td>water</td>
<td>hydroplane, dehydrate, hydrogen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>logos, logy</td>
<td>study, word</td>
<td>geology, biology, zoology, technology, mythology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meter</td>
<td>to measure</td>
<td>meter, thermometer, diameter, geometry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>micro</td>
<td>small</td>
<td>microscope, microcosm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mega, macro</td>
<td>large, great</td>
<td>megaphone, megalith, macroclimate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>path</td>
<td>feeling, suffering</td>
<td>pathetic, sociopath, apathy, antipathy, sympathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phobia</td>
<td>fear, intense dislike</td>
<td>claustrophobia, arachnophobia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phone</td>
<td>sound</td>
<td>phonograph, microphone, symphony, telephone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>photo</td>
<td>light</td>
<td>photosynthesis, photograph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>psycho</td>
<td>mind, mental</td>
<td>psychology, psychic, psychologist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scope</td>
<td>look at</td>
<td>microscope, telescope, periscope, kaleidoscope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>therm</td>
<td>heat, warm</td>
<td>thermostat, thermal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tele</td>
<td>distant</td>
<td>telephone, telescope, telephoto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zoo</td>
<td>animal</td>
<td>zoology, zoo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 7.5 Assessment tools for vocabulary

**Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test – 4th Edition (PPVT-IV)**

The PPVT-IV looks at the student’s receptive language or understanding of words. Students are presented with four pictures and asked to identify the picture that best describes a word.

### 7.6 Useful resources to support vocabulary

**Words Their Way**, Bear et al.
A teacher-directed, student-centred approach to vocabulary growth and spelling development whereby students engage in a variety of sound, pattern and meaning activities, sorting pictures and words. It caters for differentiated learning in the classroom, rather than a one-size fits all solution.


**A selection of digital resources for vocabulary development**
http://www.learningunlimitedllc.com/2013/02/20-digital-tools-for-vocabulary/

**Words Worth Teaching**
Lists 1600 high priority (Tier 2) meanings to teach to children between Kindergarten and Year 2. The book also contains 2900 meanings for students between Years 3–6.

**Oxford Wordlist Plus**
The 404 most frequently used words by Years 3 and 4 students.

This book provides a research-based framework and practical strategies for vocabulary development with students from the earliest grades through high school. The authors emphasise instruction that offers rich information about words and their uses and enhances students’ language comprehension and production. Teachers are guided in selecting words for instruction; developing student-friendly explanations of new words; creating meaningful learning activities; and getting students involved in thinking about, using, and noticing new words both within and outside the classroom. Many concrete examples, sample classroom dialogues, and exercises for teachers bring the material to life.

**Introducing young students to the dictionary**
A video for primary students on dictionary skills.
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Fo2cSioY6wl
### A selection of digital resources for vocabulary development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word Central from Merriam-Webster</td>
<td>A fun, interactive environment for daily buzzwords, rhyming dictionaries, and much more.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greek and Latin Roots</td>
<td>An app for practising Greek and Latin root words.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How to Really Teach Vocabulary: The Clarifying Routine, Edwin Ellis and Theresa Farmer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introducing young students to the dictionary</td>
<td>A video for primary students on dictionary skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dictionary skills for secondary students</td>
<td>A British Council unit of work containing several activities that introduce students to using a dictionary.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**Links**

- [http://www.ldonline.org/article/5759](http://www.ldonline.org/article/5759)
- [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Jo2cSiOY6wI](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Jo2cSiOY6wI)