GOOD TEACHING
Literacy 7–10
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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 7–10. The content and key messages of this resource reflect those of the Good Teaching Literacy 3–6 booklet and have been contextualised to suit the teaching and learning environment of secondary schools.

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.

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.


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.


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.


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 7–10 educators, as well as conversation starters to initiate rich discussion in staff meetings or professional learning communities.

As the Australian Curriculum: English has a central role in the development of literacy in a manner that is more explicit and foregrounded than is the case in other learning areas (ACARA, 2015) the intended audience for this resource is primarily teachers with responsibility for English in Years 7–10. However, it also has important messages about the opportunities and demands for literacy across the curriculum. It is therefore valuable reading for all staff members as schools consider whole school approaches to the development of literacy as a capability.

In each of the sections within the ‘Literacy Key Elements’ there is a focus on the relevant content descriptors and achievement standards of the Australian Curriculum: English to support English 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 across the curriculum.

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:

- Supporting Literacy and Numeracy Success which provides teachers with strategies for improving literacy and numeracy outcomes as they plan using curriculum documents.

- Respectful Schools Respectful Behaviour which highlights the importance of providing safe and supportive environments as a vital part of quality teaching and learning.

- Curriculum in Tasmanian Schools K–12 Policy

- Assessment and Reporting Policy

- NAPLAN Toolkit
  The NAPLAN Toolkit supports teachers with strategies for teaching key concepts in literacy and numeracy. http://naplan.education.tas.gov.au
GOOD TEACHING: Literacy 7–10

BECOMING LITERATE

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, multimodal texts 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 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 parents, carers and the community and share responsibility for learning.

Literacy is prioritised in the Australian Curriculum across the 3–6 years of schooling. The primary curriculum builds essential knowledge and skills in literacy, consolidating ‘learning to read and write’ through English, as well as increasingly using literacy skills for ‘reading and writing to learn’ in other learning areas.
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

Students become literate as they engage with literacy opportunities and experiences across the different learning areas of the Australian Curriculum. Literacy 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.

Although literacy is not a subject in Years 7–10, it is fundamental to effective learning. Each subject area has its own literacy requirements which students need to master if they are to maximise their achievement in that learning area. As such, a commitment to literacy development is a shared focus for teachers in all learning areas. All teachers need to be supported to understand literacy development as described in the Australian Curriculum Literacy Learning Continuum.

Examples of becoming literate in learning across the curriculum can be found on the Australian Curriculum website. The following examples are from the Australian Curriculum learning areas.

In **English** students develop numeracy capability when they interpret, analyse and create texts involving quantitative and spatial information such as percentages and statistics, numbers, measurements and directions. 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.

**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 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 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 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 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 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 (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 needs to be understood by all teachers as the means through which students learn. It should not be seen as an ‘add on’ or optional extra. It is more than just attending to spelling, punctuation and grammatical accuracy. Most importantly, literacy is not the sole responsibility of the English teacher. While much of the explicit, systematic teaching of literacy in Years 7–10 occurs in the English learning area, literacy is strengthened, made more specific and extended in other learning areas as students engage in a range of purposeful learning activities with significant literacy demands.

Literacy learning occurs most powerfully in the context of meaningful tasks in learning areas – the quality of collaborative small group talk, the support needed to read complex texts, the explicit teaching of the language of higher order thinking, the purposes for which students need to write, the production of digital texts, and so on.

Increases in literacy outcomes will only occur when there is a sustained whole school commitment to systematic curriculum delivery over a period of time. There is no quick fix. Schools need to develop a shared understanding of effective, evidence-based practices for teaching literacy to ensure consistency and continuity across the school. This set of practices should be documented and reviewed regularly by teams of teachers.

Improvement in literacy achievement requires a whole school commitment to the following key aspects:

**Organisation**

The organisation of effective English and literacy programs requires the invested, visible support of the school leadership team. The school’s literacy improvement strategy is also dependent on quality instructional leadership by an English-literacy leader and/or literacy team in managing and leading:

- planning and review cycles
- collecting and analysing data, and setting targets
- ensuring coherence and continuity across the Years 7–10
- promoting formative assessment strategies to guide English-literacy teaching
- building staff capacity through effective professional learning
- enabling the sharing of effective literacy practices across the school
- supporting the principal in developing whole school interventions for students requiring differentiated literacy support
- identifying resource needs and allocation
- convening and structuring year group literacy planning meetings
- celebrating English-literacy success.

**Planning**

Teachers who plan and implement effective English and literacy programs understand the importance of backward design and the clear links between learning goals and assessment tasks. They determine the language and literacy that students need to learn by backward mapping from the content descriptors and achievement standards of the Australian Curriculum: English and/or the expected indicators in the Australian Curriculum Literacy Learning Continuum. They design engaging, challenging tasks that enable all students to develop their literacy skills and demonstrate their understanding of the ways in which language works. Refer to Good Teaching: Curriculum Mapping and Planning – Planning for Learning.
It is important that schools allocate sufficient time and resources for team, learning area and/or year group planning meetings. This enables teachers to work collaboratively to integrate literacy activities into meaningful learning experiences, and to plan units of work that incorporate the explicit teaching of specific literacy skills. Informed by data, teachers decide on consistent literacy practices and assessment processes, share and confirm a common language for talking about literacy, and develop literacy resources to support all learners.

Teacher planning includes 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 — Learning for All and Supporting Literacy and Numeracy Success. Teachers should also make appropriate use of data from the NAPLAN Toolkit to identify specific literacy skills for improvement, particularly at the class and year level.

Teaching and learning

Successful English and literacy teachers in Years 7–10 know their students’ backgrounds, needs, strengths and interests and where they are in their learning. They use a range of strategies and resources in their teaching and learning program to engage and challenge students, and address their learning needs. Effective teachers immerse students in rich, personalised literacy experiences that systematically develop their knowledge and skills in listening, viewing, reading, speaking, writing and creating.

English and literacy teachers also understand that 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. They provide students with ongoing opportunities to engage purposefully with a range of imaginative, informative and persuasive texts in meaningful, authentic contexts that are relevant to students’ experiences in their lives beyond school.

English and literacy teachers have high expectations of their students, and believe that all students can achieve with the provision of high support and sufficient time for practice. They nurture literacy motivation by integrating choice, collaboration and engagement in relevant learning tasks. Students’ motivation makes the difference between superficial and shallow learning and learning that is deep and internalised. 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.

Effective literacy teachers are adept at scaffolding and differentiating instruction. In order to be effective, teachers identify each student’s literacy capabilities and plan carefully to cater for the diversity of learners. 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.

When planning to teach a unit of work, English and literacy teachers identify those literacy skills that students will need in order to successfully achieve the learning outcomes. They ask questions such as:

- Will students need help in reading the texts?
- Will the writing purpose be clear?
- Will we need to provide a model similar to the text to be written?
- Will students benefit from jointly constructing a text?
- Can they interpret and compose relevant visual material?
- Are there opportunities for exploratory oral interaction?
- How will we assess their literacy achievements in this unit of work?

Good English and literacy 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.
Monitoring and assessment

Quality assessment practices are an essential component of focused literacy teaching for successful learning. Literacy learning is optimised for students in Years 7–10 when the key assessment processes – formative assessment and regular feedback, consistent teacher judgements about learning, and moderated summative assessment and reporting – are aligned to a deep understanding of curriculum and effective pedagogy.

Effective assessment practices play a pivotal role in meeting the learning needs of all students and improving literacy outcomes. To ensure continuity of literacy development across all learning areas in the secondary years, it is important to develop a consistent, whole school approach to assessment, as outlined in the Good Teaching: Quality Assessment Practices – Guided Learning.

- 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.
- Teams of teachers benefit from sharing formative literacy assessment practices and planning for adjustments to teaching as a result of new understandings of learners.
- Success criteria are shared with the students who increasingly take responsibility for addressing the criteria and assessing their own literacy progress.
Teachers of English

The study of English is central to the learning and development of all young Australians, helping them to become effective communicators, imaginative thinkers and informed citizens. High quality English teaching therefore plays a vital role in the literacy learning in the Years 7–10. The fundamental way in which students develop literate practices in Years 7–10 is through the explicit teaching of the three interrelated strands of the Australian Curriculum: English.

Teachers of English are responsible for the systematic teaching of the ways in which language works (the Language strand); how to respond to, examine and create literature (the Literature strand); and how to interact with others, comprehend and compose texts (the Literacy strand). It is through the English learning area that students develop literacy in a manner that is more explicit and prominent than is the case in other learning areas.

English teachers also understand the strong connections between the content descriptors and achievement standards of the English learning area, and the organising elements and indicators of the Literacy Learning Continuum. Given their deep knowledge about comprehending and composing texts, and the ways in which language communicates meaning, English teachers have a leading role to play in improving literacy outcomes across the Years 7–10.

Teachers of subjects other than English

All students need to be explicitly taught the literacy skills and strategies needed for success in secondary schooling. To assist students to become literate, teachers of subjects other than English need to have a clear understanding of what it means to be literate, teach the subject-specific literacies of their learning area – specialised texts, vocabulary and meanings, and typical text types – and embed a range of modelled, guided and independent literacy learning experiences into regular classroom activities.

Teachers of subjects other than English should refer to Supporting Literacy and Numeracy Success for a series of snapshots of literacy practices and strategies in action across different learning areas.

Questions for reflection

For school leaders:

• How is English-literacy reflected in the School Improvement Plan and Operational Plan?
• What high leverage strategy and deliberate actions are planned to develop whole school literacy practices?
• What are the core values in your school regarding literacy across the curriculum? 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 English-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 English-literacy assessment tools the school uses? Why are they used?

• How are the diverse literacy needs of students catered for?

• How is English-literacy learning at the school 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 English-literacy learning? What could be improved?

• How do you design learning tasks that allow students to develop and demonstrate their understandings in English-literacy?

• Is there a shared understanding of effective literacy practices between staff?

Useful resources

See Appendix 1 – Resources to support literacy development.
Most learning in the classroom takes place through oral language. Learning is a social process where meaning is collaboratively constructed as ideas are exchanged, challenged and refined.

The talk involved in school learning is a particular type of oral language – the kind that requires careful listening, thoughtful speaking and robust interaction to develop educational understandings. Oral language of this sophisticated kind is the foundation for literacy and learning as students move through school.

In secondary school, we can’t take for granted that students know how to participate in the more challenging, technical and abstract oral exchanges involved in more advanced learning. For students to become skilled at using language for learning, teachers need to explicitly teach interaction skills, provide structured opportunities for academic discussions and create a classroom climate that encourages cognitive and linguistic exploration and risk-taking.

It is not only the students who need to know how to use the power of oral language for learning. The teacher also needs to know how to use oral language effectively to enhance learning: how to engage students’ interest; to build on student contributions; to identify potential misconceptions; and to scaffold between everyday knowledge and more technical concepts.

Here we will focus on:
- Listening
- Speaking
- Interacting with others
- Monitoring and assessment.

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](www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/generalcapabilities/literacy/continuum#layout=columns).
### Australian Curriculum: English

#### Speaking and Listening – relevant Content Descriptors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 7</th>
<th>Year 8</th>
<th>Year 9</th>
<th>Year 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plan, rehearse and deliver presentations, selecting and sequencing appropriate content and multimodal elements to promote a point of view or enable a new way of seeing</td>
<td>Plan, rehearse and deliver presentations, selecting and sequencing appropriate content, including multimodal elements, to reflect a diversity of viewpoints</td>
<td>Plan, rehearse and deliver presentations, selecting and sequencing appropriate content and multimodal elements for aesthetic and playful purposes</td>
<td>Plan, rehearse and deliver presentations, selecting and sequencing appropriate content and multimodal elements to influence a course of action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify and discuss main ideas, concepts and points of view in spoken texts to evaluate qualities, for example the strength of an argument or the lyrical power of a poetic rendition</td>
<td>Understand how conventions of speech adopted by communities influence the identities of people in those communities</td>
<td>Understand that roles and relationships are developed and challenged through language and interpersonal skills</td>
<td>Understand how language use can have inclusive and exclusive social effects, and can empower or disempower people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand how accents, styles of speech and idioms express and create personal and social identities</td>
<td>Interpret the stated and implied meanings in spoken texts, and use evidence to support or challenge different perspectives</td>
<td>Listen to spoken texts constructed for different purposes, for example to entertain and to persuade, and analyse how language features of these texts position listeners to respond in particular ways</td>
<td>Identify and explore the purposes and effects of different text structures and language features of spoken texts, and use this knowledge to create purposeful texts that inform, persuade and engage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Australian Curriculum: English

#### Speaking and Listening – relevant Achievement Standards

| Students listen for and explain different perspectives in texts | They listen for and identify different emphases in texts, using that understanding to elaborate on discussions | They listen for ways texts position an audience | They listen for ways features within texts can be manipulated to achieve particular effects |
| They make presentations and contribute actively to class and group discussions, using language features to engage the audience | They make presentations and contribute actively to class and group discussions, comparing and evaluating responses to ideas and issues | They make presentations and contribute actively to class and group discussions, building on others’ ideas, solving problems, justifying opinions and developing and expanding arguments | They make presentations and contribute actively to class and group discussions, building on others’ ideas, solving problems, justifying opinions and developing and expanding arguments |
Planning

Teachers 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 of English need to create in order to develop the required, stated learning in the curriculum and to support the development of literacy skills.

Putting it into practice

It is the responsibility of all teachers to develop students’ skills in listening, speaking and oral interaction. However, it is reasonable for English teachers to take responsibility for the explicit teaching of listening, speaking and oral interaction skills; while teachers in other subject areas teach the oral language needed in order to participate successfully in subject-related tasks, as outlined below:

**English teachers (and other specialists, such as EAL and literacy staff)**

- Conduct an initial assessment of students’ listening, speaking and oral interaction skills on entry to Year 7 to identify any ‘at risk’ students.
- Monitor the ongoing development of identified students.
- Explicitly teach students to listen attentively and with understanding to the kind of teacher talk and peer discussions typical of secondary lessons.
- Explicitly teach students how to make oral presentations of various kinds.
- Explicitly teach students how to participate actively in academic discussions.

**Teachers from other curriculum areas**

- Reinforce and consolidate the oral language skills that have been taught by the English teacher.
- Recognise that language and content are inseparable. They teach the content and teach the language that embodies the content.
- Recognise that content understandings are socially constructed in the interaction between teacher and students and provide authentic opportunities for such interactions.
- Monitor their own use of oral language, making sure that they are making complex concepts accessible to students.
- Plan for opportunities for students to engage in scaffolded listening activities, oral presentation tasks, and academic interactions, as in the following learning area examples.

**In Mathematics:**

- Group interaction tasks involving formulating and solving authentic problems using numbers and measurements.
- ‘Thinking together’ activities where students are provided with guidance and practice in how to use language as a tool for working collaboratively on maths problems.
- Students learning to ‘talk like mathematicians’, explaining their reasoning involved in calculating, interpreting and drawing conclusions.
- Students using their own words in explaining mathematical concepts, with the teacher interacting to scaffold them into the more specialist language.
- Teachers modelling how they would solve a problem using a ‘think aloud’ technique.

**In Science:**

- Teachers design classroom discussion to encourage students to hypothesise, predict and speculate.
- Opportunities for students to plan collaboratively and conduct a range of investigation types, including fieldwork and experiments.
• Oral presentations of results and conclusions of experiments.
• Informal debates on issues involving ethical considerations around the use of science, using evidence-based arguments and employing appropriate scientific language.
• Group discussions to evaluate conclusions, identify sources of uncertainty, and consider ways of improving the quality of data.

In History:
• Group interaction to identify a range of questions about a past event to inform an historical inquiry.
• Watching a documentary on an historical issue in order to make notes using a relevant graphic organiser e.g. timeline of events, cause-and-effect diagram.
• Oral/multimodal presentations by groups reporting on their investigations into different aspects of a way of life e.g. in Renaissance Italy.
• A Socratic seminar on the reliability and validity of sources used in an historical inquiry. (https://www.facinghistory.org/for-educators/educator-resources/teaching-strategy/socratic-seminar)

In Civics and Citizenship:
• Mock trial e.g. of Cinderella’s stepmother.
• Student negotiation to reach consensus on a course of action relating to a civics or citizenship issue and planning for that action.
• Critical evaluation of a televised session of Question Time in Parliament.
• Formal debate on a current political issue using evidence and subject-specific language.

In Economics and Business:
• Using effective oral interaction to plan and implement a group task involving the development of an entrepreneurial/innovative enterprise.
• Scenarios/role plays involving issues of ethical behaviour in the workplace.
• Attentive listening in order to ask questions of a local business person.

• Oral presentations providing reasoned arguments and evidence-based conclusions using language and concepts from economics and business.

In Technologies:
• Using effective oral interaction to work collaboratively on the production of designed solutions.
• Listening for details when following instructions about the use of tools and machinery.
• Oral presentation, pitching the group’s designed solution to a potential backer e.g. as in Shark Tank or the Dragon’s Den.
• Interacting with others to plan and manage projects that create and communicate ideas and information collaboratively online.
• Supporting students to use effective questions and interviewing techniques when communicating with stakeholders to identify needs.

In Languages:
• Initiating and sustaining interaction to develop relationships with peers and adults, and to exchange and compare ideas, experiences, opinions and feelings.
• Developing language to interact in classroom routines and tasks, for example, posing questions, asking for repetition, rephrasing, explaining, asking how to say something, expressing opinion, and giving and following instructions.
• Using classroom language to question, elicit and offer opinions, and compare and discuss ideas.

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 into the secondary years, however, listening becomes more demanding as they 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 how to be an attentive, respectful listener 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 the rhythm of a poem; to identify specific information from an information report; to follow instructions for an experiment; to follow the sequence of events in a recount; to comprehend the points being made in an argument; and so on.

• Provide a good model of listening skills by listening attentively to students.

Listening activities

Retelling

Students listen to a text and then retell (to the teacher or a small group) what they understood from the text. 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.

Listening for specific information

Students’ ability to listen for detail can be fostered by having them demonstrate their comprehension by getting them to complete a relevant graphic organiser (see Appendix 3) as they listen to a text, as in the following example:

History Year 7. The range of sources that can be used in an historical investigation, including archaeological and written sources. (ACDSEH1029)

Historical sources are items that a historian looks for and then studies to investigate the past. Historians rely on two main sources of evidence: primary and secondary. Primary sources are those that were created during the period being studied. Primary sources include the remains of ancient buildings, artefacts such as tools and jewellery, skeletal remains of inhabitants, and documents from people who lived at the time.

Secondary sources are made by people who did not live in the time period under investigation. Secondary sources can include history textbooks written for students, documentaries about past events, magazine articles discussing events in the past, and interpretations by historians.

Types of sources

Inferring from the text

As you read a text aloud, ask questions that encourage students to go beyond what is written and to provide evidence from the text e.g.

Emilio took the cap off his head, dropped the baseball bat, and rested his elbows on the fence. It’s not that he couldn’t find the ball. It was sitting right in the middle of the lawn, just beyond the fence. The fence was not very high either. Emilio could probably get a running start, grab the top of the fence, and flip right over it. But there was a dog, a large Rottweiler with a
spiked collar. He sat under an awning a few feet away from the ball. He looked at Emilio and let out a menacing growl. Archie, Scotty, and Dutch ran up to Emilio and surveyed the situation. Archie was the first to speak, ‘So, are you going to do it, Emilio?’


- What were the boys doing right before the text begins? How do you know?
- What problem is Emilio facing? What evidence is there for this?
- How do you think Emilio is feeling? What makes you think this?

Listening for point of view
Students watch a video of a speech/interview and try to identify the speaker’s point of view using cues such as intonation, body language, repetition, emotive words (‘pathos’), logical reasoning (‘logos’), or ethical points (‘ethos’). They then share their evidence for their belief about the speaker’s point of view.

Dictogloss

In pairs or small groups, the students then combine their notes to reconstruct a version of the text in their own words, approximating the main ideas of the text. Talking about the choices they made in the reconstruction process allows students to negotiate the meaning of the text, considering appropriate vocabulary and grammatical options.

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 significantly from the original. Or groups can share their versions sentence by sentence to see whether they agree or differ in their reconstruction of the meaning.

Note making
Teach students how to take notes from your lesson presentation. This is a skill that many students find difficult. There are many ways of note taking, depending on the type and topic of lesson. The following is just one example of a proforma that you could share with your students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Key words | Main idea
|          | • supporting details
|          | Main idea
|          | • supporting details
| Summary |
| Questions, insights, comments |

While playing a video (e.g. documentary), demonstrate how you would use the proforma to take notes.

Speaking
When students entered school they became used to speaking informally to groups of peers, and gradually extended the range of audiences and the level of preparation and formality expected by the end of the primary years. In the 7–10 years, students will be expected to speak in an even greater variety of contexts for a range of audiences and purposes. This includes sustained contributions to classroom discussions, individual and group presentations, and formal and informal debates.
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

To promote confident and competent speaking it is important to:

• Create an expectation that students will make extended contributions to class discussions.
• Minimise student self-consciousness by establishing a climate of trust, collaboration and empathy among listeners and speakers.

Speaking activities

Students in the 7–10 years need a range of opportunities to develop their confidence at speaking in supportive contexts. Such activities usually require some preparation so that students have something to say. The following examples indicate the kinds of activities that support this learning.

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 (general, peasant, governor, enslaved person, etc.). Allow time for each group to prepare interview questions and responses in relation to a particular incident. Students then participate in at least two interviews, alternating between reporter and interviewee. From their interviews, they 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.

Polarised debate

Students sit in a horseshoe to debate an issue that is open to various positions. Those who support the issue sit on one side. Those who disagree sit on the opposite side. Students from each side take turns in persuading the opposition and the undecided students to their standpoint. If a 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.

The orator

Some teenagers tend to mumble. This activity gives them practice in speaking clearly and expressively in more formal situations. Students choose a passage from one of their favourite stories or poems. They nominate what 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, perhaps in the form of digital stories.

Oral presentations

• Provide sufficient time for group or individual preparation of the content of the presentation.
• If assessing the presentation, communicate clear grading criteria to your students before preparation.
• Encourage the use of props such as PowerPoint, video, hands-on materials, posters.
• Give a time limit and tell them to be succinct – more is not necessarily best.
• Encourage students to practise beforehand with a partner; the peer providing feedback about such aspects as content organisation, level of interest sustained, design of props, posture, facial expressions, eye contact, articulation, intonation, pausing, volume and engagement with audience.
• Demonstrate to the audience how to ask thoughtful, authentic questions.
• Show videos of good and poor presentations and ask students to evaluate them using the rubric p.24.

Oral interaction

The role of interaction in learning

The learning process is interactive. Classroom talk enables students to explore and refine ideas and work towards considered conclusions. Oral interaction allows students to talk their way into meaning: to think aloud; to formulate ideas; to set up and evaluate hypotheses; to clarify ideas; and to reach tentative decisions in a context that is not restricted by the accuracy demands of written language.

Student-student and student-teacher talk can provide rich contexts for language development and learning. Productive talk does not just happen – it needs to be deliberately and systematically planned. How tasks are designed, how group work is set up, and how teachers respond to students, all impact on how effective classroom talk is in supporting learning.

Putting it into practice

Classroom practices

Dialogic teaching

Oral language in the classroom 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, as reflected in:

- **interactions** which encourage students to think, and to think in different ways
- **open questions** which invite much more than simple recall and can have multiple answers
- **answers** which are justified, followed up and built upon rather than merely received
- **feedback** which informs and leads thinking forward as well as encourages contributions which are extended rather than fragmented
- **exchanges** which chain together into coherent and deepening lines of inquiry
- **discussion and argumentation** which 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** which 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**

With EAL students in particular, teachers 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 accompanying 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’).

‘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 when called on: 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.

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 ‘pause time’ rather than moving along quickly.

Jigsaw tasks
The students in each group become ‘experts’ in a particular aspect of a larger topic e.g. differences between elements, compounds and mixtures. The groups break off to form new groups. The experts then share their knowledge with students in the other group to create a text on the larger topic.

Problem-solving tasks
One of the best ways to stimulate purposeful interaction is to create problem-solving tasks that require students to use oral language in particular ways. Such tasks include maths problems, science experiments and technology design. They involve student interaction to interpret the problem, formulate hypotheses, select and critically evaluate relevant information, clarify goals and roles and reflect on possible solutions, and to collaboratively problem solve.

Academic conversations
Students in Years 7–10 need to engage in the kinds of academic discussions that involve active participation around topics and issues from 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, accountable talk, collaborative conversations, Socratic seminars, and the like. These have similar characteristics such as the following:

• There are expectations regarding 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, 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 learners use with friends and family, or in social situations in their communities. Not all students feel confident and prepared to participate productively in the kinds of academic conversations described above. Teachers can support students in the early stages by demonstrating that there are various ways to participate such as: 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.

START OFF

‘I think…’

my opinion

DISAGREE

‘I would disagree with that because…’

MAKE CLEARER

‘Can you say that in a different way?’

‘Can you give another example?’

Oral language (listening and speaking)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Developing skills for oral interaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Initiate</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I think ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Affirm</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I like the way you explained ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Piggyback</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I agree with that because ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I would like to add to what ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• said about ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Disagree</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I would disagree with that because</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clarify</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Can you say your answer in a different way?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Can you give me another example?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Can you explain what you mean by ....?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I am confused about ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Follow up with evidence</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• How do you know that is the correct answer?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What is your evidence?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• On page xxx it says ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Based on my evidence found here .... I believe ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Encourage participation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What do you think? ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Can anyone add to that?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Speculate</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I wonder why ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I predict that .... because ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What if ....?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Summarise</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• So what we’re saying is ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stay on track</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Let’s get back to ....</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Initiate**
- I think ....

**Affirm**
- I like the way you explained ....

**Piggyback**
- I agree with that because ....
- I would like to add to what .... said about ....

**Disagree**
- I would disagree with that because ....

**Clarify**
- Can you say your answer in a different way?
- Can you give me another example?
- Can you explain what you mean by ....?
- I am confused about ....

**Follow up with evidence**
- How do you know that is the correct answer?
- What is your evidence?
- On page xxx it says ....
- Based on my evidence found here .... I believe ....

**Encourage participation**
- What do you think? ....
- Can anyone add to that?

**Speculate**
- I wonder why ....
- I predict that .... because ....
- What if ....?

**Summarise**
- So what we’re saying is ....

**Stay on track**
- Let’s get back to ....

**Disagree**
- I'm not sure I'd agree because ....

**Clarify**
- How did you figure that out?
- I didn't understand that. Can you explain it again?

**Follow up**
- Where is it in the text?
- Why do you think that?
- Can you give an example?

**Encourage participation**
- What do you think? ....

**Summarise**
- So far we have decided that ....

**Stay on track**
- Let's get back to the question.
- We only have five minutes left ....
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 problems with listening comprehension:

- a lack of concentration
- a look of confusion
- misinterpretation of information
- inappropriate responses to questions
- inability to stay on track and complete tasks
- 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.

Of course, many EAL/D students will experience initial challenges in listening and will need higher support through repetition, rewording, summarising, and clear articulation until they gain confidence and control with spoken English.

Assessing speaking (expressive oral language)

Monitoring at-risk students for speaking

While most secondary students 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 text
- 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.

Note: most of the rubrics/success criteria found on the internet have been developed to evaluate students learning English as a foreign language in formal assessments, often a prepared oral presentation. They are not necessarily appropriate for the kind of responsive, informal assessment of mainstream students where the focus is not so much on pronunciation and grammatical accuracy, as on their ability to converse in a confident, knowledgeable and articulate manner.

The following is one example of a rubric for an oral presentation. It could be used for evaluation by the teacher; for peer assessment, or for self-assessment (if the presentation is videotaped). The rubric should be shared with students so that they are aware of what is being valued.
# Oral presentation rubric

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRAIT</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>NONVERBAL SKILLS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>AUDIENCE CONTACT</strong></td>
<td>Holds attention of entire audience with the use of direct eye contact, seldom looking at notes or prop</td>
<td>Consistent use of direct eye contact with at least some of the audience, but some over-reliance on notes</td>
<td>Minimal eye contact with audience, reading mostly from notes</td>
<td>No eye contact with audience, relying almost entirely on notes or memorisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uses animated facial expression (such as smiling) to effectively engage audience</td>
<td>Occasionally uses a range of facial expressions to engage audience</td>
<td>Some use of facial expression to engage audience</td>
<td>Minimal facial expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BODY LANGUAGE AND POISE</strong></td>
<td>Uses appropriate gestures to interact with audience</td>
<td>Some effective use of gestures to interact with audience</td>
<td>Awkward attempts at using gestures to interact with audience</td>
<td>Virtually no use of gestures to interact with the audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stands in a relaxed, confident manner</td>
<td>Stands in a composed manner with few signs of nervousness</td>
<td>Body language displays some nervousness</td>
<td>Body language suggests nervousness and a lack of self confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Handles any mistakes well</td>
<td>Recovers well from mistakes</td>
<td>Might be thrown by mistakes</td>
<td>Has difficulty dealing with mistakes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DELIVERY</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ARTICULATION</strong></td>
<td>Clearly articulates words in a clear voice so that all members of audience can understand</td>
<td>Articulates words reasonably well so that most of the presentation is understandable</td>
<td>Tends to mumble at times so audience members have some difficulty hearing presentation</td>
<td>Mumbles in a manner that is difficult to understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Varies volume appropriately to maintain audience interest</td>
<td>Reasonable awareness of need to vary volume</td>
<td>Some attempt at varying the volume</td>
<td>Doesn’t vary the volume, often too low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uses intonation effectively. Speaks at an appropriate pace for audience</td>
<td>Adjusts intonation and pace to engage audience</td>
<td>Some attempt at varying intonation, and pace to engage the audience</td>
<td>Speaks in a monotone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uses pausing effectively</td>
<td>Uses occasional pauses for effect</td>
<td>Some use of deliberate pausing</td>
<td>Speaks too slowly or too fast with little variation. Pauing is due to hesitation, not a deliberate choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>VOICE QUALITIES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRAIT</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CONTENT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ENTHUSIASM FOR TOPIC</strong></td>
<td>Demonstrates a strong, positive feeling for the topic during entire presentation.</td>
<td>Occasionally shows enthusiasm for topic. Creates some audience interest.</td>
<td>Shows little interest in topic. Has difficulty in arousing audience interest.</td>
<td>Shows no interest in topic. Conveys boredom to audience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOPIC KNOWLEDGE</strong></td>
<td>Confident control of topic. Careful choice of interesting, relevant information/points appropriate for audience. Answers questions thoughtfully, with elaborations or examples.</td>
<td>Reasonable knowledge of topic. Some attempt at including interesting, relevant content appropriate to audience. At ease with answering most questions.</td>
<td>Lack of confident control of topic. Little elaboration. Content might not be appropriate for audience. Answers only rudimentary questions with little or no elaboration.</td>
<td>Limited knowledge of topic. Poorly chosen information/points. Some irrelevant material. Difficulty in answering questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ORGANISATION</strong></td>
<td>Information presented in logical sequence with effective use of well-designed props (if appropriate). Organises time well.</td>
<td>Information presented in reasonably logical sequence, with good use of props (if appropriate). Well-paced presentation.</td>
<td>Audience has difficulty following presentation due to weak organisation. Any props not well-designed or utilised poorly. Timing of presentation not well judged.</td>
<td>Audience cannot understand presentation due to lack of organisation and poor design/use of props. Poor use of time.</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?
• Do they invite others to contribute?
• 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?
• In your school, is it seen as the role of the English teacher (and other language specialists) to assess and monitor the oral language of students and to explicitly teach the skills of listening, speaking and oral interaction needed for successful participation in secondary education?
• How are other staff familiarised with what the English teacher has taught so that they are able to reinforce oral language skills in their subject area?
• How might this booklet and other resources be used to raise the awareness of all staff members of the importance of oral language in learning and their roles in developing the students’ oral skills?
• What support are subject teachers given to integrate effective listening, speaking and oral interaction practices into their programs?
• How might staff members be provided with models of quality classroom talk?
• 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 above. Would you change the rubric in any way?

Useful resources
See Appendix 2.1 Assessment tools for oral language
It is through reading that secondary students access much of the learning in secondary school. The reading challenges are quite different from those of the primary years, however. Students now need to read texts that are increasingly dense, technical, multimodal and abstract in print and digital forms.

There is general agreement that teenagers are not reading as much as before. If they are reading, it is not necessarily the kind of reading that immerses them in the rich, demanding language of academic and literary texts. One response by teachers is to lower their expectations, reduce the reading load, and provide simplified material. A preferable alternative is to actually teach students how to read the texts related to the task at hand.

Although it is commonly said that teenagers these days increasingly access information through visual modes, we can’t make the assumption that they intuitively know how to read the more complex and abstract images found in educational contexts.

We cannot just claim that students should have learnt to read in primary school. The reading and viewing demands in secondary school need to be explicitly taught.

In this section, we will focus on the following aspects of reading:

- What does reading involve?
  - the reader
  - the text
  - the context
- Scaffolding reading and viewing
- Viewing
- Monitoring and assessment.
Links to the curriculum

The following tables highlight how reading and viewing are represented in the *Australian Curriculum: English*. Those aspects relating more specifically to literacy texts are in italics. 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 7</th>
<th>Year 8</th>
<th>Year 9</th>
<th>Year 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Comprehension of texts**

| Use comprehension strategies to interpret, analyse and synthesise ideas and information, critiquing ideas and issues from a variety of textual sources. Use prior knowledge and text processing strategies to interpret a range of types of text. Recognise and analyse the ways that characterisation, events and settings are combined in narratives, and discuss the purposes and appeal of different approaches. | Use comprehension strategies to interpret and evaluate texts by reflecting on the validity of content and the credibility of sources, including finding evidence in the text for the author’s point of view. Apply increasing knowledge of vocabulary, text structures and language features to understand the content of texts. Recognise, explain and analyse the ways literary texts draw on readers’ knowledge of other texts and enable new understanding and appreciation of aesthetic qualities. | Use comprehension strategies to interpret and analyse texts, comparing and evaluating representations of an event, issue, situation or character in different texts. Apply an expanding vocabulary to read increasingly complex texts with fluency and comprehension. Analyse text structure and language features of literary texts, and make relevant comparisons with other texts. | Use comprehension strategies to compare and contrast information within and between texts, identifying and analysing embedded perspectives, and evaluating supporting evidence. |

**Interpretation and response**

| Compare the ways that language and images are used to create character, and to influence emotions and opinions in different types of texts. | Share, reflect, clarify and evaluate opinions and arguments about aspects of literary texts. | Analyse how the construction and interpretation of texts, including media texts, can be influenced by cultural perspectives and other texts. | Identify, explain and discuss how narrative viewpoint, structure, characterisation and devices including analogy and satire shape different interpretations and responses to a text. |
### Australian Curriculum: English

#### Reading and Viewing – relevant Content Descriptors

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<th>Year 7</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Text structure and language features</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Analyse and explain the ways text structures and language features shape meaning and vary according to audience and purpose. Understand and explain how structures and language features of texts become more complex in informative and persuasive texts and identify underlying structures such as taxonomies, cause and effect, and extended metaphors.</td>
<td>Analyse and evaluate the ways that text structures and language features vary according to the purpose of the text and the ways that referenced sources add authority to a text. Analyse how the text structures and language features of persuasive texts, including media texts, vary according to the medium and mode of communication. Interpret and analyse language choices, including sentence patterns, dialogue, imagery and other language features, in short stories, literary essays and plays. Understand the effect of nominalisation in the writing of informative and persuasive texts.</td>
<td>Understand that authors innovate with text structures and language for specific purposes and effects. Analyse text structures and language features of literary texts, and make relevant comparisons with other texts. Explain how authors creatively use the structures of sentences and clauses for particular effects. Understand that authors innovate with text structures and language for specific purposes and effects.</td>
<td>Compare the purposes, text structures and language features of traditional and contemporary texts in different media. Understand how paragraphs and images can be arranged for different purposes, audiences, perspectives and stylistic effects. Analyse how higher order concepts are developed in complex texts through language features including nominalisation, clause combinations, technicality and abstraction.</td>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Cohesion and coherence</strong></th>
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<tr>
<td>Understand that the coherence of more complex texts relies on devices that signal text structure and guide readers, for example overviews, initial and concluding paragraphs and topic sentences.</td>
<td>Understand how coherence is created in complex texts through devices like lexical cohesion, ellipsis, grammatical theme and text connectives. Understand how cohesion in texts is improved by strengthening the internal structure of paragraphs through the use of examples, quotations and substantiation of claims.</td>
<td>Compare and contrast the use of cohesive devices in texts, focusing on how they serve to signpost ideas, to make connections and to build semantic associations between ideas. Understand how certain abstract nouns can be used to summarise preceding or subsequent stretches of text.</td>
<td>Choose a reading technique and reading path appropriate for the type of text, to retrieve and connect ideas within and between texts.</td>
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<td>Australian Curriculum: English</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Perspective and point of view</strong></td>
<td>Identify and explore ideas and viewpoints about events, issues and characters represented in texts drawn from different historical, social and cultural contexts</td>
<td>Recognise and explain differing viewpoints about the world, cultures, individual people and concerns represented in texts</td>
<td>Interpret, analyse and evaluate how different perspectives of issue, event, situation, individuals or groups are constructed to serve specific purposes in texts</td>
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<td>Reflect on ideas and opinions about characters, settings and events in literary texts, identifying areas of agreement and difference with others and justifying a point of view</td>
<td>Recognise and explain differing viewpoints in literary texts drawn from different historical, social and cultural contexts may reflect or challenge the values of individuals and groups</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Representation</strong></td>
<td>Recognise and analyse the ways that characterisation, events and settings are combined in narratives, and discuss the purposes and appeal of different approaches</td>
<td>Understand and explain how combinations of words and images in texts are used to represent particular groups in society, and how texts position readers in relation to those groups</td>
<td>Interpret and compare how representations of people and culture in literary texts are drawn from different historical, social and cultural contexts</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reflect on ideas and opinions about characters, settings and events in literary texts, identifying areas of agreement and difference with others and justifying a point of view</td>
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<td>Explore and reflect on personal understanding of the world and significant human experience gained from interpreting various representations of life matters in texts</td>
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### Australian Curriculum: English

#### Reading and Viewing – relevant Content Descriptors

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<tr>
<td><strong>Literary devices</strong></td>
<td>Identify and evaluate devices that create tone, for example humour, wordplay, innuendo, and parody in poetry, humorous prose, drama or visual texts. Understand how rhetorical devices are used to persuade and how different layers of meaning are developed through the use of metaphor, irony and parody.</td>
<td>Investigate and experiment with the use and effect of extended metaphor, metonymy, allegory, icons, myths and symbolism in texts, for example poetry, short films, graphic novels, and plays on similar themes.</td>
<td>Compare and evaluate how ‘voice’ as a literary device can be used in a range of different types of texts such as poetry to evoke particular emotional responses.</td>
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**Evaluation**

<p>| Understand how language is used to evaluate texts and how evaluations about a text can be substantiated by reference to the text and other sources. | Share, reflect on, clarify and evaluate opinions and arguments about aspects of literary texts. | Investigate how evaluation can be expressed directly and indirectly using devices, for example allusion, evocative vocabulary and metaphor. | Understand that people’s evaluations of texts are influenced by their value systems, the context and the purpose and mode of communication. |
| Discuss aspects of texts, for example their aesthetic and social value, using relevant and appropriate metalanguage. | | Analyse texts from familiar and unfamiliar contexts, and discuss and evaluate their content and the appeal of an individual author’s literary style. | Evaluate the social, moral and ethical positions represented in texts. |
| | | Reflect on, discuss and explore notions of literary value and how and why such notions vary according to context. | Identify and analyse implicit or explicit values, beliefs and assumptions in texts and how these are influenced by purposes and likely audiences. |
| | | Present an argument about a literary text based on initial impressions and subsequent analysis of the whole text. | Analyse and evaluate text structures and language features of literary texts and make relevant thematic and intertextual connections with other texts. |</p>
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<tr>
<td>Visual literacy</td>
<td><strong>Year 9</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Analyse how point of view is generated in visual texts by means of choices, for example gaze, angle and social distance</td>
<td><strong>Year 10</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Compare the text structures and language features of multimodal texts, explaining how they combine to influence audiences</td>
<td>Evaluate the impact on audiences of different choices in the representation of still and moving images</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyse and explain the effect of technological innovations on texts, particularly media texts</td>
<td>Use a range of software, including word processing programs, confidently, flexibly and imaginatively to create, edit and publish texts, considering the identified purpose and the characteristics of the user</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compare the ways that language and images are used to create character, and to influence emotions and opinions in different types of texts</td>
<td>Analyse and explain how text structures, language features and visual features of texts and the context in which texts are experienced may influence audience response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigate how visual and multimodal texts allude to or draw on other texts or images to enhance and layer meaning</td>
<td>Analyse and explain the use of symbols, icons and myth in still and moving images and how these augment meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand and explain how combinations of words and images in texts are used to represent particular groups in society, and how texts position readers in relation to those groups</td>
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<tr>
<td>Analyse how the text structures and language features of persuasive texts, including media texts, vary according to the medium and mode of communication</td>
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<tr>
<td>Experiment with the ways that language features, image and sound can be adapted in literary texts, for example the effects of stereotypical characters and settings, the playfulness of humour and pun and the use of hyperlink</td>
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### Australian Curriculum: English

**Reading and Viewing – relevant Achievement Standards**

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<tr>
<td>Students understand how text structures can influence the complexity of a text and are dependent on audience, purpose and context. They demonstrate understanding of how the choice of language features, images and vocabulary affects meaning. Students explain issues and ideas from a variety of sources, analysing supporting evidence and implied meaning. They select specific details from texts to develop their own response, recognising that texts reflect different viewpoints</td>
<td>Students understand how the selection of text structures is influenced by the selection of language mode and how this varies for different purposes and audiences. Students explain how language features, images and vocabulary are used to represent different ideas and issues in texts</td>
<td>Students analyse the ways that text structures can be manipulated for effect. They analyse and explain how images, vocabulary choices and language features distinguish the work of individual authors. They evaluate and integrate ideas and information from texts to form their own interpretations. They select evidence from texts to analyse and explain how language choices and conventions are used to influence an audience</td>
<td>Students evaluate how text structures can be used in innovative ways by different authors. They explain how the choice of language features, images and vocabulary contributes to the development of individual style. They develop and justify their own interpretations of texts. They evaluate other interpretations, analysing the evidence used to support them</td>
</tr>
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### Planning

Teachers 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 of English need to create in order to develop the required, stated learning in the curriculum and to support the development of literacy skills.

### Putting it into practice

It is the responsibility of all teachers to develop students’ reading skills. However, it is reasonable for English teachers to take responsibility for the explicit teaching of reading skills; while teachers in other subject areas teach the reading skills needed in order to participate successfully in subject-related tasks, as outlined below:

**English teachers (and other specialists, such as EAL and literacy staff)**

- Conduct an initial assessment of students’ reading skills and strategies on entry to Year 7 to identify any ‘at risk’ students
- Monitor the ongoing reading development of identified students
• Nurture a positive attitude towards reading and encourage extensive engagement with print and digital texts.

• Explicitly teach all students the kinds of reading and viewing skills required to navigate and comprehend the complex, dense texts of secondary education. This could include how to skim and scan, how to use a range of comprehension strategies, to ‘unpack’ dense texts (see section on Grammar), to identify point of view and bias, to track cohesion, to read for detail, to summarise and to take notes and synthesise information.

• In addition to teaching those general reading skills which will be applied in all subject areas, to teach those reading skills that are particular to subject English.

Teachers from other curriculum areas
Teachers from subject areas other than English don’t necessarily have the time nor the expertise to teach reading. They do have an important responsibility, however; to consider the reading demands of the tasks they set, to select reading material carefully, and to provide students with the scaffolding they need in order to read the kinds of texts that are specific to their particular subject area. Their role includes the need to:

• Reinforce the reading skills that have been taught by the English teacher.

• Understand that the nature of reading varies from subject to subject and from task to task. Reading a maths problem is very different from reading a poem, for example.

• Recognise that teaching the language of the discipline is not an ‘add on’. Language and content are inseparable. You cannot teach the content without teaching the language that embodies the content.

• Recognise that understandings from reading result from the interaction between the reader, the text and the context, and that all three need to be considered when designing tasks.

• Identify the reading demands of tasks that are set for students, including how to read the task description and related material such as the textbook, how to take notes, how to interpret visual information, how to access online information, and how to read critically.

• Explicitly teach the literacy skills and strategies needed to successfully complete such tasks using practices such as modelled, shared, differentiated, collaborative and independent reading, as in the following examples:

In History:
• To differentiate instruction, work with groups of students who are having problems in identifying points of view, attitudes and values in primary and secondary sources.

• Demonstrate to the class how to locate, compare, select and use information from a range of sources and draw conclusions about their usefulness.

In Geography:
• Show the class how to read their textbook in order to locate information on such topics as the nature of water scarcity and ways of overcoming it. ‘Unpack’ difficult passages for them.

• Teach the class how to select relevant geographical data and information from primary and secondary sources.

• Collaboratively develop criteria for evaluating sources for their reliability and usefulness.

In Civics and Citizenship:
• Show students how to critically analyse the persuasive devices used by the media in shaping citizens’ political choices at election time.

• During shared reading sessions, support the students in interacting with the text to identify different interpretations and points of view.

In Economics and Business:
• When differentiating instruction, work with a group of weaker readers to help them interpret data and information displayed in different formats.

• Model how to skim a text to identify relevant and reliable data and information from a range of digital, online and print sources.

• Use a relevant graphic organiser (Appendix 3) to scaffold independent reading by asking students to use the graphic organiser to make notes from the textbook when explaining cause-and-effect relationships.
In The Arts:
• Teach students visual literacy strategies to analyse a range of visual artworks from contemporary and past times.

In Design and Technologies
• Model how you would critically analyse texts to identify factors that impact on designed solutions.

In Science:
• In shared reading sessions, guide the students in reading primary and secondary sources and in critically analysing their validity.
• Model to the students how to critically read data, evaluate conclusions, identify sources of uncertainty and possible alternative explanations.

In Mathematics:
• Ask students in pairs or groups to support each other in interpreting and analysing graphs from authentic data.
• Model to class how you would read the task prompt, such as how to solve problems involving addition and subtraction of fractions.

In Health and Physical Education
• Carefully select a range of texts – print, multimodal and digital – for students to analyse when undertaking a task, scaffolding them to identify information, make notes, and synthesise their notes to create a text, such as the benefit to individuals and communities of valuing diversity and promoting inclusivity.
• In shared reading sessions, engage students in critically analysing and applying health education from a range of sources.

In Languages
• Support students in locating and comprehending information about life in other communities, including interpreting data from graphs and tables.
• Teach students how to respond to imaginative texts, developing views about themes, events and values.
• During shared and differentiated reading, develop students’ comprehension strategies when listening to, reading and viewing imaginative texts.
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’ or universal. 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; or a mis-match between the teacher’s pedagogical approach and the student’s learning style, for example.

Teaching implications

Effective teachers take a range of actions to support each student’s engagement:
• build the students’ confidence and self-esteem by providing safe opportunities to demonstrate their achievements and by celebrating effort and success
• build their sense of identity as developing readers rather than as reluctant failing readers
• model your own enthusiasm for reading
• assess the students’ decoding skills and comprehension strategies and provide individual assistance in identified areas of need, preferably with the assistance of a literacy or EAL specialist
• develop a set of manageable, relevant and personally meaningful reading goals for students to work towards, emphasising that persistence, practice and effort will pay off
• provide explicit feedback on progress towards meeting reading goals
• provide tasks that connect with the students’ lives and offer authentic purposes for reading
• model how to use the reading strategies required for a particular task
• ensure that most texts are within the students’ instructional level – though allowing for more challenging texts that have high interest
• spark students’ curiosity about an unfamiliar topic and then provide them with relevant reading material
• build on students’ out-of-school reading as a bridge towards more academic reading
• exploit students’ 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 evolves and changes as the text is read – and the reader also changes and evolves over the course of reading the text. At this point in this text, for example, your knowledge base might have been broadened by an understanding of ‘schemata’.

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 classifying environmental resources in Geography, for example, ask the class to share what they know about different types of resources, which might be renewable or non-renewable, current debates around resources, the use of such resources in their daily lives, and so on. This will reveal not only what they know, but also where there are gaps or any misconceptions. If students’ knowledge of the topic is limited, help to build up their understanding of the
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 they are reading a narrative, for example, it helps if they know that the story might be told using multiple ‘voices’. If they are reading an explanation of the reasons leading to a certain outcome, they might need to be alert to noticing the various factors impacting on the result.

Research has shown that students will read with greater comprehension if they can predict how a text is organised depending on its purpose.

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 about the significant beliefs, values and practices of the ancient Greeks in History, for example, it would obviously make the reading easier if students brought to the text at least an embryonic understanding of ancient Greek culture.

Decoding skills

The word decoding skills of students in Years 7–10 should by now be relatively automatic. However, some will need to consolidate and extend the code-breaking skills learnt in the primary years. (For further detail on decoding skills, see the K–2 Literacy booklet.) 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 more advanced 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 high frequency sight words in the primary years, students in the secondary years should continue to be introduced to increasingly complex high frequency words that they will need to comprehend without consciously decoding using phonics. Students might stumble over words such as ‘throughout’, ‘foreign’, ‘dessert’, ‘bureaucracy’, ‘chronology’, and ‘oesophagus’. Before students can automatically recognise and read such complex words, they need to meet them in a variety of contexts and actively engage with their meanings. This is not to suggest that a program involving high frequency sight words should be put in place for all students. Rather, it is intended to alert teachers to key words in a task that certain students might find difficult to sound out and comprehend.

Fluency: By the secondary 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. 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: And 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 7 and develop individual or group learning programs to address identified weaknesses
- monitor students’ progress in any areas where there is concern
- introduce more advanced decoding skills in the context of shared and differentiated reading e.g. breaking longer words into syllables, uncommon letter patterns, Greek and Latin prefixes
- develop fluency through repeated engagements with the same text in the context of such activities as shared reading, guided reading and independent reading.

Comprehension processes
Reading is a complex thinking, 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 for some graphic organisers to support visualisation).
- **Summarising**: When readers bring together the main meaning of a paragraph or text.
- **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. (See section on Grammar p.89).
- **Connecting written text and images**: Students can profitably make connections between visual elements and the written text, without being over-dependent on images to grasp meaning.

Teaching implications
Even at secondary level, students will benefit from revisiting their use of comprehension strategies, particularly as they encounter longer, more complex texts. Students should be able to explain the strategies they are using. To support students, effective teachers use a range of techniques, such as the following:

- 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 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?

• 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.

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 7–10 need explicit support in learning to connect, analyse, synthesise, interpret, appreciate and evaluate ideas in texts. This involves detailed reading and finding evidence from the text. 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: 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 learners 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 global warming?
  - 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 learners 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 between elements, compounds and mixtures? What are the key words in this maths problem? Can you find the factors that influence emotions from the text? How does the text classify different kinds of rocks?

• 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. Human causes and effects of landscape degradation (ACHGEO51).
The categories could later be used as organisers for writing an explanation text, with the notes used for supporting details.

Such activities reduce the risk of students simply copying chunks of information from the Internet, as they have to manipulate the information and combine it in various ways. It also helps them move their understanding from concrete details, to larger, more abstract categories – a critical skill as students move further into higher order thinking in the upper secondary years.

### Consequences of land degradation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Notes from reading</th>
<th>‘Big ideas’</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contamination of drinking water</td>
<td>Economic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Declining productivity</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Erosion</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Food security</td>
<td>Social</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deposition of soil in streams and rivers</td>
<td>Social</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Families have to move</td>
<td>Social</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grazing land becomes low quality scrub</td>
<td>Environmental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workers lose jobs</td>
<td>Environmental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loss of local flora and fauna</td>
<td>Environmental</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health problems</td>
<td>Environmental</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 cat symbolises in *The Black Cat*? Why does the character say ‘My heart is like a zoo’? Why is Mao Zedong seen both as a great leader and as a ruthless tyrant? What is the significance of National Sorry Day for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities? From whose point of view was this account of the Viking conquests written? What does this population pyramid 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 (‘close reading’):** 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 new insights or interesting bits with an exclamation mark
  - making comments and asking questions about the content (why, how, what?)
  - making connections with other texts.
In the margin of the text, students could be asked to briefly summarise each paragraph.

At first, only introduce a couple of annotation symbols at a time, gradually increasing the range. 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.

The markings on the text are intended to visually demonstrate to students that a text is to be interacted with, not merely consumed.

The text

The nature of the text influences the ways in which readers 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 genres and sub-genres.

Interest level

Some texts have the ability to intrigue, excite, arouse curiosity and capture the imagination. These are the texts that engage us 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, get students to keep a reading log and 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 area/s 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 so they experience more challenging language and ideas.

• 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. Explain that they need to be able to access information from sources such as textbooks that might not seem immediately captivating or relevant.
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 types 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.

• If a complex text is of high interest for the student, it is often the case that the student will be 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.

• The level of complexity of textbooks varies from subject to subject. Generally, textbooks these days are written in a relatively accessible manner; with lots of visual input and simplified text. Once students enter Years 9 and 10, however, the content becomes more challenging and students will continue to need help in comprehending these more academic texts. The reading demands of Years 11 and 12 rise dramatically, so by the end of Year 10, students need to be able to deal with the technicality and abstraction of these senior level texts.

• At the beginning of the year ‘walk the students through’ the main text, so they can see how the various sections and chapters work to represent the key understandings of the subject. Introduce them to the contents page, the index and the glossary. Review the use of any symbols, codes or colours that indicate points for attention.

• Guide the students through any chapter related to the current topic, asking them to identify the functions of various parts of the chapter e.g. an introduction to key concepts, an explanation of the theory, an example or case study, an activity to undertake, a biography of a significant figure, a summary of main points.

• Identify key sections/paragraphs that students will need to understand and do a shared reading activity with the class, where you guide them to participate in making meaning from the text. (See later section on shared reading)

• Help students to interpret images in the text and the relationship between the image and its surrounding text.

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 and can focus on fluency.

• 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 and similar 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 graphic organisers representing different text structures (see Appendix 3) 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. (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 such texts in the same way as we do texts on paper. 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 in reading 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, 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 the 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, 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

• whenever possible, read aloud and expressively to the class or groups of students
• 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
• 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 7–10, 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:

- finding information on various topics e.g. An information report on the characteristics of entrepreneurs and successful businesses (ACHEK019)
- understanding past societies e.g. A period study of the way of life in the Ottoman Empire (social, cultural, economic and political features) and the roles and relationships of different groups in society (ACDSEH009)
- explaining processes e.g. An explanation of how plate tectonics involve global patterns of geological activity and continental movement (ACSSU180)
- explaining causes and effects e.g. An explanation of the factors that influence emotions (ACPPS075)
- explaining how a system works e.g. A system explanation to investigate how digital systems represent text, image and audio data in binary (ACTDIK024)
- comparing and contrasting features e.g. A comparative analysis of text structures and language features of literary texts, making relevant comparisons with other texts (ACELT1772)
- getting to know significant people from various cultures and historical periods through biographies and autobiographies e.g. A biography of a significant individual in ancient Rome’s history such as Julius Caesar or Augustus (ACDSEH131)
- understanding how scientists classify the world e.g. A classification report of different types of energy, including movement (kinetic energy), heat and potential energy (ACSSU155)
- analysing literary texts e.g. Engagement with imaginative texts in Chinese, observing how characters, emotions and attitudes are portrayed (ACLCHC053)
- solving problems e.g. A maths problem involving addition and subtraction of fractions, including those with unrelated denominators (ACMNA153).

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) 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 your key roles as 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

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’ reading and viewing. The practices are organised along a progression ranging from high levels of teacher control with a gradual release of responsibility leading to high levels of student control.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7–10 Reading and viewing</th>
<th>Gradual release of responsibility</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher focused ('I do')</td>
<td>Shared ('we do/I lead')</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Differentiated (shifting to 'you do')</td>
<td>Collaborative ('students do together')</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent ('you do')</td>
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</table>

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.48)

The teacher engages students in reading a 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. The text is carefully chosen as it needs to sustain interest over multiple revisitings. (See p.48)

The teacher works with small groups of students who have similar reading needs. Students take greater responsibility for reading while teacher observes and intervenes as necessary to develop and reinforce skills and strategies. Differentiated reading provides an important context for individual support. (See p.49)

Students read a text or texts collaboratively in groups or pairs. This might involve close reading activities practising skills and strategies introduced previously. Such group work can take place while the teacher is involved with a Differentiated Reading group. (See p.50)

Independent Reading provides time when students read independently, applying and consolidating the reading strategies previously introduced. This might involve reading for personal interest or reading to undertake a curriculum task. (See p.51)

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 skill or strategy as they share a text with scaffolding from the teacher (Shared Reading). The new understandings are then rehearsed in small groups (Differentiated and Collaborative Reading), including opportunities for teacher monitoring and responsive feedback, until the students can apply the new skills and strategies on their own (Independent Reading). Although these teaching practices represent a general progression in learning and independence, they are not necessarily taught in a linear, sequential fashion. Over the course of a unit of work, the teacher will constantly shunt back and forth between these practices.
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, he/she models 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 of the text 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 will happen next?’

‘Maybe the picture can help me.’

- Each session has a planned focus.
- An enlarged text should be clearly visible to all students.
- A selected range of relevant and motivating fiction and non-fiction texts should be used.

• Images should support and enhance meaning where appropriate.
• Sessions should be short and enjoyable.

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, each time revisiting the text from a different perspective. If dealing with a brief text (or part of a text), however, it might only take up part of a lesson.

Shared reading 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:
  - 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 images engaging/useful?
- 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, asking students to predict from cover, title, images, etc.
• Introduce any key vocabulary that is critical to understanding the main thrust of the text.

While reading phase:
• Read the text (or part of the text) first for students’ pleasure or information, modelling effective reading expression.
• Then re-read the text – perhaps over a few days – involving the students through questions about targeted aspects of comprehension, for example:
  - links to students’ experience, to other texts, and to the world;
  - the message: the main idea, important facts;
  - 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, depending on the text type.

Consolidation and expansion phase:
Post-reading practices can include independent re-reading of the text to carry out a task, 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, and making links to other texts.

C. Differentiated reading (shifting to ‘you do’)

Differentiated reading provides opportunities for students to independently apply and practise the reading and viewing strategies introduced in teacher-focused and shared reading sessions. In a small group of students with similar reading needs, the teacher orients the students to a text related to the current curriculum task, reviewing key skills and strategies. 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 support students with the reading demands of the task – providing input where necessary, prompting, asking questions, initiating problem-solving actions, or suggesting alternatives when the reader is in danger of losing the meaning or becoming frustrated.

The groupings are flexible, based on learners’ identified needs at the time. They can include groupings of students who are keen for extension or groupings where the teacher monitors how other students are dealing with the reading demands of the task. While the teacher is working with one group, the rest of the class can be working independently, or in pairs or groups working on various reading activities, including collaborative reading (below).
With differentiation such a focus these days, differentiated reading provides a context for this to occur, providing opportunities for teachers from all subject areas to work more closely with students who would benefit from greater support. It does involve for many teachers, however; a different style of classroom management, a more flexible use of class time, and possibly a re-arrangement of desks.

Differentiated reading also provides a context for English teachers and EAL/Literacy specialists to work with those students in need of intensive support in general reading skills such as comprehension and fluency.

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. At the secondary level, care would need to be taken around student sensitivities.

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.

1. Predicting: students look at the cover and skim headings to predict what the text will be about. Predictions continue to be made as the text is read and are either confirmed or not.

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 opinions)

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.

Sometimes, individual students are assigned the roles of predictor, questioner, clarifier or summariser.
E. Independent reading (‘you do’)

Students should be provided with many, many opportunities to independently read both self-selected and teacher-assigned imaginative and informative texts (including online texts, digital interactive apps, and so on) either as a regular session during the week or whenever students have finished a task and have spare time. Students should also be encouraged to continue reading outside of class. Such sessions might also include activities involving close, critical reading of a text.

Readers workshop
Readers workshop brings together all the practices described previously in a regular 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 texts (factual, fiction representing a range of topics, genres and authors), perhaps with 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.

A sample lesson
The following is an example of a possible reading lesson. It would need to be amended depending on the text, the subject, and the task.

**Preparation**
1. Select a text (or texts) that is not overly complex but which might nevertheless pose some challenges for students e.g. in terms of the content/concepts, the technicality, the abstraction, or the density of the text. (See sections on Grammar and Vocabulary)
2. Set a purpose for reading related to the current learning task.
3. Identify a key part (or parts) of the text that you think might present some difficulty for students. Consider how you might provide support to make these parts of the text more accessible.
4. Preferably make an enlarged version so that there is a common point of reference e.g. on a smartboard.
5. Provide students with a photocopy of the text so that they can annotate it.

**Before reading**
1. Read through the related broader task, ensuring that students understand what the task entails and how the reading relates to the task.
2. Activate/build students’ topic knowledge, making links to previous lessons or to students’ prior knowledge.
3. If the passage is part of a larger text (e.g. a textbook chapter), locate it in its broader context and discuss its purpose (e.g. an explanation of xxx; a particular type of poem; an information report about xxx; a biography; a recount of what happened; a procedure) and how it is organised.
4. Briefly summarise the content of the text so that students know what to expect.
### While reading

1. **Modelled reading**
   
   Read the text aloud to the students, pausing every so often to explain difficult parts or using a ‘think aloud’ strategy to model how you would approach reading such a text e.g. demonstrating how to skim the text to get the main gist; reading on or back when there is confusion.

2. **Shared reading**
   
   Engage the students in reading the text, with you guiding and encouraging participation e.g. ‘What do you think might come next?’; ‘How could we work out the meaning of this word?’; ‘What is this image telling us?’; ‘Is this going to be important for the task?’.

3. **Collaborative reading**
   
   Ask the students to work in groups, pairs or individually to scan the text for information relating to the task and to make notes.

### Alternatively

1. **Collaborative reading**
   
   If dealing with more advanced readers, ask them in pairs:
   - to skim the text for overall meaning
   - highlight any unfamiliar vocabulary that is important to the task and discuss with partner
   - underline the topic sentence of each paragraph
   - briefly summarise each paragraph in the margin
   - make notes about any confusing bits or bits that are significant for the task.

2. **Differentiated reading**
   
   If dealing with less advanced readers, talk them through every sentence of every paragraph of the text, either as a whole class or as a group with similar needs e.g. 
   - simplifying the wording where necessary
   - clarifying misconceptions
   - explaining unfamiliar vocabulary
   - summarising the meaning
   - identifying those bits that are relevant to the current task
   - listening to individual students as they read parts of the text to you and supporting them to make meaning from the text.

### After reading

Ask students to use their understandings of the text/s to carry out the assigned task. This might involve taking notes, synthesising notes from more than one text, organising their notes into a coherent text, a critical analysis of the text, or writing a similar text using a slightly different topic.
Viewing

While most attention is given to comprehending written text, these days images saturate the lives of students: in picture books, 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, however, that students will automatically know how to interpret the more abstract images in academic contexts.

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 in texts, such as sophisticated picture books suited to adolescents and young adults.

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 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 a 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. empathy? fear? admiration?
• How realistic are the character illustrations? (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? (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 style create a mood e.g. curves – warmth, safety; jagged, sharp – excitement, destruction, unease?

• Does the setting change during the story? How? Why?

• How does the setting and mood create suspense and the desire to read on?

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?

• 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?

• How are individual images framed? Does the framing and layout change through the course of the book? What effect does that 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 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?

• 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 images

Students need to be able to interpret the variety of informative images encountered in factual texts – either in print format or online.

• Guide students to interpret visual 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: 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?

The graphic organisers in Appendix 3 can provide students with understandings about the different functions that images fulfil and how the images vary depending on their function e.g. to classify, to describe, to compare, to explain. Organisers 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

• scaffold writing for a text.

Persuasive images

Students can be guided to critically analyse how certain images function to persuade a target audience. These might take such forms as posters, advertisements, photojournalistic works, propaganda pamphlets and brochures. They might be still or moving images.

There are many online resources that deal with the interpretation of persuasive images, including:


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 students’ 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.

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.

Skimming and scanning

Identify whether students are able to effectively skim a number of print and online texts to get the main gist and to decide whether they are relevant to a particular task. Ask students to then scan a selected text for specific details related to the task.
Comprehension strategies
During differentiated reading sessions, observe whether students are using a range of comprehension strategies e.g. inferring from context, reading on, reading back, predicting. Ask them questions about what they do when they come across an unfamiliar word. Check their fluency when reading aloud.

Reading assessment tools
In addition to informal, formative assessment, more formal tools can be used to provide more detailed, systematic information.

Reading comprehension tests
The following are available through ACER:


- **TORCH Tests of Reading Comprehension Third Edition** – used to locate areas of weakness and strength for individual students and to monitor reading achievement over time.

- **Probe 2: Reading Comprehension Assessment** – to be used only by a qualified literacy specialist. [https://shop.acer.edu.au/acer-shop/group/PROBE](https://shop.acer.edu.au/acer-shop/group/PROBE)

Running Records
Running Records, developed by Marie Clay, are one of the most commonly used tools to assess basic reading skills. Such procedures can be used to help identify those students in Year 7 who might be at risk. 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/4-handout-assessment-data-collection-rti-running-record-info.pdf?sfvrsn=2](https://www.louisianabelieves.com/docs/default-source/louisiana-teacher-leaders/4-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 beginning of the repetition.</td>
<td>✔ ✔ ✔ R ✔ Can you see my eyes?</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>✔ ✔ ✔ the/ ✔ Can you see my 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>
Questions for reflection

- Is there an agreed whole school approach to teaching/supporting reading at your school?
- How is this documented and implemented?
- Who is responsible for teaching the reading skills needed for secondary education?
- Would the ‘division of labour’ between English teachers and other subject teachers work in your school? What other models might be appropriate?
- To what extent are all your students reading fluently? How do you know? Are students assessed for reading in Year 7? What provisions are made for those still needing support with basic reading skills?
- How might you use this booklet and other resources to convince subject teachers of the need to continue the teaching of reading in their learning area? How would you familiarise them with what is involved in teaching reading (e.g. the reader, the text, and the context) and effective reading practices e.g. modelled, shared, guided, collaborative and independent reading? Where would you start? What would be most immediately relevant? How would you space the professional learning? Over what period of time? What support would be provided e.g. mentoring, demonstrations, team teaching, peer coaching?
- Is visual literacy taught explicitly? Do teachers in the other subjects teach students to read diagrammatic images such as maps, graphs, and tables?

Useful resources

See Appendix 3.2 Assessment tools for reading

For a detailed list of resources for supporting reading, see Appendix 3: Reading and Viewing
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 in gaps in our knowledge and establish a relationship with our reader.

Students in Years 7–10 are carefully crafting lengthier texts for a wider range of purposes and audiences. They still need explicit support in the successful creation of print, digital and multimodal texts that meet the requirements and expectations of secondary education.

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

- What does writing involve?
  - the writer
  - the text
  - the context
- Scaffolding writing and creating
- Bringing together reading and writing
- Monitoring and assessment.
The following tables highlight how writing and creating are represented in the *Australian Curriculum: English*. Those aspects relating more specifically to literacy texts are in italics. 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).

### Writing and Creating – relevant Content Descriptors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 7</th>
<th>Year 8</th>
<th>Year 9</th>
<th>Year 10</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Creating texts</strong></td>
<td><strong>Creating texts</strong></td>
<td><strong>Creating texts</strong></td>
<td><strong>Creating texts</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Create literary texts that adapt stylistic features encountered in other texts, for example, narrative viewpoint, structure of stanzas, contrast and juxtaposition</td>
<td>Create imaginative, informative and persuasive texts that raise issues, report events and advance opinions, using deliberate language and textual choices, and including digital elements as appropriate</td>
<td>Understand how coherence is created in complex texts through devices like lexical cohesion, ellipsis, grammatical theme and text connectives</td>
<td>Create sustained texts, including texts that combine specific digital or media content, for imaginative, informative, or persuasive purposes that reflect upon challenging and complex issues</td>
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<tr>
<td>Experiment with text structures and language features and their effects in creating literary texts, for example, using rhythm, sound effects, monologue, layout, navigation and colour</td>
<td>Experiment with the ways that language features, image and sound can be adapted in literary texts, for example the effects of stereotypical characters and settings, the playfulness of humour and pun and the use of hyperlink</td>
<td>Create literary texts that draw upon text structures and language features of other texts for particular purposes and effects</td>
<td>Create literary texts with a sustained 'voice', selecting and adapting appropriate text structures, literary devices, language, auditory and visual structures and features for a specific purpose and intended audience</td>
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<tr>
<td>Create literary texts that present a point of view and advance or illustrate arguments, including texts that integrate visual, print and/or audio features</td>
<td>Create literary texts that reflect an emerging sense of personal style and evaluate the effectiveness of these texts</td>
<td>Create imaginative texts that make relevant thematic and intertextual connections with other texts</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*GOOD TEACHING: Literacy 7–10*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Australian Curriculum: English</th>
<th>Writing and Creating – relevant Content Descriptors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Year 7</strong></td>
<td><strong>Year 8</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The writing process</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Plan, draft and publish</td>
<td>Experiment with text</td>
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<tr>
<td>imaginative, informative</td>
<td>structures and language</td>
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<td>and persuasive texts,</td>
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<td>clarify ideas to improve</td>
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<td>effectiveness of students’ own texts</td>
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<td>particular language,</td>
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<td>visual, and audio features</td>
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<td>to convey information</td>
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<td>and ideas</td>
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<td>Edit for meaning by</td>
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<td>removing repetition,</td>
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<td>refining ideas, reordering</td>
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<td>sentences and adding or</td>
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<td>substituting words for impact</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Multimodal and digital texts</strong></td>
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<td>Use a range of software,</td>
<td>Use a range of software, including word</td>
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<td>confidently create, edit</td>
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<td>confidently create, edit</td>
<td>and publish written and</td>
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<tr>
<td>multimodal texts</td>
<td>publish written and multimodal texts</td>
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<td>Consolidate a personal</td>
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<td>handwriting style that</td>
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<td>is legible, fluent and</td>
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<td>automatic and supports</td>
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</table>
### Australian Curriculum: English

#### Writing and Creating – relevant Achievement Standards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 7</th>
<th>Year 8</th>
<th>Year 9</th>
<th>Year 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students create structured and coherent texts for a range of purposes and audiences</td>
<td>Students create texts for different purposes, selecting language to influence audience response</td>
<td>Students create texts that respond to issues, interpreting and integrating ideas from other texts</td>
<td>Students create a wide range of texts to articulate complex ideas and perspectives through the development of cohesive and logical arguments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students understand how the selection of a variety of language features can influence an audience</td>
<td>They explain the effectiveness of language choices they make to influence the audience.</td>
<td>They understand how interpretations can vary by comparing their responses to texts to the responses of others.</td>
<td>They explain different viewpoints, attitudes and perspectives through the development of cohesive and logical arguments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They understand how to draw on personal knowledge, textual analysis and other sources to express or challenge a point of view.</td>
<td>Students understand how the selection of language features can be used for particular purposes and effects.</td>
<td>Students understand how to use a variety of language features to create different levels of meaning.</td>
<td>Students show how the selection of language features can achieve precision and stylistic effect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They create texts showing how language features and images from other texts can be combined for effect.</td>
<td>Through combining ideas, images and language features from other texts, students show how ideas can be expressed in new ways.</td>
<td>In creating texts, students demonstrate how manipulating language features and images can create innovative texts.</td>
<td>They develop their own style by experimenting with language features, stylistic devices, text structures and images.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When creating and editing texts to create specific effects, they take into account intended purposes and the needs and interests of audiences.</td>
<td>When creating and editing texts to create specific effects, they take into account intended purposes and the needs and interests of audiences.</td>
<td>They edit for effect.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Planning

Teachers 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 of English need to provide in order to develop the required, stated learning in the curriculum and to support the development of literacy skills.

Putting it into practice

It is the responsibility of all teachers to develop students’ writing skills. However, as with other literacy skills, it is reasonable for English teachers to take responsibility for the explicit teaching of writing skills at secondary school level, while teachers in other subject areas teach those skills that are specific to particular tasks in their subject, as outlined below:

**English teachers (and other specialists, such as EAL and literacy staff)**

- Conduct an initial assessment of students’ writing skills and strategies on entry to Year 7 to identify any ‘at risk’ students.
- Develop a plan for the intensive support of identified students and monitor their ongoing writing development.
- Explicitly teach all students the kinds of writing and creating skills required to compose the complex, lengthier texts required for secondary education. Such skills might include: paragraphing; attention to reader needs; the ability to form well-structured sentences and to make choices between simple, compound and complex sentences; the use of cohesive resources (see section on Grammar and punctuation).

- In addition to teaching those general writing skills to be taken up in all subject areas, English specialists teach those writing skills that are particular to their subject.

**Teachers from other curriculum areas**

Teachers from subject areas other than English don’t necessarily have the time nor the expertise to teach writing. They do have an important responsibility, however, to consider the writing demands of the tasks they set and to provide students with the scaffolding they need in order to write the kinds of texts that are specific to their particular subject area. Their role includes the need to:

- Reinforce the writing skills that have been taught by the English teacher.
- Identify and scaffold the writing demands of tasks that are set for students, including how to read the task description.
- Understand that the nature of writing varies from subject to subject and from task to task. Writing an investigation report in Technology is very different from writing a play script in Drama, for example.
- Recognise that teaching the language of the discipline is not an ‘add on’. Language and content are inseparable. You cannot teach the content without teaching the language that embodies the content.
- Recognise that writing is a process resulting from the interaction between the reader, the text and the context, and that all three need to be considered when designing tasks.
- Plan for opportunities for students to engage in a variety of scaffolded writing activities.
- Explicitly teach students how to create texts – print, multimodal and digital – in response to curriculum tasks, as in the following examples:

**In History:**

- Teach students how to create texts from a range of sources – taking notes, synthesising the information from the notes, and using citing conventions to acknowledge sources.
- During shared writing sessions, jointly construct texts using a range of communication forms (oral, graphic, written) and digital technologies.
In Geography:
• In collaborative writing sessions, teach students to use an app such as Google Docs to jointly plan an inquiry, using appropriate geographical methodologies and concepts.
• Demonstrate to students how to present ideas in a range of communication forms selected to suit a particular audience and purpose, using geographical terminology and digital technologies as appropriate.

In Civics and Citizenship:
• Jointly construct evidence-based civics and citizenship arguments using subject-specific language, with the students contributing the content and the teacher shaping these ideas into a coherent argument.

In Economics and Business:
• In shared and differentiated writing sessions, support students in how to present reasoned arguments and evidence-based conclusions in a range of appropriate formats using economics and business conventions, language and concepts.

In The Arts:
• In a shared writing session, jointly develop criteria for success to evaluate design ideas, processes and solutions and their sustainability.
• Provide a model text for groups of students to work collaboratively to develop, modify and communicate design ideas by applying design thinking.

In Technologies:
• In shared writing sessions, engage students in jointly constructing a model text as a scaffold to develop a plan to manage projects that create and communicate ideas and information collaboratively online.
• In differentiated writing sessions, support students in developing the literacy skills needed to generate and communicate design ideas, plans and processes for various audiences using appropriate technical terms and technologies including graphical representation techniques.

In Science:
• Develop students’ visual literacy resources to create a range of representations, including graphs, keys and models to represent patterns or relationships in data using digital technologies as appropriate.
• In independent writing sessions, ask students to develop early drafts, undertake revisions, and edit their texts when communicating scientific ideas and information for a particular purpose, using appropriate scientific language.
• Model to students how to summarise data from students’ own investigations and secondary sources.

In Mathematics:
• Model to the class how to identify and investigate issues involving numerical data collected from primary and secondary sources.
• In shared writing, jointly construct a range of data displays including stem-and-leaf plots and dot plots.

In Health and Physical Education:
• In differentiated writing sessions, work with groups of students to develop texts involving planning, implementing and critiquing strategies to enhance the health, safety and wellbeing of their communities.
• With the class, jointly construct the plan for a text outlining, for example, the role physical activity, outdoor recreation and sport play in the lives of Australians.

In Languages:
• With the class, jointly construct or adapt simple narratives that describe experiences and characters from folk tales or popular fiction.
• Walk students through the process of writing (e.g. making notes, drafting, revising, editing, proofreading and publishing) when they are developing texts to convey factual information and ideas through a range of written and multimodal texts, using information from a range of sources.
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 not necessarily a solitary activity. It is a social process involving those with whom the writer interacts: the teacher providing scaffolding; peers sharing ideas and feedback; 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 engage with the writing task is a key to becoming a competent writer. Students in secondary school often see writing as a chore. Motivation is enhanced, however, if students realise that writing is an opportunity to come to grips with a topic and demonstrate their understanding. They therefore need to experience success and to gain satisfaction from the activity of writing.

Putting it into practice

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

- Build up topic knowledge in class through shared, collaborative and independent reading sessions along with hands-on tasks, field trips, online research, class discussions, and so on.
In relation to informative texts, teach research skills such as how to use the library and online resources, how to identify relevant information, how to take notes and how to 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 comparing information from different sources.

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 time line. See Appendix 3 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 how to construct a particular feature of imaginative texts as a focus.

In the 7–10 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 text type.

Putting it into practice

• In planning the task, be very clear with students about the purpose for writing, such as recounting, explaining, arguing, analysing and describing.

• 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.

Students need to have the language resources that allow them to develop the topic, respond to the purpose, interact with the reader, and use the language of mature, increasingly academic prose.

Putting it into practice

• Develop the vocabulary needed for the task. (See section on Vocabulary)

• 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 and punctuation)

• In relation to persuasive and imaginative texts, teach those interpersonal language resources needed for the task.

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.

Students often baulk at drafting and revising, but they need to understand that it is through such processes that the meaning emerges and our understanding of the topic deepens. And, of course, not all writing involves the whole process. There is a place, for example, for quick writes and short answers. The act of writing differs depending on the task, the student’s level of experience, and the purpose and designated length of the text.

Putting it into practice

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

In the secondary years, 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 informational 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 - See section on Grammar and punctuation).

• 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.

Basic skills

By secondary school, 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.

• 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 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 and punctuation)

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

Text structure and organisation

In secondary school, 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 an experiment, the text type will be a **lab report**.
  - 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**.
  - If the purpose is to explain how a system works, then the text type will be a **system explanation**. (See Appendix 4 for further information)

- When modelling the organisation of a text type, 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 time line, a compare-contrast matrix) or questions to guide their writing.

- 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 report vs an exposition.

- Provide the students with a poorly organised text or one that has certain stages missing and ask them to explain how to improve it.

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 to the reader.

Putting it into practice

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

- To make various types of connections between their ideas, introduce students to compound and complex sentences. (See the 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 secondary 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.

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, illustrations, diagrams.

- When composing multimodal digital texts, ask students to choose between a range of relevant images and to 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 students to actually engage with images and their meaning.
• Teach students about how images work to create various meanings. (See Reading and viewing section of this document) 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 specialist webcams to create stop motion movies
  - producing a storyboard and writing a script while creating a digital story
  - using Slowmation techniques to explain a process in science.

**Audience**

In the secondary years, students need to create texts that 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). The following activities draw students’ attention to interpersonal resources that students could employ in their own writing.

**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, an aunt 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 to demonstrate 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 Governor Bligh 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 to demonstrate different levels of authority and how strategies such as providing evidence, citing credible sources, and so on are used.

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

**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 carefully proofreading 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.

• In differentiated writing sessions, work with students on their punctuation while they are engaged in proofreading their texts.
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 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.
• Contribute to a whole school writing culture, where students share texts across grades, writers’ festivals are held, students’ texts are celebrated at assemblies and in the school newsletter, authors from the community are invited to talk with the students about their 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 text type to achieve the goal of the task.
• 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 or little evidence of writing extended texts) 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 and the range of genres covered (informative, persuasive and imaginative).
• Wherever appropriate, 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 in the same genre.

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.

### Writing and creating

Gradual release of responsibility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher-focused ('I do')</th>
<th>Shared writing ('we do/I lead')</th>
<th>Differentiated writing (shifting to 'you do')</th>
<th>Collaborative writing ('we students do')</th>
<th>Independent writing ('you do')</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>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 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.71)</td>
<td>In shared writing sessions ('joint construction') the teacher and students work together to compose 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.71)</td>
<td>Differentiated writing sessions are opportunities to work with small groups of students with similar needs, supporting and extending identified writing skills and strategies with immediate guidance from the teacher. Differentiated writing sessions can be held while other students are engaged in collaborative or independent writing. (See p.72)</td>
<td>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. Alternatively, students can collaboratively produce a written text or digital composition to share with the class. (See p.72)</td>
<td>Students are given regular opportunities to write independently, drawing on the understandings developed in mini-lessons, shared, differentiated and collaborative writing activities. Independent writing can take the form of quick writes, writing for personal expression, or more structured curriculum tasks. (See p.73)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 (Differentiated 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 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.

Mini-lessons can include modelling (or ‘deconstructing’) the text type – its purpose, structure and targeted language features. 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 content:

- 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?
- What are some typical language features?

Contrast the structure of this genre with another familiar genre (e.g. the different stages of a life cycle explanation with a recount or procedure or information report).

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 that have been developed previously through activities to build content knowledge such as shared and independent reading. In this brainstorming stage, the teacher jots these ideas down and shows 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 expanding understanding of the topic. 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.

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Writing and creating
Shared writing often involves emphasis on a specific targeted understanding or strategy, such as attending to vocabulary and grammatical choices, creating cohesion across the text, attending to the reader’s 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 of an excursion, 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, e.g.

- 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?

C. Differentiated writing (shifting to ‘you do’)

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 who 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 sentence structures, for example, this could become the focus for the differentiated 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.

D. Collaborative writing (‘we students do’)

To provide practice in the processes of composing a text, students can be supported by classmates in writing a text together.
Collaboration may take the form of pairs or small groups contributing to a text in response to a problem-solving activity, an investigation 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 differentiated writing sessions.

E. Independent writing (‘you do’)

Independent writing provides an opportunity for students to consolidate their ideas without distraction. It might involve responding to a task or writing for self-expression.

A focus for independent writing can be drawn from the targeted feature/s previously modelled in shared and differentiated writing, (such as attention to reader needs, developing a point of view, creating cohesion, the use of punctuation, sentence structure, or vocabulary choices). 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 respond to a prompt or stimulus. The focus here is on fluency and ‘first draft’ understandings in a context that is not overly onerous or intimidating. Sometimes, quick writes can be more structured, with a series of quick writes contributing to the development of a larger text. Or they might provide the seed for a later, more considered text.

Writers workshop

As with readers workshop, writers workshop brings together a number of the activities described previously. 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

Reading and writing are sometimes taught in separate lessons. Ideally, however, there should be close integration between reading and writing, facilitated by oral interaction, as in the example below:

Teacher guides students to observe features of a model text similar to one that they will be writing later on (e.g. purpose for writing, text structure, relevant language features).

Shared reading

Teacher guides students in jointly constructing a text in the target text type, drawing on understandings developed in shared reading session/s.

Shared writing

Students write a similar text independently.

Independent writing
The diagram below illustrates the movement between reading and writing and the 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 differentiated reading session might become the focus of a differentiated writing session. Collaborative reading might support collaborative writing, independent writing might draw on texts encountered in shared reading, and so on.

### Reading and viewing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher focused ('I do')</th>
<th>Shared ('we do/I lead')</th>
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<th>Collaborative ('students do together')</th>
<th>Independent ('you do')</th>
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</thead>
</table>

### Writing and creating

<table>
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<tr>
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</thead>
</table>
Monitoring and assessment

Monitoring writing development

The following observation checklist, adapted from *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 moderation sessions with colleagues. 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.

Robert: Year 9 Term 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Conventional</th>
<th>Proficient</th>
<th>Accomplished</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Text composition</strong></td>
<td>Selects text type to suit a greater range of purposes (to explain, to argue, to entertain, etc)</td>
<td>Controls an expanding range of text types for school and social purposes</td>
<td>✓ Is able to select an appropriate text type for a particular purpose from a wide repertoire across different curriculum areas and social contexts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></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></td>
<td>Uses paragraphs in longer texts</td>
<td>Varies paragraph structure depending on the text type</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></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></td>
<td>Displays a rudimentary awareness of audience</td>
<td>Is aware of audience needs</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></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></td>
<td>Expands written text with various types of images</td>
<td>Integrates text with carefully chosen images</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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)

For a slightly different checklist, see also the *Writing Analysis Tool* by Mackenzie, Scull and Munsie at [https://doms.csu.edu.au/csu/file/832c364a-855c-4e39-aac51dc9a96fa8cf/1/Writing%20Analysis%20Tool.zip/Writing%20Analysis%20Tool/index.html](https://doms.csu.edu.au/csu/file/832c364a-855c-4e39-aac51dc9a96fa8cf/1/Writing%20Analysis%20Tool.zip/Writing%20Analysis%20Tool/index.html), which includes examples of students’ writing development at various stages.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writing processes</th>
<th>Conventional</th>
<th>Proficient</th>
<th>Accomplished</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sentence structure</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>
<td>Connects ideas using a range of carefully chosen compound and complex sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></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>
<td>Well structured, tightly controlled sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Some evidence of selection of grammatical resources such as verb groups, noun groups and adverbials</td>
<td>Consciously makes careful choices of grammatical resources such as verb groups, tense, noun groups, etc</td>
<td>Exploits the potential offered by grammatical resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Some grammatical errors</td>
<td>Grammar is mostly accurate</td>
<td>Grammar is consistently accurate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punctuation</td>
<td>Regularly uses capital letters and full stops</td>
<td>Consistently uses basic punctuation accurately</td>
<td>Consistently uses a full range of punctuation accurately, including colons, semi-colons, dashes, &amp; brackets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experiments with commas, speech marks and exclamation marks</td>
<td>Experiments with colons, semi-colons, dashes, &amp; brackets</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handwriting</td>
<td>Consistent letter formation using correct grip and body position</td>
<td>Legible, fluent print and cursive with consistent size, shape, slope</td>
<td>Fluent handwriting and word processing skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing processes</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>
<td>Independently critiques and revises own texts in terms of content and organisation</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.

LEARNING INTENTION
To explain the factors leading to an outcome.

SUCCESS CRITERIA
• State the outcome.
• Identify the main reasons for the outcome.
• Organise the reasons into paragraphs.
• Use a topic sentence for each paragraph that introduces a particular reason.
• Conclude with a summary of the reasons.

Questions for reflection
• What systems does your year group/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?
• Has your school/year group conducted an audit of tasks across the different curriculum areas? If so, what did it reveal? If not, would it be a useful activity? Who would be responsible for the audit?
• Is the suggestion of a ‘division of labour’ between English/literacy/EAL specialists and teachers from other subject areas feasible in your school? If not, how are students supported in writing the specialist texts of science, technologies, geography, and so on? If so, how are your colleagues in other subjects supported in identifying the writing demands of their subject area and in developing writing tasks? Are they familiar with the text types of their subject? Are colleagues familiar with literacy teaching practices such as shared writing/joint construction?
• If you were mentoring a colleague, what advice would you give in terms of supporting secondary learners to become confident, successful writers?
• What would you identify in your own teaching of writing as an area in which you might benefit from further extension?

Useful resources
For a detailed list of resources to support writing, see Appendix 4: Writing and Creating
Spelling

Key messages
Although we would like to think that students’ spelling skills will be well-developed on entry to secondary school, this is not always the case. On the one hand, there are students who are seen as ‘poor spellers’, not necessarily because they have a ‘spelling disability’ but because they might have missed out on explicit spelling instruction in primary school. On the other hand, all students in secondary school are encountering new words, many of which pose greater challenges than words at primary level – words that are multisyllabic and often have unusual spelling patterns.

So there is a continuing need for spelling to be taught in secondary contexts. Students should understand that spelling errors make their texts hard to read, irritating the reader. And the reality is that spelling is still used as a gatekeeper, with people (including employers) making judgements about students on the basis of their spelling ability.

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

### Australian Curriculum: English

**Spelling – relevant Content Descriptors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 7</th>
<th>Year 8</th>
<th>Year 9</th>
<th>Year 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Understand how to use spelling rules and word origins, for example Greek and Latin roots, base words, suffixes, prefixes, spelling patterns and generalisations to learn new words and how to spell them</td>
<td>Understand how to apply learned knowledge consistently in order to spell accurately</td>
<td>Understand how spelling is used creatively in texts for particular effects, for example characterisation and humour and to represent accents and styles of speech</td>
<td>Understand how to use knowledge of the spelling system to spell unusual and technical words accurately, for example those based on uncommon Greek and Latin roots</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Australian Curriculum: English

**Spelling – relevant Achievement Standards**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 7</th>
<th>Year 8</th>
<th>Year 9</th>
<th>Year 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students use accurate spelling</td>
<td>Students use accurate spelling</td>
<td>Students use accurate spelling</td>
<td>Students accurately use spelling when creating and editing texts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Planning

Teachers 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 spelling activities describe the sorts of learning opportunities teachers of English need to provide in order to develop the required, stated learning in the curriculum and to support the development of literacy skills.

Putting it into practice

Responsibility for supporting students’ spelling can be shared between the English/EAL/literacy specialists and the teachers of other subject areas, as in the following suggestions:

**English teachers (and other specialists such as EAL and literacy staff)**

- Screen students on entry to Year 7 to identify those students who are struggling with spelling.
- Design a program of intensive support for identified students.
- Monitor identified students’ progress over time.
- Assess the spelling of all students across each grade, preferably designing assessment procedures as a group responsible for the year level.
- Introduce/revise the various spelling strategies to ensure that all students are familiar with them. Find out whether students can identify which strategies they are using (or not).
- Ensure that all students maintain a list of personal spelling errors (and corrections) and that they take action to correct them.

**Teachers from other curriculum areas**

- Develop a whole school policy for how spelling will be dealt with across the curriculum areas so that there is consistency of expectations.
- It might be decided, for example, to simply underline spelling errors (or at least selected spelling errors) in students’ writing. Students are then expected to rectify the error and record it in their personal spelling list so that the English teacher can refer to these lists when assessing spelling and monitoring progress.
- Systematically reinforce student accountability for their own spelling. There is no point correcting errors unless there is evidence that the student is learning from the process.
- Share concerns about particular students with the English/EAL/literacy specialists.
- Every so often, have a school or grade ‘spelling blitz’, where attention to spelling is the focus of all areas of the curriculum e.g. proofreading before submitting an assignment, asking to students to resubmit texts with errors corrected, providing time for them to add words to personal spelling lists, checking personal spelling lists to ensure that ‘old words’ are deleted and ‘new words’ are added.
- Reinforce the notion that good spelling is important and encourage students to have pride in their spelling. Stress that becoming a good speller is a learnable skill. Help students to see spelling as a problem-solving activity using a range of strategies.

**Spelling knowledge and strategies**

Some students in secondary school experience spelling difficulties because they don’t have a repertoire of strategies to draw on, relying heavily on a single approach such as ‘sound it out’. Here we will canvass some key spelling strategies and the knowledge students need in order to apply the strategy.
Sound strategy

*Focusing on the sounds in words (phonological knowledge)*

A common strategy is 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:**

- Some students will still need support in listening attentively to the sounds in a word. If the word is regular in its relationship between sounds and letters, ask the student to say the word slowly, listen carefully, then write the sounds they hear in order e.g. plant >>> /pla:n/.
- English is tricky, however, as one sound can be represented by different letters or combinations of letters. The sound /k/, for example, can be represented by the letters c (cat), k (kit), ck (lick) or even ch (ache) or qu (queue).
- Alternatively, the same letter or letter pattern can be sounded differently e.g. said, plait, train. So students need to know the various ways in which a sound can be represented. This is especially important for EAL students and students who have not been systematically introduced to the multiple sound/letter relationships in English. Such students will need intensive support in this area.
- Secondary students will be encountering many longer words. These can often be problematic as students are faced with a potentially daunting long string of letters. It is easier if they can break such words into syllables to aid spelling e.g. prac / ti / cal. 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 there is not a regular 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. colonel, phlegm, receipt. Words that are spelt by sight include words containing silent letters e.g. know, lamb.

One major source of difficulty is the sound of unstressed vowels in many long words. If you listen to words such as definitely or elephant, you will probably hear the middle vowels (without the stress) as a rather ‘muddy’, indistinct sound (‘uh’). This makes it hard to decide which vowel letter to use to represent the unstressed vowel sound, resulting in spellings such as defenatly, defenetly, and definetly. In such cases, we have to rely on the sight of the word.

Many words from foreign languages also need to be learnt as sight words e.g. pizza, voilà, guerrilla, gourmet, fjord.

**Orthographic knowledge** – the ability to visualise what a word looks like and an awareness of when words don’t ‘look right’ 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 to try writing several possible combinations when spelling unusual words.
- For words with unusual spelling (such as beautiful, Wednesday or yacht) use an activity that requires students to attend carefully to the word, such as the Look, Say, Cover, Write, Check strategy.
- Provide feedback by rewriting the misspelt word but leaving a space for the student to insert any letters that are wrong or missing e.g. w ich [which]. Alternatively, put dots under those parts of the word that are misspelt.
- Draw students’ attention 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.

• Demonstrate that words that appear to look ‘irregular’, in fact usually contain several ‘regular’ letters. In the word dozen, for example, the d, z, e, and n are quite predictable and it is only the o that might not be so predictable. (Vowels and vowel combinations such as ei, au and ea tend to cause more spelling problems than consonants.) Get students to put ticks above those parts of the word that are regular and circle the irregular bit/s.

• Suggest that students develop a mnemonic for problem words e.g. ‘accommodate can accommodate two c’s and two m’s’; ‘my niece is nice’; ‘the principal is my pal’.

• Promote extensive reading so that students regularly encounter many words in their visual forms.

**Meaning strategy**

*Thinking about the meaningful parts of words (morphological knowledge)*

Students need to think about the meaning of a word in its context and how this can give them a clue to its spelling pattern, such as the difference between ‘sore’ and ‘saw’, ‘to’ and ‘too’, and ‘effect’ and ‘affect’.

Students also need to explore generalisations for how the spelling of a word can change when adding a suffix.

**Implications for teaching:**

• Present students with compound words and see whether they can hear/see the two words e.g. keyboard, notebook, doghouse.

• Draw students’ attention to words that sound the same but that are spelt differently and have different meanings (homophones such as ‘whole’ and ‘hole’).

• Teach students how to use apostrophes to indicate possession (e.g. Tom’s hat; the girls’ bags) and to indicate contractions e.g. don’t, should’ve – NB: not should of.

• 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).

• Rather than teaching ‘rules’, guide students to 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 a suffix such as –es (story >> stories).

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

• A 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 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. Learners need to understand that they can often 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 might be able to 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. ‘gue’ in morgue, Prague, plague, rogue, vague, fatigue, monologue, and catalogue.

Implications for teaching:
• During shared or differentiated reading, ask students to identify words that have similar spelling patterns e.g. high, flight, might.
• During differentiated writing, ask students to think if they know of any other word that is written like the word they are attempting to spell.
• Provide students with lists of words that have similar spelling patterns.

Checking strategy

Making use of other resources: live, print and electronic to proofread writing
Learners need to check their spelling 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 who can help you with that word?
  - Remember when we came across that word in our textbook? See if you can find it.
• Teach students to be independent spellers by guiding them to use environmental print, computer spellchecks, dictionaries, word walls created from topic words and high frequency word displays to check their writing.
• Insist that students proofread their texts before submitting them.

When the efficient use of these strategies is modelled, students build a repertoire of spelling strategies, opening 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 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.
• Provide each student with a notebook in which to keep a personal spelling list (and maybe also lists of vocabulary or punctuation points as reminders/personal learning goals).
• 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.
• Ensure students know the meanings of the words they are attempting to spell.
• 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.
• Ask students to articulate the decisions they make in spelling unfamiliar words, with reference to the strategies they have used.
• 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. Arrange for peer proofreading.
• Provide (limited) practice in proofreading activities in preparation for NAPLAN testing.
• Encourage students to make use of environmental resources such as the words in the current task/topic, charts and word walls, electronic tools and peer advice. Teach dictionary skills.
• 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. misspelt words from students’ own writing; high frequency sight words related to current topic; words that illustrate the use of less common vowel and consonant letter combinations and silent letters (e.g. tough, patch, physics, psycho); analogy patterns such as ask, cask, mask, task; and selected generalisations when adding prefixes and suffixes to base words.
Monitoring and assessment

These days a variety of assessment strategies are used to allow students to demonstrate their spelling skills and progress across a range of contexts over a period of time. One of the most effective is making clear the expectation that students will take responsibility for their own spelling – carefully proofreading, systematically keeping a personal spelling list of those words that have been misspelt in writing tasks, identifying the source of the error, demonstrating progress in improving spelling, and so on.

Spelling tests

Research shows that spelling tests are generally ineffective and need to be rethought if:

- they are simply done because ‘that’s how it’s always been’
- they are done only in response to parent or school expectations
- they consume time that could otherwise be spent actually teaching spelling – or reading
- students who do well don’t learn anything new; and those who do poorly just become disheartened.

There is a place for well-designed tests, providing that they meet criteria of relevance and openness and are designed to support improvement. Suggestions include:

- Be sure of your aim and how you (and your students) will use the results.
- Make sure the words are related in some way (topic, spelling pattern or strategy – preferably one that has been recently taught).
- Include words that have arisen from classwork or from student spelling lists.
- Include words from previous tests. Warn students that you will do this but do not tell them in advance which ‘old’ words will be tested.

- Give surprise reviews on words from previous weeks so students know that they can’t afford to forget the ones they have learned.
- Test strategies as well as knowledge.
- During the test present the focus words in sentences. Students write the whole sentence. Alternatively, with a stronger group, say the word and they have to write the word in a sentence they create.
- Ensure students know the meaning of the words that are used in the spelling test.
- Avoid tests which deliberately present students with incorrect spellings. (This is counterproductive; the wrong version might stick better than the real spelling!)
- If possible, differentiate the test, so that it’s easier for struggling students and more challenging for stronger ones. Less confident students could be provided with some letters in the word and asked to complete it.


Screening for spelling problems

On entry to Year 7, it is advisable that students are screened to identify any who might need intensive support in their use of spelling strategies. This might take the form of, for example:

- a one-on-one interview, discussing with the students their perceptions of themselves as spellers, including their attitude towards spelling, the strategies used to tackle an unknown word, their willingness to proofread, their curiosity about words, and so on. (This could be part of a broader interview about students’ literacy skills)
- a dictation test that contains a number of common words from upper primary contexts
- an analysis of students’ writing on a familiar topic.
You will know if a student requires additional support if they demonstrate the following:

**Hearing strategy:**
- sounding out every word
- over-reliance on listening for letter-sound relationships, particularly with high frequency words that should be automatically retrieved from memory
- inability to segment words into individual sounds and to relate sounds to letters
- inability to segment words into syllables and use these as the basis for spelling
- being unaware of the range of letters and letter combinations that typically represent a particular sound e.g. push, station, magician, chef, issue, expansion, sugar.

**Visual strategy:**
- spelling words as they sound rather than as they look e.g. gess for guess
- random guessing at spellings of sight words e.g. advendcerrens for adventurous
- reversing the order of letters e.g. from for form
- misspelling unstressed vowels in some longer words e.g. inderpenderdant
- difficulty retaining sight words
- lack of extensive reading with frequent exposure to sight words
- unwillingness to take risks with writing anything but very familiar words
- inability to automatically retrieve high frequency words.

**Meaning strategy:**
- confusing the spelling of words that sound the same but have different meaning e.g. here and hear
- being unaware that there are some helpful rules that can assist with adding prefixes and suffixes to base words.

**Connecting strategy:**
- inability to perceive similar patterns in words (e.g. light, night, fight, plight) and to use these analogies as one way to tackle an unfamiliar word.

**Checking strategy:**
- careless mistakes
- unwillingness to proofread own writing
- inability to use resources such as dictionaries and online tools.

**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. Data can be collected from teacher-designed tests, commercial assessment instruments, from students’ writing samples, or spelling inventories such as the USI that provide a list of commonly misspelt words graded in order of difficulty (see assessment tools in Appendix 5). Analysis of the data should inform ongoing teaching and monitoring.

Diagnostic assessment can reveal various aspects of a student’s spelling:
- what they are doing well
- willingness to ‘have-a-go’
- strategies used when attempting new or unfamiliar words
- knowledge of segmentation and syllabification
- knowledge of high frequency sight words
- knowledge of word families
- familiarity with spelling generalisations
- proofreading skills.
Diagnostic analysis of student writing sample

Student Writing Sample (Year 8)

What is the topic of my investigation?
How high do several different balls bounce from different drop heights.

What do I predict will happen?
The tennis ball will bounce the highest on the highest drop height.

Why I think it will happen
Because that is when the ball contains the most kinetic energy.

What am I going to do?
Drop one ball from the first drop height. Record bounce height. …
Repeat method for other ball

Which variables are you going to:
Change: (Independent) The balls and the drop heights
Measure: (Dependent)

Results: My results suggest to me that not all balls go up in the same amount.
The reason that the balls lost bounce height every time that they were dropped is that they lose energy every time they bounce because the kinetic energy is transferred into other energies.

Was the outcome different from your prediction?
I predicted that the ball would go up by a similar amount every time that the height was raised.

What difficulties did you experience in doing this investigation?
There were no major difficulties.

ANALYSIS OF STUDENT ERRORS

HEARING STRATEGY: SOUND-LETTER RELATIONSHIPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bouce</td>
<td>Many students don’t hear the /n/ sound, especially when it comes immediately before another consonant. Needs to be guided to articulate each sound in the word.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tenis</td>
<td>Has chosen a plausible option, but should know that the /n/ sound can be represented also by a double ‘n’. This is a common word that should by now be a sight word.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sugest</td>
<td>As above – though needs to know that the /dʒ/ sound can be represented not only by ‘g’ (as in rigid) but by ‘dge’ (as in hedge), ‘j’ (as in just) and ‘gg’ (as in exaggerate and suggest).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conestic</td>
<td>Two attempts at kinetic. The first reveals a possibly rushed attempt at matching the /k/ sound with the more familiar letter ‘c’ rather than the letter ‘k’. The letter ‘o’ has been used to represent the unstressed vowel – an understandable strategy. And an ‘s’ has appeared that doesn’t represent any sound. The second attempt is closer, possibly influenced by seeing the word in the task prompt, but retains a problem with the unstressed vowel (now represented by the letter ‘e’) – needs to use the visual strategy in this case as the hearing one doesn’t work with unstressed vowels that sound like ‘uh’ (schwa).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kinetic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>independant</td>
<td>As above, over-reliance on guessing which vowel letter to use for the unstressed vowel sound at the end. Needs to use visual strategy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dependant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transfured</td>
<td>Possibly using the connecting strategy, making a link to ‘fur’, but more likely just not sure of which vowel letter to use. Also unaware of the meaning strategy of doubling the final consonant when adding a suffix to a stressed syllable.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## ANALYSIS OF STUDENT ERRORS

### HEARING STRATEGY: SOUND-LETTER RELATIONSHIPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sutan</td>
<td>Plausible choice of the letter ‘s’ to represent the /s/ sound, but needs to realise that there are other choices, in this case ‘c’. Choice of the letter ‘u’ might correspond with how this student pronounces the word certain. (?) The choice of the letter ‘a’ for the unstressed final vowel sound is a reasonable guess.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sevral</td>
<td>These examples reveal an over-reliance on the hearing strategy. In each case, the student is quite understandably writing what he/she hears, as the middle vowel letters are typically not sounded. But these are high frequency words that should be part of the student’s sight word repertoire.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diffrent</td>
<td>Both these examples relate to making the wrong choice from words that sound similar to the target word (there, lose) but whose meaning differs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>evry</td>
<td>These examples reveal an unfamiliarity with the need, in these cases, to change the base word when shifting the meaning by adding a suffix.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### MEANING STRATEGY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>their [were]</td>
<td>Both these examples relate to making the wrong choice from words that sound similar to the target word (there, lose) but whose meaning differs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loose [energy]</td>
<td>These examples reveal an unfamiliarity with the need, in these cases, to change the base word when shifting the meaning by adding a suffix.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dropped</td>
<td>Inexplicable departure from hights – inconsistency possibly due to carelessness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>energys</td>
<td>Inexplicable departure from hights – inconsistency possibly due to carelessness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>difficultys</td>
<td>Inexplicable departure from hights – inconsistency possibly due to carelessness.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### CONNECTING STRATEGY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hights</td>
<td>Possible over-use of connecting strategy, making an analogy with high.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### CHECKING STRATEGY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to [other ball]</td>
<td>Probably a typo – could have been picked up with proofreading.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hightts</td>
<td>Inexplicable departure from hights – inconsistency possibly due to carelessness.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Where to from here?

It is evident that this student needs intensive spelling support. In particular:

- There is an over-reliance on the hearing strategy for common words that should be automatic by now. This suggests a lack of exposure to written words and the need for more regular, extensive reading. In using the hearing strategy, the student frequently chooses the wrong letters to represent the sound. Although interviews are time-consuming, it would be beneficial to see whether the student can identify the above errors in sound-letter relationships and suggest other possible choices for each of the misspellings.

- In terms of the meaning strategy, there is the typical confusion of words that sound alike but have different meanings and spellings (e.g., there, their, they’re). A focus on homophones would be useful. Of greater concern, perhaps, is the student’s unfamiliarity with spelling generalisations when adding suffixes. The student could be gradually introduced to the most common rules for adding prefixes and suffixes and provided with practice exercises. A laminated bookmark with the most common rules could be provided for ready reference.


  Example of online exercises: [http://www.spellzone.com/unit09/quest2_p4-5/index.cfm](http://www.spellzone.com/unit09/quest2_p4-5/index.cfm)

- In several cases, the use of the checking strategy could have been helpful. Some of the words (e.g., kinetic) would have been available in the task prompt or textbook.

Questions for reflection

- Does your school have a spelling policy that outlines the responsibilities of different staff members and the accountability of students for continually improving spelling accuracy?

- How do you identify and support the diversity of students’ levels of spelling ability?

- What provision is made for the diagnostic assessment and intensive support of students with significant spelling difficulties?

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

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

- How is the teaching of spelling incorporated into the English program?

- Is there general agreement among English staff members about a consistent approach to teaching and assessing spelling?

- Do you find the idea of spelling strategies a useful way of thinking about spelling?

- Do you use spelling lists in your class? If so, on what basis do you choose the words to include in the list? Are they pertinent to current tasks and kept updated?

Useful resources

See Appendix 5 for useful resources to support spelling
Grammar and punctuation

Key messages
For many teachers grammar is often seen as a bit of a mystery and perhaps somewhat daunting. With modern, meaning-oriented models of language and with much improved ways of teaching about language, however, grammar can be both enjoyable and beneficial. As with other sections of this booklet, there is not the scope to go into great detail about the grammar that underpins the Australian Curriculum: English, so teachers are encouraged to consult publications mentioned in the useful resources (Appendix 6) and to access professional learning opportunities.

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 choices in 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 students to discuss the meanings being made in a text.

In the Australian Curriculum: English:

- grammar is seen as a resource for making meaning
- grammar is a system of choices and these choices are influenced by the context
- grammar provides us with tools to explore how language works, analyse and interpret texts, appreciate and evaluate authors’ language choices, and apply these principles in our own writing
- grammar is investigated in the context of authentic texts.

The Australian Curriculum expects that students will not only use a range of grammatical resources but will be able to recognise them and talk about them.

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 learners may 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 student’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:

- Issues of accuracy
- Groups and words
- Simple sentences
- Compound and complex sentences
- Cohesion
- Figurative language
- Text density.
Links to the curriculum

The following tables highlight how grammar and punctuation are 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**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammar and Punctuation – relevant Content Descriptors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Year 7</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand that the coherence of more complex texts relies on devices that signal text structure and guide readers, for example overviews, initial and concluding paragraphs and topic sentences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand and explain how structures and language features of texts become more complex in informative and persuasive texts and identify underlying structures such as taxonomies, cause and effect, and extended metaphors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyse and explain the ways text structures and language features shape meaning and vary according to audience and purpose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand how modality is achieved through discriminating choices in modal verbs, adverbs, adjectives and nouns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand the use of punctuation to support meaning in complex sentences with prepositional phrases and embedded clauses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Year 8</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand how coherence is created in complex texts through devices like lexical cohesion, ellipsis, grammatical theme and text connectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyse and examine how effective authors control and use a variety of clause structures, including clauses embedded within the structure of a noun group/phrase or clause.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand how cohesion in texts is improved by strengthening the internal structure of paragraphs through the use of examples, quotations and substantiation of claims.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand the effect of nominalisation in the writing of informative and persuasive texts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand how to apply learned knowledge consistently to learn new words including nominalisations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand the use of punctuation conventions, including colons, semicolons, dashes and brackets in formal and informal texts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Year 9</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compare and contrast the use of cohesive devices in texts, focusing on how they serve to signpost ideas, to make connections and to build semantic associations between ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand how certain abstract nouns can be used to summarise preceding or subsequent stretches of text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand how punctuation is used along with layout and font variations in constructing texts for different audiences and purposes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Year 10</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyse and evaluate the effectiveness of a wide range of sentence and clause structures as authors design and craft texts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compare the purposes, text structures and language features of traditional and contemporary texts in different media.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyse how higher order concepts are developed in complex texts through language features including nominalisation, clause combinations, technicality and abstraction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyse and explain how text structures, language features and visual features of texts and the context in which texts are experienced may influence audience response.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review, edit and refine students’ own and others’ texts for control of content, organisation, sentence structure, vocabulary, and/or visual features to achieve particular purposes and effects.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Australian Curriculum: English

#### Grammar and Punctuation – relevant Achievement Standards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 7</th>
<th>Year 8</th>
<th>Year 9</th>
<th>Year 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students understand how the selection of a variety of language features can influence an audience. When creating and editing texts they demonstrate understanding of grammar and use accurate punctuation.</td>
<td>Students understand how the selection of language features can be used for particular purposes and effects. They explain the effectiveness of language choices they make to influence the audience. They demonstrate understanding of grammar and use accurate punctuation.</td>
<td>Students understand how to use a variety of language features to create different levels of meaning. In creating texts, students demonstrate how manipulating language features and images can create innovative texts. They select grammar that contributes to the precision and persuasiveness of texts and use accurate punctuation.</td>
<td>Students demonstrate understanding of grammar. They accurately use punctuation when creating and editing texts.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Planning

Teachers 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 activities describe the sorts of learning opportunities teachers of English need to provide in order to develop the required, stated learning in the curriculum and to support the development of literacy skills.

### Putting it into practice

As with other areas of literacy, it is useful to identify who will take responsibility for teaching and assessing students’ use of and knowledge about grammar and punctuation. Here we will suggest a possible division of labour between members of staff.

#### English teachers (and other specialists, such as EAL and literacy staff)

- Teach rules for accuracy in grammar and punctuation in response to observed student needs.
- Encourage students to see grammar not simply as a set of rules, but as a resource that enriches their own texts and helps them to appreciate the texts of others.
- Provide students with a ‘language for talking about language’ (a metalanguage), including terminology for discussing grammar and punctuation, as well as the figurative language of literary texts.
- Teach students how to make effective choices from an expanding repertoire of resources such as noun groups, verb groups and adverbials.
- Teach students how to create various types of sentences (simple, compound and complex) to express and combine their ideas.
- Teach students how to make their texts flow by using a range of cohesive devices.
- Teach students how to deal with density and the challenging grammatical structures in the academic texts they engage with.
• Teach students how to use language to engage with the reader and with other viewpoints and possibilities.

Teachers from other curriculum areas
• Reinforce the teaching of accuracy in grammar and punctuation that has been introduced by the English/EAL/literacy specialists by alerting students to problems in their subject-area writing.
• If other staff members are familiar with the language features of academic texts, these could be revisited in the context of current tasks e.g. how to ‘unpack’ the dense language of textbooks, how to create succinct, well-structured sentences, how to compose reader-friendly texts, and so on.

Issues of accuracy
Accuracy in the use of grammatical conventions and punctuation makes a text more accessible to the reader.

When people complain about students’ inaccurate grammar, they are mainly referring to punctuation and spelling. There are, in fact, only a few grammatical errors that students typically make. These include:

• Inconsistent tense. While it is common for a text to use a variety of tenses, it can be confusing if the tense jumps around illogically e.g. ‘We went to the museum, but the bus is late and when we arrived the museum wasn’t opened’.

• Subject-verb agreement. If the subject is singular then the verb should be singular. If the subject is plural then the verb should be plural. They was late or there is too many people, for example, would be incorrect, but is more likely to occur in speaking. This is not usually a problem in writing unless the subject of the verb is distanced from the verb e.g:
  - Thoughts of my deceased family makes me sad – where the verb should agree with ‘thoughts’ not ‘family’.
  - It shows us how important the restoration of our old churches are – where the verb should agree with ‘restoration’ (singular) not ‘churches’ (plural).

• Pronoun use. After the verb (or a preposition) the pronoun should take the object form e.g. The teacher gave the points to him and me (not to him and I).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td>Plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Person</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Person</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Person</td>
<td>he, she, it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This is sometimes an issue in speech but less so in written English.

Traditional caveats such as ‘don’t end a sentence with a preposition’ or ‘never use the passive voice’ often reflect a personal prejudice, rather than a ‘grammatical error’.

Typical punctuation errors include:
• Lack of a capital letter to begin a sentence and terminal punctuation to end a sentence.
• ‘Run-on’ sentences, where clauses and sentences are strung together with no punctuation or conjunctions e.g.
  Climate change is sometimes also known as ‘Global Warming’ it is such a critical issue that world leaders have met to try and find a workable solution unfortunately no agreement was reached because everyone had a different point of view.
• ‘Comma splice’, where the writer uses commas between sentences instead of full stops e.g.
  Climate change is a difficult issue, there is no single cause and there will be no single solution, but unless we do something, it is only going to get worse, man must work with nature and learn to cooperate with it.
• The inaccurate use of apostrophes to indicate contractions or possession. There is never-ending confusion, for example, between it’s (a contraction of it is) and its (the possessive as in its tail).
Groups and words

In teaching grammar from a functional perspective, we build 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)

In this way, we can connect with the kinds of meanings that students need to make, rather than simply identifying the grammatical form of single words. Eventually we can get down to the level of the individual word when it is useful to do so.

Some key word groups, which together form a clause, include:

- **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.).
- **Adverbials** representing the circumstances surrounding the activity (when? where? how? why? etc.).

In the following sections we will look at examples of how John Marsden uses these resources to represent what’s going on in some of his stories. We’ll also look at the choices made in poems by Tasmanian students from the Dorothea Mackellar poetry awards.

Putting it into practice

Provide students with a poorly punctuated text such as the following and ask them how they might assist this writer to punctuate the text. They could also focus on spelling and sentence structure.

The battle of Kokoda occurred when Japan was capturing most of Asia, and after Britain surrendered Australia feared that they were going to be invaded next and most of their troops were fighting in other parts of the world so the government put together the 39th platoon, which was a heavily under experience and out maned, and on top of that they were not supplied with jungle warfare clothes and heavily outdate guns. And the next few battles Australia had suffered heavily with casualties while defending native villages while at the same time running still taking heavy casualties.

Australia fought Japan in what they thought was the defence of Australia, which was kind of true, because there is no evidence to support that the Japanese was going to invade but they never said they weren’t going to invade. The first battle of kokoda was when a small team of Aussies soldiers attempted to slow the cross against the kumsi river to defend there, again suffering heavy casualties the 80 men that got away retreated back to kokod to defend there, again suffering heavy casualties they lost kokoda and retreated back to the village of Deniki Where they tried to retake Kikda but failed and then retreated further along the trail to defend at the trail of Isurava.

(Year 10 History below standard).

The Australians fought bravely but after four days it was lost but with the Japanese with more casualties more than the Australians, They retreated further along the trail fighting small battles along the way such as mission ridge and Imita Ridge but the Japanese continued to advance, then a stroke of luck occurred when they ran out of food so there marching stalled, then Australia launched a counter attack and started pushing Japanese back, and by November the second Australia had taken kokoda was back in allied hands.
Verb groups
Verb groups represent our experience of the world: what we do; how we use our senses; what we think; what we say; how we feel; or simply states of being and having e.g.

There’s constant little concentric ripples from insects touching it as they skim across the surface. I wonder where they sleep, and when. I wonder if they close their eyes when they sleep. I wonder what their names are. Busy, anonymous, sleepless insects. … I hope Chris doesn’t mind my being chosen to do this instead of him, because he is a really good writer. … Well there we were, only weeks ago, though I can hardly believe it, lying in front of the television watching some junk and talking about the holidays. Corrie said, ‘We haven’t been down to the river for ages. Let’s do that.’ (John Marsden, Tomorrow, When the War Began, 1993)

Note: they are typically referred to as verb groups even when they contain only one word.

Putting it into practice:
• 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 students 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.
• In poems, ask them to identify how the author has used verb groups (or in some cases, has not used them much or at all). In the following excerpts from a poem about Jackson Pollock by Sophie Clark (at the time from Ogilvie High School), consider how the student uses: ‘the power of the verb to create an action poem that brilliantly parallels the chaotic painting technique of the great American artist and his dissolution. She captures the raw, unstoppable drive that gave him both his talent and his downfall. We see the paint flying off the artist’s stick and onto the canvas as an act of violence.’ (Judges’ comments.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gripping, thrashing, splattering.</th>
<th>His stick cuts and slices.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deceitfully chaotic.</td>
<td>He massacres the colours …</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He tracks the canvas,</td>
<td>Jackson staggers on.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoulders hunched …</td>
<td>Trips along.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hovers above</td>
<td>Whipped raw by yesterday’s heartache.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teasing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taunting.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gravity’s will …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Noun groups
The noun group is one of our main resources for description. It is a cluster of words around a noun and can contain descriptive information before the noun and after the noun, as in these noun groups (in bold) from John Marsden:

I’m down at the creek now, sitting on a fallen tree. Nice tree. Not an old rotten one that’s been eaten by witchetty grubs but a young one with a smooth reddish trunk and the leaves still showing some green. (John Marsden, Tomorrow, When the War Began, 1993)

Putting it into practice:
• 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.

• Discuss with students the use of commas when listing descriptive details in the noun group.

• Explore poems for their use of noun groups. What choices have been made? What is the effect? In this extract from a poem by Mara Davison (at the time from Hobart College), consider how she uses the noun group to build the flamboyant description of the exotic vase compared with the simplicity of her own vase:

Vase
Sotheby’s auction room; gavel poised
One hundred eyes, focussed.

“This vase was born of Mahogany, velvet –
the love child of opulence.
Think cinched waists, burnt red fields
dusky, smoking nights.
In an era of sensations from
a time when skies exploded
it was ballrooms, and battlefields.
Oh screaming, crashing
twirling noise.

This vase was crafted by a master,
painted by an artist;
it’s every curve
is a question and a dare.
Its surface is a riot
of wild flowers;
burning colour; blood red,
deep fire, rose;’

My vase sits atop cheap pine
in a flat,
40 meters square.
From somewhere in China;
mass produced in blue and white;
it still holds flowers.

Adverbials
Adverbials provide details about the circumstances surrounding the process: when? where? how? They can take various grammatical forms such as adverbs and phrases:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>He went</th>
<th>Adverbials</th>
<th>He went</th>
<th>Adverbials</th>
<th>He went</th>
<th>Adverbials</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>wearily</td>
<td>to bed</td>
<td>after</td>
<td>dinner.</td>
<td>where?</td>
<td>adverbial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how?</td>
<td>adverbial</td>
<td>when?</td>
<td>adverbial</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Again, just a few examples from John Marsden:

So: it all began when Corrie and I said we wanted to go bush, go feral for a few days / over the Christmas holidays. It was just one of those stupid things: ‘Oh wouldn’t it be great if...’ We’d camped out quite often, been doing it since we were kids*, taking the motorbikes all loaded with gear and going down to the river, sleeping under the stars, or slinging a bit of canvas between two trees / on cold nights ... Well there we were, only weeks ago, though I can hardly believe it, lying in front of the television watching some junk and talking about the holidays. Corrie said, ‘We haven’t been down to the river / for ages. Let’s do that.’

*This looks like a circumstance, but while it refers to time, grammatically it is a clause, not part of a clause.

Putting it into practice:

• 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? what about?). 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.

• Demonstrate how, when adverbials come at the beginning of a sentence, they need to be followed by a comma e.g. angrily, he stormed towards the door; and in the twilight, she could just see his shadowy outline.
In poems, ask the students to identify any adverbials and discuss why they have been chosen and what their effect is. In this poem by Lily-Joan Rudd (from Elizabeth College at the time), to help students explore how certain adverbials:

- build up a sense of place (see underlined)
- how others guide us through time (see bolded italic)
- and how adverbials of manner help to develop the character (see dashed underline).

**A Suited Man**

A suited man arrived at my door one night,
His face as clouded and pale as dawn,
Though a smile played on his bloodless lips,
His eyes seemed sorrowful and forlorn.

Neither of us said a word at first,
I'd already guessed why he was here,
As he looked at the motionless mass on the floor…

"Would you like tea or coffee?" I asked,
And mirrored his smile despite my fright.
"Coffee," he answered, with a gentle nod,
"Black, with no sugar please,
Nobody's ever offered me drinks before,
They usually cry or make last minute pleas".

Death sat quietly with coffee in hand,
Watching me over its rim,
His eyes followed me so pensively,
But I couldn't bring myself to look at him.

Instead I stared at the corpse on the floor,
That had a scar on its knee,
I'd gotten that mark in my long ago youth,
When I grew too bold and fell from a tree.

I peered up at Death, and he met my eye,
And sat his coffee down,
He stood and grasped my age worn hand,
Then knelt at eye height on the ground.

"Are you ready? It's almost time to go"

"Why even bother to ask?" I murmured,
If I answered no, would you even care?"

"I'm sorry," he whispered with downcast eyes…

For more details about grammar below the clause, see the Good Teaching: Literacy 3–6 booklet or consult some of the publications in the useful resources. See Appendix 6.

**Simple sentences**

Simple sentences are sentences that contain a single independent clause (and have a single main verb). 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'.

Simple sentences can be short:

- The views are fantastic.

... or long:

- Hell is a cauldron of boulders and trees and blackberries and feral dogs and wombats and undergrowth.

**Putting it into practice**

- Guide students to identify simple sentences in the texts they are reading.
- Discuss why the author might have chosen a brief simple sentence as opposed to a more elaborated one.
- Ask students to identify simple sentences in their own writing.
- Get them to consider whether this was a deliberate choice (e.g. for dramatic effect or to keep the text uncluttered) or whether it might have been preferable to combine a couple of simple sentences into a compound or complex sentence.
- Explain that a simple sentence doesn't mean that it is 'easy'. Many simple sentences are long and complicated, but grammatically they are simple as they contain only a single clause.
• If appropriate, get students to colour-code the ‘chunks of meaning’ (as below) in carefully selected simple sentences, e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>You</th>
<th>detour</th>
<th>into the bush.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WHO?</td>
<td>WHAT’S HAPPENING?</td>
<td>WHERE?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>take a look.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO?</td>
<td>WHAT’S HAPPENING?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>watch</td>
<td>for hostile visitors, enemy soldiers, an ambush.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO?</td>
<td>WHAT’S HAPPENING?</td>
<td>WHY?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>approach</td>
<td>from a different direction each time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO?</td>
<td>WHAT’S HAPPENING?</td>
<td>WHERE?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Today</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>don’t go in the main gate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHEN?</td>
<td>WHO?</td>
<td>WHAT’S HAPPENING?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>stop</td>
<td>behind a couple of trees.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO?</td>
<td>WHAT’S HAPPENING?</td>
<td>WHERE?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Then</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>see it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHEN?</td>
<td>WHO?</td>
<td>WHAT’S HAPPENING?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your heart</td>
<td>starts hammering.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHAT?</td>
<td>WHAT’S HAPPENING?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>get back</td>
<td>in the ute.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO?</td>
<td>WHAT’S HAPPENING?</td>
<td>WHERE?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>take off</td>
<td>with a clumsy foot dance involving the clutch and the accelerator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO?</td>
<td>WHAT’S HAPPENING?</td>
<td>HOW?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>come</td>
<td>at the bridge at a bad angle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO?</td>
<td>WHAT’S HAPPENING?</td>
<td>WHERE?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Now</td>
<td>your stomach</td>
<td>is lurching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHEN?</td>
<td>WHAT?</td>
<td>WHAT’S HAPPENING?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>make it</td>
<td>across the bridge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO?</td>
<td>WHAT’S HAPPENING?</td>
<td>WHERE?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>jam on</td>
<td>the brakes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO?</td>
<td>WHAT’S HAPPENING?</td>
<td>WHAT?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>stop</td>
<td>the ute right in front of the house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO?</td>
<td>WHAT’S HAPPENING?</td>
<td>WHAT?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

John Marsden, Circle of Flight
During shared writing, you could provide the sentences (e.g. on the smartboard) and guide the students to ask the questions to identify the meaning chunks. They could then colour code them during collaborative or independent writing time.

• Ask students such questions as:
  - Why do you think John Marsden has chosen to use a series of simple sentences at this point? What is the effect?
  - Does the colour coding help to see the main chunks of meaning?
  - What are some vivid action verbs?
  - Who is the main participant?

Compound and complex sentences

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

Compound sentences

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 (or in some cases by a semicolon or dash).

Look at how John Marsden in Darkness be My Friend creates a sense of immediacy and action by stringing together a series of clauses joined by ‘and’:

Suddenly there are trees exploding a hundred metres from the house and the heat’s like you’ve opened an oven door and sat in front of it and there’s the sound of roaring wind and in among the grey and white smoke you see the wild wicked flames dancing.

NB: conjunctions can also be used to join words or groups of words

We’d arrived in New Zealand burnt and injured and shocked, with broken bones and scars inside and out.

Putting it into practice

• Introduce the word conjunction (and in particular, coordinating conjunction – for compound sentences).
• 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).
• Point out that it is quite common to use coordinating conjunctions to begin a sentence, particularly in spoken-like and literary texts. In John Marsden’s writing, for example, many of the paragraphs begin with and, or, but, or so:

  But the truth is, I felt so sick at the thought of going back that my insides liquefied.
  But my insides didn’t pour out.
  And it was because my life was at stake.
  But it wasn’t like that.
  And then it all started again.
  But I can’t do that.
  So we were used to that.

  … it begins when you’re born. Or before that, when your parents got married. Or before that, when your parents were born. Or when your ancestors colonised the place. Or when humans came squishing out of the mud and slime, dropped off their flippers and fins, and started to walk. But all the same, all that aside, for what’s happened to us there was quite a definite beginning.

• Get students to identify sentences that begin with a coordinating conjunction in a novel and then get them to see whether they can find any in an informative text, such as their science textbook. Ask them to speculate on why different choices have been made.
• Ask students to track the use of ‘but’ in a selected story (e.g. Fox) and to discuss its function in the story e.g. to raise suspense, to introduce something unexpected.
• Engage students in a discussion about the ‘Oxford comma debate’ – whether a comma should be used before a coordinating conjunction. (See, for example, http://ed.ted.com/lessons/grammar-s-great-divide-the-oxford-comma-ted-ed or put ‘Oxford comma’ into Google.)

• Devise hands-on, tactile activities so that students can experience combining clauses in various ways without the need to write or be creative e.g.
  - Identify a number of simple sentences that could potentially be combined in various ways using the more common coordinating conjunctions: and, but, so and or.
  - Print multiple copies in a large font using upper case, cut them up, and place them in an envelope.
  - Provide the conjunctions and appropriate punctuation marks.
  - Ask pairs of students to create a variety of compound sentences from the strips.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IT WAS RAINING</th>
<th>THERE WAS NOTHING TO DO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AND</td>
<td>WE WERE BORED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WE COULD WATCH TV</td>
<td>OR WE COULD GO SOMEWHERE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BUT</td>
<td>WE DIDN’T HAVE MUCH MONEY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SO</td>
<td>WE CAUGHT THE BUS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Complex sentences

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>Homer had been upset too,</th>
<th>although he hadn’t said anything directly to me.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>That was a bad sign,</td>
<td>because we’d always been able to talk so easily.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sometimes, the independent clause/s can be placed at the beginning of the sentence, in which case it needs to be followed by a comma:

- When true fear sweeps in,
  - no defence can keep it out.
- when panic knocks down your walls,
  - dependent clause
  - independent clause

(John Marsden, The Dead of Night)
Here is a list of common subordinating conjunctions and their functions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>SUBORDINATING</strong></th>
<th><strong>CONJUNCTIONS</strong></th>
<th><strong>TIME</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>WHEN?</strong></td>
<td>after, before, when, as</td>
<td>She disappeared <em>when</em> it was her turn to wash up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>Before</em> I decide, I want to talk to Brian.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>HOW LONG?</strong></td>
<td>as long as, since, until, while</td>
<td>I haven’t seen her <em>since</em> she moved to Western Australia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>Until</em> your ankle heals, you will have to stay at home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>HOW OFTEN?</strong></td>
<td>whenever; every time</td>
<td>I feel frustrated <em>whenever</em> I hear her speak.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>Every time</em> he calls, I pretend I’m not at home.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MANNER</strong></td>
<td>by, through, with</td>
<td><em>By</em> working overtime, she managed to finish the project.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MEANS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>I couldn’t lie <em>as</em> he does.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>COMPARISON</strong></td>
<td>as if, like, as though, as</td>
<td>He looked <em>as if</em> he needed a good rest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CAUSE</strong></td>
<td>as, because, since, in case, as a result of</td>
<td>Football cards are banned at our school <em>because</em> they cause arguments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>REASON</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>Since</em> you obviously aren’t interested, let’s leave it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PURPOSE</strong></td>
<td>so that, in order to, so as to, in order that</td>
<td>They went outside <em>in order</em> to see what the noise was.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>We left early <em>so that</em> we could get a parking space.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CONDITION</strong></td>
<td>if, as long as, in case, unless, on condition that</td>
<td>Never sit on a nest of ants <em>unless</em> you are wearing cast-iron pants.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>If</em> she wants to join us, she’ll have to hurry up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CONCESSION</strong></td>
<td>although, even though, even if, while, whereas, despite, much as</td>
<td><em>Even though</em> they weren’t hungry, they ate a full meal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>While</em> recognising his skill, I don’t think he is right for this job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ADDING</strong></td>
<td>besides, as well as</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</td>
<td><em>Instead</em> of attacking them, the wolf led them out of the forest.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Grammar and punctuation*
There is also a category of **compound-complex sentences** — sentences that contain a combination of clauses in both compound and complex relationships:

We’d built a few odds and ends in Hell – the chook shed mainly — but we couldn’t build anything else because it was too dangerous.

There is also a range of other types of subordinate/dependent clauses (e.g. interrupting clauses, non-finite clauses, embedded/relative clauses) which we can’t deal with here but which the Australian Curriculum: English expects secondary students to be aware of.

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**Putting it into practice**

- 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 subordinating ones.
- Get them to think about which conjunctions they might use in:
  - a lab report e.g. because to express a reason
  - a narrative or recount e.g. when to organise the events in time
  - a persuasive text e.g. although to consider an alternative point of view.
- 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.
- Monitor whether students are using some of the less common subordinating conjunctions, particularly those associated with higher order thinking such as: as if; as a result of; in order to; unless; although; whereas; instead of.
- 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).
- Provide capable students with two texts — one which over-relied on simple and compound sentences, and one which exploited complex sentences to make more sophisticated and varied connections between ideas. Ask them to identify the difference between the two texts and to discuss the effect of the writers’ choices.

It is easier if the text is formatted into clauses, as below:

**TEXT A**

They suffered terrible losses
but continued to defend their hard won territory.
This campaign didn’t have an impact on Australia itself
but it did showed New Zealand and Britain how good the Australians were.
The number that died is quite little compared to the deaths in France and Belgium
but from an Australian basis was one of the biggest losses at war
but the Gallipoli campaign definitely played an important part of making some national identity for the Australian soldiers.
All the Australians that were there were heroes in them self for just being there
and having the following characteristics of mateship
and being so courageous on the front line.
So now they have a national holiday in honour of all the Australians who fought in Gallipoli.
The Turkish people were the people who were getting invaded
but every year on Anzac Day the turkey people hold ceremonies in honour of the courageous Anzac’s who invaded their own beach
but still show so much respect for the Anzac people.
Us Australians need to show the Turks some respect.
and all of Australia need to know that no-one won it either
but no one really lost it
but everyone needs to show respect,
and some ways to show the Turks respect could be by having a ceremony for them.

Australian Curriculum History Year 9 work sample below standard.

TEXT B

Although Australians were drawn into World War I, this played a vital role in creating the Australian identity.

Australia was involved in World War I because it was part of the British Empire therefore Australia had no choice except to be involved.

The Prime Minister at the time, Andrew Fisher, pledged full support for Britain as Australia was part of the British Empire. Australia had no legal right to declare war, or even remain neutral when it came to the war, as it was part of the British Empire, but Australia could only decide on the extent to which it participated in the war. …

Even though Australians were excited about the war, after a while their support dwindled. When the war started many historians began to take photos in order to show what conditions they had to face.

When Australians saw the photos they were reluctant to join the Anzac’s as they saw that the conditions were small and muddy.

If you joined the war effort, you could possibly have gotten chosen to fight. Despite the reluctance to join the war, all major political parties, churches and newspapers supported Australia’s entry into the war, though their voice seems to have had few ways of being heard at the time. …

Although the Gallipoli campaign was lost, Australians still value the sacrifice that the Anzac’s made.

Australian Curriculum History Year 9 work sample above standard.

Cohesion

We can go beyond the level of sentences and look at those language resources that operate at the level of the whole text. Writers use various cohesive devices to make their texts flow more smoothly. For some of the more basic cohesive devices (pronoun reference, substitution, and ellipsis), see the Good Teaching Literacy 3–6 booklet. Here we will look at patterns of relationships in texts (lexical cohesion) and text connectives.

i. Repetition

One of the simplest ways of creating relationships in a text is to use repetition. Look at how John Marsden uses repetition to build patterns of cohesive relationships and set up a rhythm in this excerpt from The Third Day, The Frost:

It’s nearly six months since our country was invaded. We’d lived in a war zone since January and now it’s July. So short a time, so long a time. They came swarming across the land, like locusts, like mice, like Patterson’s Curse. We should have been used to plagues in our country but this was the most swift, sudden and successful plague ever. They were too cunning, too fierce, too well-organised. The more I’ve learnt about them, the more I can see that they must have been planning it for years. For instance, the way they used different tactics in different places. They didn’t bother with isolated communities, or the Outback, or scattered farms, except in places like Wirrawee, my home town.

Yes, it was cunning, it was brutal, it was successful.

And the litany of regrets in Burning with Revenge:

If only our country hadn’t been invaded.
If only we could have carried on the way we used to, watching other people’s wars on television.
If only we’d been better prepared, and thought more about this stuff.
If only we hadn’t agreed to come back and continue the fight.
If only we could have all been as lucky as Fi.
If only the chopper had turned up and whisked us back to safety.
Similarly, we find repetition used for rhetorical effect in formal speeches, such as Kevin Rudd’s apology speech:

*For the pain, suffering and hurt of these stolen generations, their descendants and for their families left behind, we say sorry.*

*To the mothers and the fathers, the brothers and the sisters, for the breaking up of families and communities, we say sorry.*

*And for the indignity and degradation thus inflicted on a proud people and a proud culture, we say sorry.*

Here, the refrain of we say sorry provides emphasis, cadence and makes the point memorable. When such parallel repetitions come in threes, they are referred to as ‘the rule of three’ or tricolon.

### ii. Synonyms

Sometimes, however, we like to avoid repetition, so rather than use the same word we use a synonym. 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

### iii. Antonyms

Antonyms can also be used to create relationships in a text. Unlike synonyms, the relationship is now one of difference rather than similarity. In *The Third Day, The Frost*, John Marsden creates cohesion across several paragraphs by contrasting the opposing feelings of fear and boredom:

*Sometimes I think I’d rather be frightened than bored.* At least when you’re frightened you know you’re alive. ….

*I’m an expert on fear now. I think I’ve felt every strong feeling there is: love, hate, jealousy, rage. But fear’s the greatest of them all…..*  

*I’ve got my tricks for holding fear at bay.*

*It helps for mild fear; it’s not so good for panic. When true fear sweeps in, when panic knocks down your walls, no defence can keep it out.*

### iv. Word associations (collocation)

Sometimes we create cohesion by building up a pattern of words that are typically associated with a topic, like a semantic map, as in Marsden’s description of summer storms:

*The summer storms are the wildest. Maybe that’s because they’re so unexpected. But they can really rip a place apart. It’s like the sky saves it all up, then lets it go in one huge blast. The air shakes. There’s nothing soft or gentle about the rain: it pours down, a huge heavy torrent that wets you to the skin in half a minute. The thunder’s so close and loud you feel it all around you, like a landslide or an avalanche. And sometimes there’s hail.*

Before the war, I found summer storms exciting. I enjoyed the noise and the violence and the out-of-control wildness, even though I knew there’d be problems afterwards. Trees blown down or struck by lightning, fresh-shorn sheep getting dangerously cold, creeks flooding.

### v. Event sequences

Cohesion can be created by developing a tight sequence of events, as in this description by Marsden of the progress of an invasion, using the metaphor of a bushfire:

*And then it all started again. It was the end of spring, moving into summer. The bushfire season. And that’s appropriate because the whole thing began a bit like a bushfire. First you hear warnings on the radio, then you hear a rustling in the distance, like bark in a breeze, then there’s white smoke, could be clouds, maybe not, can’t be sure.*
but at last comes the smell, the never-could-be-mistaken smell of burning. And suddenly it’s on you. Suddenly there are trees exploding a hundred metres from the house and the heat’s like you’ve opened an oven door and sat in front of it and there’s the sound of roaring wind and in among the grey and white smoke you see the wild wicked flames dancing.

vi. Other cohesive patterns
There are a number of other text-level patterns that create different kinds of cohesive relationships. Many of these are particularly significant for teachers of other subject areas, for example:

- **Part-whole** relationships e.g. the solar system and its parts; the digestive system and its parts
- **Cause-and-effect** relationships e.g. the reasons for and consequences of World War II
- **Problem-solution** relationships e.g. a design issue in Technologies and how it was solved
- **Class-subclass** relations (e.g. classification of environmental resources in Geography)

Such patterns are foundational to the types of understandings being developed across the curriculum. As they read texts, students need to be able to recognise and interpret these patterns. (This is not always easy to do as sometimes the patterns tend to be obscured in the density of the text.) And, students need to be able to create these patterns in their writing – a skill that takes a good knowledge of the subject-matter and how the content forms up into a coherent text. Students need considerable scaffolding in comprehending and producing such patterns of meaning.

vii. Text connectives
Apart from cohesive patterns of various types in texts, cohesion is also created by the use of words that make links between sentences or between stretches of text. These are referred to by various terms, including text connectives and transition words. Such words can be used to guide the reader through the text, thus making the content more accessible.

Different types of text connectives do different jobs, as can be seen in the tables below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sequencing ideas</th>
<th>Adding information</th>
<th>Condition/concession</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>firstly, first</td>
<td>in addition</td>
<td>in that case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in first place</td>
<td>apart from that</td>
<td>otherwise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>first of all</td>
<td>too</td>
<td>if not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to start with</td>
<td>furthermore</td>
<td>however</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to begin</td>
<td>also</td>
<td>nevertheless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for a start</td>
<td>on top of that</td>
<td>on the contrary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>second, third, fourth</td>
<td>and besides</td>
<td>despite this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>at this point</td>
<td>above all</td>
<td>besides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to get back to the point</td>
<td>along with</td>
<td>on the other hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in short</td>
<td>again</td>
<td>instead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>all in all</td>
<td>as well</td>
<td>still</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>briefly</td>
<td>likewise</td>
<td>even so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to summarise/to sum up</td>
<td>moreover</td>
<td>all the same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finally</td>
<td>similarly</td>
<td>in any case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequencing ideas</td>
<td>Adding information</td>
<td>Condition/concession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a final point</td>
<td>equally</td>
<td>at least</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to conclude</td>
<td>in the same way</td>
<td>though</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in conclusion</td>
<td></td>
<td>despite this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>given the above points</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in light of the above</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clarifying</th>
<th>Showing cause/result</th>
<th>Indicating time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>in other words</td>
<td>therefore</td>
<td>then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I mean</td>
<td>then</td>
<td>next</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to put it another way</td>
<td>consequently</td>
<td>afterwards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for example</td>
<td>as a consequence</td>
<td>at the same time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for instance</td>
<td>as a result</td>
<td>before that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to be more precise</td>
<td>for that reason</td>
<td>in the end</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or rather</td>
<td>accordingly</td>
<td>finally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in particular</td>
<td>because of this</td>
<td>after a while</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in fact</td>
<td>in that case</td>
<td>at this point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as a matter of fact</td>
<td></td>
<td>meanwhile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that is</td>
<td></td>
<td>at this moment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>namely</td>
<td></td>
<td>later</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to illustrate</td>
<td></td>
<td>previously</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>earlier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>until then</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Putting it into practice

- During shared reading sessions, guide students to notice patterns of repetition and to reflect on their function and effect.
- Rather than teaching synonyms and antonyms as lists of paired words, show how authors use these patterns at the level of text to create cohesion. Each time a synonym is used it adds a layer of meaning. The use of antonyms in a literary text often serves to highlight a key theme in the text.
- Demonstrate how authors build up vivid and detailed descriptions by the use of word association patterns, rather than the somewhat impoverished, fleeting descriptions sometimes seen in journalistic writing.
- Get students to demonstrate their understanding of a text by representing the information/ideas in visual form, as in the class-subclass pattern below.

### Transferring information from WRITTEN TEXT to a GRAPHIC ORGANISER
representing the information visually

**Camels** *(Information report – class/subclass pattern)*

Camels are humped, long-necked mammals that live in the dry desert areas. There are two main types of camels. **Old World camels** belong to the family **Camelidae** of the order **Artiodactyla** – cloven hooved animals that include goats, sheep and cows. It is now customary to place Old World camels in the genus **Camelus**, and **New World or South American camels** into genus **Lama** (the llama and guanaco) and genus **Vicugna** (the vicuña and alpaca). Within genus **Camelus**, two species are generally accepted: the **Dromedary** (the one-humped or Arabian camel) and the **Bactrian** camel (the two-humped camel from Asia). The Bactrian is shorter than the Dromedary and has longer, finer wool. **Three main types of Bactrian camels** are also recognised in the former Soviet Union: **Kalmyk, Kazakh** and **Mongolian**.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Order</th>
<th>Family</th>
<th>Genus</th>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Species</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ARTIODACTYLA</strong></td>
<td><strong>CAMELIDAE</strong></td>
<td>CAMELUS (‘Old World’)</td>
<td>DROMEDARIES (Arabian)</td>
<td>Kalmyk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LAMA (‘New World’: S.American)</td>
<td>BACTRIANS (Asian)</td>
<td>Kazakh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>VICUGNA (‘New World’: S.American)</td>
<td>LLAMA</td>
<td>Mongolian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>GUANACO</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ALPACA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>VICUNA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This is an example of an information transfer activity, where students are guided to display their comprehension by representing the information in a different mode e.g.

- from image to oral description
- from image to written text
- from oral description/explanation to image
- from oral description/explanation to written text
- from written text to oral
- from written text to image
- from written text to graphic overview
- from oral to dramatisation.

The nature of the representation will depend on the topic and text type. (See Appendix 3 for examples of other graphic organisers.)

• Share the tables of text connectives above with students and ask which lists they would use:
  - to sequence events in a recount or narrative
  - to sequence their ideas and introduce their points in an argument
  - to provide additional information or other points
  - to elaborate on a point by providing examples and clarifications
  - to justify a claim or predict an outcome
  - to consider alternative points of view.

• Get students to identify the use of effective text connectives and the different functions they are serving, particularly in persuasive texts and arguments e.g.

  Most doctors agree that the key to weight loss is exercise. **However,** not everyone can afford to join a gym. **Similarly,** many people do not have time to play sports. **Nevertheless,** working around the house can burn as many calories as are burned on a treadmill. **For example,** mopping the floor burns 1 12 calories, and gives your shoulders and biceps a real workout! **Don’t,**

  **therefore,** put off exercising because you do not want to pay for a gym membership. **Instead,** pick up a mop! You will get your exercise, and a clean house to go with your new, slim body!

• Delete text connectives from a text and see whether students can fill the blanks with plausible options.

• Demonstrate how text connectives can move around in the sentence to vary the emphasis e.g.
  
  **However,** not everyone can afford to join a gym.

  Not everyone, **however,** can afford to join a gym.

  Not everyone can afford to join a gym. **However**.

• Point out that commas need to be used with text connectives.

**Figurative language**

Students should be encouraged to enjoy, appreciate and experiment with a range of such resources in relation to figurative language. In describing the descent of a helicopter, for example, Marsden uses a striking simile:

  It settled, **like a pregnant cow sinking to the ground,** and the side hatch dropped open straight away.

And again when evoking the sense of fear:

  **At least when you’re frightened you know you’re alive.** Energy pumps through your body so hard that it overflows as sweat. Your heart — your heart that does the pumping — bangs away in your chest **like an old windmill on a stormy night.**

Similes, however, are probably over-represented when we introduce students to figurative language. There is a wealth of other resources that are used not only in literary texts but in the wonderful inventiveness of everyday conversation and even in some of the more serious texts that students encounter in secondary schools.
Text density

One of the things that makes reading difficult for many secondary students, particularly in Years 9, 10 and beyond, is the complexity of texts that they are required to read. This is not due simply to the technical language and the abstract concepts (see the Vocabulary section). It is because the texts are often very dense in words and ideas — packing a lot of information into each sentence.

Take the sentence below, for instance.

Irresponsible human intervention in the natural environment is resulting in increasing degradation of aquatic ecosystems.

This is a single clause (only one verb). Yet it contains ten content words (underlined). That’s a lot to digest! In oral language, we would spread that content over a number of clauses, with an average of only two or three content words per clause, making processing much easier.

1. ‘Certain animals and plants live in the water [5]
2. and they interact with each other [1]
3. and they form communities [2]
4. and these communities also interact with other non-living things [4]
5. and this is called an ecosystem [2]
6. but these ecosystems are being damaged [2]
7. because human beings keep butting in [3]
8. and mucking up the environment.’ [2]

A major factor that increases the density of many academic texts is the lengthy, ‘heavy’ noun groups. In the passage below, the noun groups have been highlighted making it easy to see that they make up most of the text. That’s a lot to process!

Obesity is a term used to describe somebody who is very overweight with a high degree of body fat. Excess weight, especially obesity, is a major risk factor for cardiovascular disease, Type 2 diabetes, some muscularskeletal conditions and some cancers. As the level of excess weight increases, so does the risk of developing these conditions. Australia is one of the fattest nations in the developed world. Childhood obesity in Australia remains a widespread health concern that warrants population-wide prevention programs. Unhealthy weight gain at an early age increases the risk of being overweight in adolescence, with decreased involvement in sport and slowed development of fundamental movement skills. Excess weight in later childhood increases risks of early onset diabetes, and a range of other physical and social problems. One of the biggest contributors to childhood obesity is sugary drinks. Britain is imposing a tax on excessive sugar levels in soft drinks to cut down on spiralling childhood obesity levels. Obesity Prevention is not solely the responsibility of any one group or government department. Obesity Prevention is everyone’s business and everyone’s responsibility.

A further issue is nominalisation. This is a term that crops up several times in the Australian Curriculum as it is a key characteristic of secondary texts. In simple terms, nominalisation involves changing verbs into nouns e.g. humans are intervening irresponsibly becomes irresponsible human intervention. More accurately, however, nominalisation generally involves collapsing a whole clause into a noun group. And these nominalised noun groups then add to the density and abstraction of the text. The following sentence, for example, is a single clause (only one verb – underlined) containing several nominal groups (in bold) which in turn contain nominalisations (bold underlined):

Despite arguments to the contrary, an increasing dependence on fossil fuels would appear to lead to a depletion of the ozone layer and ultimately to a change in climate and the warming of the planet.
We can ‘unpack’ these nominalisations back into more spoken language by putting some verb groups back in and creating more clauses.

Although many might argue differently, humans are depending more and more on fossil fuels, so the ozone layer appears to be depleting and this means that the climate will ultimately change and the planet will become warmer.

So we have now unpacked the single dense clause into six more easily accessible clauses.

While unpacking makes reading easier, students need to be able to ‘pack up’ their ‘speech-like’ texts into more succinct, academic sentences using nominalisation and longer noun groups. This isn’t necessarily ‘better’, but it does provide them with choices when avoiding rambling, spoken-like sentences.

Putting it into practice

• Colour code sentences so that students are able to see any long noun groups as a single chunk of meaning.

• Help students to break down lengthy noun groups by identifying the head noun and then looking at what comes before the head noun and what comes after.

• During modelled and shared reading sessions, demonstrate to students how to unpack any nominalisations back into more spoken language, as if speaking to a younger child.

• During shared writing sessions, show students how to shape their ‘first draft’ ideas into more carefully structured sentences that might involve nominalisation and/or the building up of noun groups to compact information.

Monitoring and assessment

Focused assessment
Rather than try to assess everything in students’ written text, focus on the particular feature that you have been dealing with in class, such as the students’ choice of conjunctions, or use of commas, or employment of text connectives.

Student self-assessment
When editing their texts, ask students to save an early draft and to demonstrate how they have improved their final draft by attending to sentence structure, punctuation, use of nominalisation, and so on.

Knowledge about grammar
Students are expected to be able to discuss the grammatical features of texts they are reading and writing. Devise activities that allow them to demonstrate such knowledge. Use a checklist such as that below to keep track of students’ progress over time.
### Critical analysis

Provide students with a poorly written text (like – My Country - on following page) and ask them to make improvements in relation to such aspects as:

#### Rambling sentences
- Spoken-like sentences with clauses loosely linked with and, but, so:
  
  *If there was drought we could do desalination but that would cost millions of dollars so it would be easier to start recycling now and that would cost less.*

#### Run-on sentences
- Two (or more) independent sentences written as a single sentence – but lacking a full stop or conjunction in between:
  
  *The water we use in showers and baths is fresh and clean we should use this water for gardening.*

#### Comma splice
- Two (or more) independent sentences combined into a single sentence and separated with a comma:
  
  *The entire earth would go into drought, only the ocean would remain.*
Sentence fragments
- Incomplete sentences that consist of an element that is dependent and can’t stand on its own:

  There are many things we can do to make our water better. Such as desalination. Which is taking the salt out of sea water.

Short, choppy sentences
- Short sentences that could be combined in various ways:

  We can do desalination. This is when you take salt out of seawater.

'My Country' Dorothea Mackellar
Dorothea Mackellar wrote a poem that was based on Australian outback. The poem is called ‘My Country’ and was set in 1908 and was published in 1911, this poem was written by Dorothea Mackellar it is a good poem to read. Because Dorothea gives you a good idea of how Australia was like in 1908.

In the poem ‘My Country’ the first stanza is about England, Dorothea describes the England life and how she likes it, she describes England like a green nice place, but her love was otherwise. Dorothea Mackellar’s loves was in Australia, she wrote this poem because she loves Australia and for those who have never been to Australia, Dorothea describes the beauty of Australia using words like ‘I love a sunburnt country’ and ‘a land of sweeping plains’ she describes her view and experiences of Australia and tries to paint a picture in the readers head. Dorothea Mackellar uses a large vocabulary of words to describe Australia, its landscape and what a beautiful Country it is and she expresses her emotions using ‘I love’ she also uses punctuation, e.g. commas and full stops.

Dorothea Mackellar wrote a really good poem about Australia she really put her emotions and view into the poem, this poem is a great poem Dorothea wrote a really good point of view of why her love was in Australia.

(Year 7 English below standard).

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 grammar and how to teach it? What support might you benefit from?
- Have a look at the NAPLAN criteria for narrative and persuasive writing (e.g. http://www.nap.edu.au/verve/_resources/2010_Marking_Guide.pdf) – perhaps with your colleagues. Which aspects do you now understand better? Which ones need further clarification?
- Which aspects of punctuation errors or gaps do an analysis of your students’ writing reveal? How might you act on your findings?
- How might you alert your colleagues from other subject areas to the challenges that many academic texts pose for their students? How might they be helped to support their students’ academic reading and writing?
- 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 possible assessment tools for grammar and punctuation.

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

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](http://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/generalcapabilities/literacy/continuum#layout=columns)

### **Australian Curriculum: English**

#### Vocabulary – relevant Content Descriptors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 7</th>
<th>Year 8</th>
<th>Year 9</th>
<th>Year 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Investigate vocabulary typical of extended and more academic texts and the role of abstract nouns, classification, description and generalisation in building specialised knowledge through language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognise that vocabulary choices contribute to the specificity, abstraction and style of texts</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apply increasing knowledge of vocabulary, text structures and language features to understand the content of texts</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand the influence and impact that the English language has had on other languages or dialects and how influenced in return</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apply an expanding vocabulary to read increasingly complex texts with fluency and comprehension</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify how vocabulary choices contribute to specificity, abstraction and stylistic effectiveness</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand that Standard Australian English is a living language within which the creation and loss of words and the evolution of usage is ongoing</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refine vocabulary choices to discriminate between shades of meaning, with deliberate attention to the effect on audiences</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### **Australian Curriculum: English**

#### Vocabulary – relevant Achievement Standards

| Students use a variety of more specialised vocabulary | Students select vocabulary for effect | Students select vocabulary that contributes to the precision and persuasiveness of texts | Students vocabulary choices for impact |
Planning
Teachers 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 of English need to provide in order to develop the required, stated learning in the curriculum and to support the development of literacy skills.

Putting it into practice
As with other areas of literacy, it is useful to identify who will take responsibility for the teaching of vocabulary.

English teachers (and other specialists, such as EAL and literacy staff)
- Screen students on entry to Year 7.
- Develop a plan to support those in need of intensive vocabulary support and monitor the progress of these identified students.
- Teach the vocabulary skills outlined below.
- Teach Tier 2 vocabulary.
- Teach the vocabulary specific to the subject English.

Teachers from other curriculum areas
- Reinforce the learning of the high utility academic (Tier 2) vocabulary that is relevant to all curriculum areas.
- Teach Tier 3 vocabulary specific to the tasks and topics of the teacher’s subject area.

Vocabulary extension
Vocabulary extension happens throughout the day in all areas of the curriculum as students are actively engaged in tasks. This doesn’t mean that they will automatically ‘pick up’ vocabulary items. As well as immersing students in texts and discussions, teachers need to explicitly teach vocabulary and word-learning strategies 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.

To fully know a word means to know:
- 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).

To come to a confident, deep knowledge of a word is an incremental process over time.
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 learners. 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 words that are high utility words commonly used in school contexts across all areas of the curriculum. Examples of Tier 2 words are reliability, problem, evidence, verify, contrast, nuance, summarise, concept, hypothesise, point of view, primary sources. 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 should be integral to instruction of content. Examples of these words are lithosphere, chemical reaction, stanza, networked digital systems, historiography, biome, productivity, algebraic expressions, and so on.

  - 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. In any particular task or unit of work, relevant Tier 3 words should be taught.
Putting it into practice

One of the most effective ways to extend 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:

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

• 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 explicitly focus on a range of items in context after reading the text.

• Engage students with words by revisiting them in a variety of ways over several days during a unit of work, as in this introduction to the term *artery*:
  - showing a related picture, photo, diagram, or object where possible
  - using gestures and activity where appropriate
  - showing the word and saying it aloud e.g. artery
  - looking for any contextual clues in the surrounding text
  - asking questions to determine whether students understand the word e.g. ‘Give me an example of …’; ‘Can you put that in another way?’
  - creating word associations/collocations e.g. artery, spurt, bright red, blood cells
  - finding word patterns in texts (e.g. whole > parts: circulatory system > heart, arteries, veins, capillaries) and representing these as graphic organisers/semantic maps e.g. flowchart, cause and effect, labelling parts of a diagram, compare/contrast diagrams
  - stating the colour, size and shape e.g. long, muscular tube
  - giving a contrasting word e.g. not a vein, which is smaller
  - finding synonyms, preferably in the context of a text e.g. duct, passage, conduit, freeway, channel, viaduct
  - finding antonyms e.g. healthy vs diseased, sickly, infirm
  - finding a metaphor or simile e.g. a main road is like an artery
  - putting a word’s meaning into a category (e.g. an artery is a type of blood vessel) by using sorting activities
  - naming the function, use or purpose e.g. to carry blood from the heart to other parts of the body
  - seeing whether prefixes, suffixes or word origins can assist in understanding the meaning e.g. Greek: *arteria* meaning ‘wind pipe’ – they were regarded by the ancients as air ducts because the arteries do not contain blood after death
  - identifying where words are defined in a text e.g. when the word is in bold
  - using the glossary in information texts
  - 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 huffled and puffled and fluffled)
- 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), words related to higher order thinking skills such as cause-and-effect, arguing, evaluating).

See Pinterest for original: https://www.pinterest.com/pin/58969076346053922/
Vocabulary skills

In addition to extending students’ meaning-making potential as readers and writers, teachers can introduce them to skills to unlock the meaning of vocabulary items.

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:

- un
- success
- ful

The word *unsuccessfully* consists of four morphemes:

- un
- success
- ful
- ly

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. Prefixes can be added to a word to create a different vocabulary item e.g. beauty (noun) > beautiful (adjective). Note, as in ‘beauty’ and ‘beautiful’, that the addition of prefixes and suffixes often changes the spelling of the original word.

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

See Appendix 7 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 historically 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, derm, 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
Sanadl: 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 that students in Years 7–10 continue 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 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.

While this is not recommended as an effective way to assess vocabulary development in context, limited practice could be given in preparation for such tests.

Assessing general word knowledge

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 definition.
- Read the word and circle a synonym.
- Read the word and circle an antonym.
- Read a sentence and write the missing word.
- Read the word and put it in a category.
- Find the word in a category in 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, both in whole class and small group discussion, or in a written format 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 monitor students’ vocabulary development in relation to topic-specific words than general words. The former should typically be the focus of formative assessment.

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.

While this is not recommended as an effective way to assess vocabulary development in context, limited practice could be given in preparation for such tests.
**Word lists**
There are several lists of vocabulary items online that secondary students should know. These are sometimes used to test students’ word knowledge. Beware, however, that such lists vary in quality.

- Some, for example, simply supply a list of random words with no explanation of the basis on which they were selected e.g. [http://www.majortests.com/word-lists/](http://www.majortests.com/word-lists/).

- Others might be organised around curriculum topics (e.g. science topic words at [http://www.spellingcity.com/high-school-science-vocabulary.html](http://www.spellingcity.com/high-school-science-vocabulary.html)). Such lists are more logically organised, but it would still be better to devise a list from the activities/textbooks directly related to the current topic being studied in class.

- Some lists online provide examples of Tier 2 words – potentially useful, though in some cases just organised alphabetically (e.g. The Academic Word List by Coxhead) or into incoherent groups with no rationale for the grouping (e.g. [http://www.msfta.org/cms/lib6/FL02001163/Centricity/Domain/122/tier-2-vocab-lists.pdf](http://www.msfta.org/cms/lib6/FL02001163/Centricity/Domain/122/tier-2-vocab-lists.pdf)). Such lists lead to learning decontextualised words by heart and being tested on definitions.

- A preferable approach would be to group words according to the kind of higher order thinking they enable e.g. arguing: thesis, point of view, rebuttal, etc.; causality: factor, consequence, cause, effect, result, reason, etc.

**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 be asked to 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 graphic organiser 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 related 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>I’ve never seen this word before.</td>
<td>I’ve seen this word but I don’t know what it means.</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>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>autobiography</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></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 identify 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**

<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 that 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

- Do you find the notion of vocabulary tiers (Tier 1, 2 and 3) a useful way of organising words? What others ways do you use to categorise words?
- How do you know whether your students’ vocabulary is becoming more extensive?
- What do you see as your most successful strategy for teaching/ extending 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?

Useful resources

See Appendix 7.6 for suggestions of 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/


First Steps Writing Map of Development, Department of Education WA. https://www.google.com/search?q=First+Steps+Writing+Map+of+Development%2C+Department+of+Educat+ion+WA+%26ie=utf-8&oe=utf-8

Extract from The Third Day, The Frost by John Marsden reprinted by permission of Pan Macmillan Australia Pty Ltd. Copyright © JLM Pty Ltd 1995.

Extract from Burning for Revenge by John Marsden reprinted by permission of Pan Macmillan Australia Pty Ltd. Copyright © Jomden Pty Ltd 1997.

Extract from Darkness, Be My Friend by John Marsden reprinted by permission of Pan Macmillan Australia Pty Ltd. Copyright © Jomden Pty Ltd 1996.

Extract from The Dead of the Night by John Marsden reprinted by permission of Pan Macmillan Australia Pty Ltd. Copyright © JLM Pty Ltd 1994.

Extract from Circle of Flight by John Marsden reprinted by permission of Pan Macmillan Australia Pty Ltd. Copyright © Jomden Pty Ltd 2006.


REFERENCES AND FURTHER READING

Extract from The Third Day, The Frost by John Marsden reprinted by permission of Pan Macmillan Australia Pty Ltd. Copyright © JLM Pty Ltd 1995.

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APPENDIX I: 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

Department of Education Improvement Plan – Improving student achievement through a whole-school approach

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

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


Taking the Lead on Adolescent Literacy: Action Steps for Schoolwide Success, Judith Irvin, Julie Meltzer, Nancy Dean, and Martha Jan Mickler, International Literacy Association, 2009

This rich resource walks middle and high school literacy leaders through a comprehensive process for conceptualising, initiating, and, most important, sustaining a schoolwide literacy learning program.

Student motivation and engagement

Literacy across the content areas

Literacy interventions

Literacy-rich environment, policies, and culture

Parent and community involvement


This resource makes a compelling case that all teachers—across the content areas—have a role to play in students’ development of literacy, which they define as reading, writing, speaking, listening, and viewing.

1.3 Teaching practices

Make Their Heads Spin!
WA Department of Education

Make Their Heads Spin! highlights key issues related to the specific context of literacy in the middle years of schooling. This practical, free online resource provides a point of reference for schools considering positive action for change, as they strive to cater for the special needs of adolescent students.


Success for All
WA Department of Education

Another free resource from the Department of Education, WA. Selecting appropriate learning strategies highlights the fact that literacy underpins all school learning. This text is intended as a practical resource that will provide a point of reference for teachers striving to cater for the learning needs of adolescent students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>URL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VET Steps: Supporting Workplace Literacies</td>
<td>This resource offers practical approaches, processes and strategies that teachers and trainers need in order to support students in preparing to demonstrate the communication skills demanded by the world of work and also in accessing vocational education and training.</td>
<td><a href="http://det.wa.edu.au/stepsresources/detcms/navigation/vetsteps/">http://det.wa.edu.au/stepsresources/detcms/navigation/vetsteps/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TCH: The Teaching Channel</td>
<td>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.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Australian Curriculum: English</td>
<td>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.</td>
<td><a href="http://www.teachingacenglish.edu.au/">www.teachingacenglish.edu.au/</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.4 Literacy resources and units of work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>English for the Australian Curriculum</strong></td>
<td>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. <a href="http://e4ac.edu.au/">http://e4ac.edu.au/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scootle</strong></td>
<td>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 <em>Australian Curriculum</em>. <strong>Logging in:</strong> Teachers in Tasmanian government schools log in using their DoE username and password.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TES Education Australia</strong></td>
<td>Access to hundreds of literacy resources for ages 3-7 relating to The Early Years Learning Framework and the <em>Australian Curriculum: English</em>: <a href="http://www.tesaustralia.com/">www.tesaustralia.com/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teachertube</strong></td>
<td>A collection of videos, audios, photos, blogs and documents for teachers, parents and students. <a href="http://www.teachertube.com">www.teachertube.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ABC Teach</strong></td>
<td>A US site, but with useful literacy material for Australian classrooms. <a href="http://www.abcteach.com">www.abcteach.com</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.5 Students needing additional support

**Teaching English Language Learners in Mainstream Classes**, Margery Herzberg, PETAA 2011

Classrooms of possibility: supporting at-risk EAL students, Jennifer Hammond and Jenny Miller (Eds.) PETAA 2015

This book aims to 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 them 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.

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 and offers support and ideas for the classroom and home as well as testimonials from learners with dyslexia.

http://dyslexia.yale.edu/index.html

1.6 New literacies

Thinking Through New Literacies for Primary and Early Years, Eileen Honan, PETAA 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.

APPENDIX 2: SPEAKING AND LISTENING

2.1 Assessment tools for oral language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment tools: monitoring and screening general oral language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>English Developmental Continuum F-10: Speaking and Listening</strong> (Department of Education and Training, Victoria)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Communicating orally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Purposes of communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Conventions of language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ideas communicated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Steps: Speaking and Listening, Map of Development</th>
<th>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.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<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>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Receptive and Expressive language checklists</th>
<th>Useful checklists for identifying students experiencing problems in speaking and listening.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

2.2 Useful resources to support speaking and listening

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General speaking and listening resources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Steps: Speaking and Listening Resource Book</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<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>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classroom Talk: Understanding dialogue, pedagogy and practice, Christine Edwards-Groves, Michele Anstey, Geoff Bull, PETAA 2013</th>
<th>This book describes the importance of classroom talk and how talk binds learning together. It shows how the role of dialogic pedagogies enables ‘on task’ teaching and learning.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Title</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PETAA Paper196: Critical</td>
<td>This paper focuses on joint construction and its role in assisting students in the shift from spoken to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction, Joanne Rossbridge</td>
<td>engage in critical conversation around texts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp; Kathy Rushton, 2014</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PETAA Paper195: Talk Moves,</td>
<td>A repertoire of practices for productive classroom dialogue. Talk moves prompt particular responses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christine Edwards-Groves, 2014</td>
<td>from students; they also signal the function of the turn of talk (e.g. to evaluate a response such as:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘Good answer’; to nominate the next speaker; ‘Jacob, your turn’; to evoke an extended response,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral presentations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tips on Giving Oral Presentations by Mr Brewer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral interaction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AITSL website</td>
<td>On the AITSL website you will find videos illustrating effective oral interaction.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHARACTERISTICS</th>
<th>ITEMS BEING CONTRASTED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SOLOMON ISLANDS</td>
<td>1000 islands, Volcanoes, Tropical beaches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEW ZEALAND</td>
<td>2 main islands, Snowfields, Thermal springs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AUSTRALIA</td>
<td>1 main island, Desert, Rainforest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAJOR NATURAL FEATURES</td>
<td>Earthquakes Volcanoes Tsunamis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATURAL DISASTERS</td>
<td>Earthquakes Volcanoes Drought Floods Cyclones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LANGUAGES</td>
<td>67 different languages Mainly English and Maori English, Migrant and Aboriginal languages</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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)

INTRODUCTION TO PERSON
(eg. name, role, era, qualities, prominence)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KEY EPISODES</th>
<th>CONTRIBUTIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SIGNIFICANCE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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
### 3.2 Assessment tools for reading

#### General observations and checklists of progress

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment Tool</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Steps Reading Map of Development</strong></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>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Steps Viewing Map of Development</strong></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>

#### Comprehension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment Tool</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Running Records</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tests of Reading Comprehension (TORCH)</strong> (Mossenson, Hill, Masters, 1987)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Progressive Achievement Tests in Reading</strong></td>
<td><a href="http://www.acer.edu.au/pat-reading">http://www.acer.edu.au/pat-reading</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Probes 2 Reading Comprehension Test</strong></td>
<td><a href="http://comprehenz.com/probe-2-reading-comprehension-assessment">http://comprehenz.com/probe-2-reading-comprehension-assessment</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Students needing additional support</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>From Assessment to Programming</strong></td>
<td><a href="http://www.schools.nsw.edu.au/media/downloads/schoolsweb/studentsupport/programs/disabilitypgrms/assessprog.pdf">http://www.schools.nsw.edu.au/media/downloads/schoolsweb/studentsupport/programs/disabilitypgrms/assessprog.pdf</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wheldall Assessment of Reading Passages (WARP)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.3 Useful resources to support reading

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General reading resources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>My Read</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A very useful resource for supporting readers in Years 4-9 produced by the AATE and ALEA, based on the beliefs that:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• All students can be successful readers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• All teachers are teachers of reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teachers make a difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Monitoring and assessment inform teaching and learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Teachers need a repertoire of flexible practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><a href="http://www.myread.org/">http://www.myread.org/</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **First Steps Reading Resource Book** |
| The Reading Resource Book is designed to help teachers focus on the explicit teaching of reading processes, strategies and conventions; and the contextual aspects associated with comprehending different types of texts. Now available free online. |

| **First Steps Viewing Resource Book** |
| 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: |

| **The AITSL website has several videos exemplifying high quality literacy instruction.** |

| **The Big 6 of Reading, Anne Bayetto (For the Australian Primary Principals Association)** |
| A series of articles on each of the Big 6 of Reading (Oral Language, Phonological Awareness, Letter-Sound Relationships (phonics), Vocabulary, Fluency and Comprehension). Available for download at: |

| **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. |
Pre-, during, and post-reading activities:
Queensland Studies Authority


With numerous exciting and engaging classroom-tested strategies, and an expanded focus on educating the whole child, along with 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.

Reading Rockets

Reading activities, blogs and current research into reading.

Developing Readers in the Academic Disciplines, Doug Buehl, International Literacy Association, 2011

• Numerous examples from science, mathematics, history and social studies, English/language arts, music, and more
• Instructional tools that help translate generic literacy practices into discipline-specific variations

The Path to Get There: A Road Map for Higher Student Achievement Across the Disciplines, Douglas Fisher; Nancy Frey, and Cristina Alfaro, International Literacy Association, 2013

Examples of lessons in history/social studies, science, and technical subjects are explained in detail. Offers strategies for assessing student performance, demonstrating how to use oral language, questions, writing, projects, and tests to check for understanding. Discusses ways to organise assessment information so that patterns of performance can be identified to improve re-teaching efforts.

Comprehension

Teaching Comprehension Strategies: NSW Department of Education and Training


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

Presenting 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.

Revisit, Reflect, Retell: Time tested strategies for teaching reading comprehension.
Hoyt, L. (2008)

A practical resource for teaching comprehension, including assessment tools and strategies for using in the classroom. Hoyt believes that thoughtful reflection and retelling are the keys to making meaning.

This handbook offers 77 simple yet effective strategies to help students develop, refine, and strengthen key comprehension skills they can apply across subject areas.

Just the Facts! Close Reading and Comprehension of Informational Text, Lori Oczkus, International Literacy Association, 2014

Scaffolded, research-backed lessons for learners at all levels will encourage student-centred learning and deeper engagement. Questions for reflection, helpful tips and suggestions, and practical ideas.

Teaching activities

Using Guided Reading to Develop Student Reading Independence


Teacher read-aloud/modelled reading

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

YouTube videos providing examples of Guided Reading

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=r-cFWeTMZIs
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NBy6Bgo7lvg
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GdGZON3rigY
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3AHxqggc-yl

An interview with a teacher about how to use Guided Reading

http://www.haven.k12.pa.us/title1/guidedreading.html

Readers workshop resources

Videos, apps and lesson suggestions relating to readers workshop.
http://www.readersworkshop.org/

Close Reading and Writing From Sources, Douglas Fisher & Nancy Frey, International Literacy Association, 2014

Fisher and Frey present a model for teaching middle and high school students some of the most crucial skills, often neglected, in today’s schools: reading texts closely; taking good notes; analysing and synthesising information from multiple sources; then writing clearly and effectively.
## Literature

<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>
</table>
| **Reading Australia: Secondary** | A rich collection of detailed teacher resources jointly commissioned by the Australian Association for the Teaching of English and the English Teachers Association (NSW) for introducing students to quality Australian literature.  

## Lists of quality literature

| **Teachers’ Choice Reading List** | 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.  
http://www.reading.org/Resources/Booklists/TeachersChoices.aspx |
| **Reading level descriptors** *(NSW AGTC)* | Descriptions of the attributes of texts appropriate for different age groups.  
## Students needing extra support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fountas and Pinnell Leveled Literacy Intervention (LLI)</strong></td>
<td>A series of levelled readers for students reading below their expected year level from Foundation through to Year 12.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TES Education Australia:</strong> Supporting EAL readers&lt;br&gt;Supporting struggling readers&lt;br&gt;Supporting reluctant readers</td>
<td><a href="http://www.tesaustralia.com/">http://www.tesaustralia.com/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Word Attack Skills Extension Program</strong>&lt;br&gt;Macquarie University</td>
<td>The Word Attack Skills Extension Program is particularly suited to students who have finished the Reading Tutor Program but still need help, as well as older students who have learnt basic decoding skills but are finding it hard to improve their reading to a level where they can access the more academic demands of the curriculum, or who are finding reading laborious, lack fluency and have become de-motivated. <a href="http://www.multilit.com/programs/word-attack-skills-extension-program/">http://www.multilit.com/programs/word-attack-skills-extension-program/</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Viewing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Multiliteracies and Diversity in Education: new pedagogies for expanding landscapes.</strong>&lt;br&gt;Oxford University Press. Ed. Annah Healy</td>
<td>A collection of scholarly articles 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>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Picture Books and Beyond,</strong>&lt;br&gt;Kerry Mallan (editor), PETAA 2014</td>
<td><em>Picture Books and Beyond</em> 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. <a href="http://www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/ItemDetail?iProductCode=PET106&amp;Category=BOOK&amp;WebsiteKey=23011635-8260-4fec-aa27-927df5d6e68">http://www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/ItemDetail?iProductCode=PET106&amp;Category=BOOK&amp;WebsiteKey=23011635-8260-4fec-aa27-927df5d6e68</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Shape of Text to Come: How image and text work,</strong>&lt;br&gt;Jon Callow, PETAA 2013</td>
<td>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. It will have broad appeal across many key learning areas and has links with the <em>Australian Curriculum</em>. <a href="http://www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/w/Store/Item_Detail.aspx?iProductCode=PET100&amp;Category=BOOK">http://www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/w/Store/Item_Detail.aspx?iProductCode=PET100&amp;Category=BOOK</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Steps Viewing Resource Book</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>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual literacy pack</td>
<td>Several picture books are analysed for various visual features</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></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>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 class is all writing for the same purpose, this is the point at which it is useful to model the features of the text type and how it is organised and to engage the students in a joint construction of a similar text. Students might also need to learn how to locate relevant material, how to navigate the Internet and find appropriate sites, how to take notes and synthesise them, and so on.

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 wordprocessing, 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.
Writing purposes

In secondary school, students need to write for a wide range of purposes. These purposes arise from the learning and assessment tasks across the curriculum.

The purposes for writing result in different genres (or text types). The kinds of genres that students need to be able to write in Years 7–10 can be summarised in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genre</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imaginative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stories</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>Resolving a complication in a story</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literary recount</td>
<td>Recounting a series of events using literary language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anecdote</td>
<td>Sharing an emotional, amusing incident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drama scripts</td>
<td>Stories for performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal art</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poetry</td>
<td>Carefully crafted language for multiple purposes in multiple forms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responding</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal response</td>
<td>Reacting emotionally to a text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review</td>
<td>Providing a summary, analysis and evaluation of the literary or visual text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation</td>
<td>Interpreting the message of the text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical analysis</td>
<td>Challenging the meaning of the text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Assessing the significance or worth of a text, artefact, idea or proposal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arguments</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exposition</td>
<td>Arguing for a point of view</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>Discussing two or more points of view</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factual stories</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autobiographical recount</td>
<td>Recounting one’s own life stages, including empathetic recounts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biographical recount</td>
<td>Recounting life events, often with an evaluation of the person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical recount</td>
<td>Recounting historical events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical account</td>
<td>Recounting and explaining historical events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequential explanation</td>
<td>Explaining why something happens or how something works in a linear or cyclical sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causal explanation</td>
<td>Explaining how something works or why something happens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System explanation</td>
<td>Explaining the components of a system, their functions and how they work together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factorial explanation</td>
<td>Explaining the factors that lead to a particular outcome</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix

146 GOOD TEACHING: Literacy 7–10
Academic genres in the Australian Curriculum are categorised as imaginative, persuasive and informative, as in the table above.

The following table provides examples of various purposes for writing (and therefore different genres) from the subject outlines in the Australian Curriculum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genre</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stories</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>In Languages, read, view, and create imaginative texts that make connections with characters, events, settings and messages;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literary recount</td>
<td>in English, recognise and analyse the ways that characterisation, events and settings are combined in narratives;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anecdote</td>
<td>in Drama, shape drama for audiences using narrative and non-narrative dramatic forms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drama scripts</td>
<td>In Drama, incorporate language and ideas and use devices such as dramatic symbol to create dramatic action and extend mood and atmosphere in performance; combine the elements of drama in devised and scripted drama to explore and develop issues, ideas and themes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal art</td>
<td>In English, understand, interpret and discuss how language is compressed to produce a dramatic effect in film or drama, and to create layers of meaning in poetry; discuss aesthetic and social value of literary texts, using relevant and appropriate metalanguage; evaluate how ‘voice’ as a literary device can be used in a range of different types of texts such as poetry to evoke particular emotional responses; create literary texts with a sustained ‘voice’, selecting and adapting appropriate text structures, literary devices, and language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genre</td>
<td>Examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responding</td>
<td><strong>Personal response</strong>&lt;br&gt;In Languages, respond to imaginative texts, making connections with own experience where appropriate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Review</strong>                                                                                                                                  In English, share opinions and arguments about aspects of literary texts; present an argument about a literary text based on initial impressions and subsequent analysis of the whole text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Interpretation</strong>&lt;br&gt;In Maths, interpret graphs and other technical diagrams; in Business, interpret data displayed in different formats to identify trends; in English, interpret and analyse language choices, including sentence patterns, dialogue, imagery and other language features, in short stories, literary essays and plays; interpret the stated and implied meanings in spoken texts, and use evidence to support or challenge different perspectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Critical analysis</strong>&lt;br&gt;In History, identify point of view, attitudes and bias in primary and secondary sources;&lt;br&gt;in Arts, analyse a range of visual artworks to explore differing viewpoints;&lt;br&gt;in Health and Physical Education, critically analyse health decisions and situations applying health information from a range of sources;&lt;br&gt;in English, analyse how point of view is generated in visual texts by means of choices such as gaze, angle and social distance; recognise differing viewpoints about the world and concerns in texts; analyse how effective authors control a variety of clause structures; analyse how different perspectives of issue, event, situation, individuals or groups are constructed to serve specific purposes in texts; analyse implicit or explicit values, beliefs and assumptions in texts and how these are influenced by purposes and likely audiences;&lt;br&gt;in Drama, analyse a range of drama from contemporary and past times to explore differing viewpoints.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Evaluation</strong>                                                                                                                             In Science, evaluate claims based on evidence; evaluate the validity and reliability of sources; evaluate conclusions, using ethical protocols;&lt;br&gt;in The Arts, evaluate how the elements of drama convey meaning and aesthetic effect;&lt;br&gt;in Design and Technologies, develop criteria for success to evaluate design ideas, processes and solutions;&lt;br&gt;in Digital Technologies, evaluate how student solutions meet needs, are innovative, and take account of risks against criteria such as functionality, accessibility, usability, and aesthetics;&lt;br&gt;in English, understand how language is used to evaluate texts and how evaluations can be substantiated by reference to the text; evaluate devices that create tone, for example humour, wordplay, innuendo and parody; evaluate texts by reflecting on the validity of content and the credibility of sources, including finding evidence in the text for the author’s point of view;&lt;br&gt;in Drama, evaluate how the elements of drama and performance styles in devised and scripted drama convey meaning and aesthetic effect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genre</td>
<td>Examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arguing</td>
<td>In <em>Civics and Citizenship</em>, present evidence-based arguments;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in <em>Economics</em>, present reasoned arguments and evidence-based conclusions using economics language and concepts;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in <em>Health and Physical Education</em>, identify the benefits to individuals and communities of valuing diversity and promoting inclusivity;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in <em>English</em>, understand how rhetorical devices are used to persuade;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in <em>Geography</em>, present arguments in a range of communication forms selected to suit a particular audience and purpose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>In <em>English</em>, discuss notions of literary value and how and why such notions vary according to context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recounting</td>
<td>In <em>History</em>, write an empathetic recount (e.g. my life as a Roman guard).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In <em>History</em>, recount the life of a significant individual (e.g. Pericles);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in <em>Science</em>, discuss the contribution of an influential scientist;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in <em>Civics</em>, recount the life stories of community members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In <em>History</em>, sequence historical events and periods;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in <em>Health and PE</em>, examine how the role of physical activity in the lives of Australians has changed over time;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in <em>Drama</em>, describe how over time there has been further development of different traditional and contemporary styles of drama.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In <em>Languages</em>, explore how and why languages change over time;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in <em>English</em>, understand the way language evolves in response to new technologies;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in <em>History</em>, explain continuity and change; explain expansion and trade over time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explaining</td>
<td>in <em>Biology</em>, explain plant growth;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in <em>Earth Sciences</em>, explain the water cycle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In <em>Science</em>, explain how predictable phenomena on Earth, including seasons and eclipses, are caused by the relative positions of the sun, Earth and the moon; explain how change to an object’s motion is caused by unbalanced forces, including Earth’s gravitational attraction, acting on the object; explain how chemical change involves substances reacting to form new substances; explain the Big Bang theory; explain plate tectonics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genre</td>
<td>Examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| System explanation           | In **Science**, explain patterns of relationship and flow in biomes, ecosystems, food chains/webs;  
                              | In **Civics**, explain how social systems work such as systems of government;  
                              | in **History**, explain roles and relationships of different groups in society.                                                                                                                      |
| Factorial explanation        | In **History**, explain reasons for decline (e.g. of Angkor, due to multiple factors such as overuse of water resources, neglect of public works, climate change); explain the causes of an outcome such as the Black Death; explain the technological innovations leading to the Industrial Revolution;  
                              | in **Geography**, explain the environmental, economic and technological factors that influence crop yields;  
                              | in **Civics**, explain the factors influencing citizens’ political choices at elections;  
                              | in **Business**, explain cause-and-effect relations;  
                              | in **Design and Technologies**, analyse the factors that impact on designed solutions for global preferred futures, including social, ethical and sustainability considerations;  
                              | in **Health and Physical Education**, analyse factors that influence emotions; analyse the impact of effort, space, time, objects and people on movement sequences;  
                              | in **English**, explain the contextual factors that shape text structures and language features.                                                                                                          |
| Consequential explanation   | In **History**, explain the consequences of the Mongol expansion; explain the short and long-term impacts of the Industrial Revolution (e.g. landscapes, transport, communication);  
                              | in **Geography**, identify the impacts and responses to an atmospheric or hydrological hazard; explain the effects of landscape degradation; explain the consequences of urbanisation; explain the effects of internal migration. |
| Describing                   | In **History**, study a particular period (e.g. life in ancient Egypt: beliefs, values, practices, everyday life, customs); describe an archeological site;  
                              | In **Geography**, develop maps to represent spatial distribution of geographical phenomena; describe different types of landscapes and their distinctive landform features;  
                              | In **Business**, describe the characteristics of entrepreneurs and successful businesses;  
                              | in **Languages**, convey factual information from a range of sources.                                                                                                                                  |
| Classifying report           | In **Biology**, classify different types of organisms;  
                              | In **Geology** – classify different types of rocks;  
<pre><code>                          | In **Physics** – investigate different types of energy.                                                                                                                                                |
</code></pre>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genre</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compositional report</td>
<td>In <strong>Science</strong>, study the composition of matter; describe the components of the solar system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compare/contrast report</td>
<td>In <strong>Geography</strong>, compare Australia’s water resources compared with other continents;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in <strong>Chinese</strong>, compare the purposes, text structures and language features of traditional and contemporary Chinese texts;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in <strong>English</strong>, compare and contrast the use of cohesive devices in texts; compare representations of people and cultures in literary texts drawn from different historical, social and cultural contexts; analyse text structures and language features of literary texts, and make relevant comparisons with other texts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedure</td>
<td>In <strong>Science</strong>, provide instructions for experiments;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In all subjects, give instructions to undertake most curriculum tasks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural recount</td>
<td>In <strong>Science</strong>, report on experiments;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In <strong>Mathematics</strong>, recount the procedure used to carry out a mathematical investigation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem-solution</td>
<td>In <strong>Geography</strong>, develop geographically significant questions and plan an inquiry such as the nature of water scarcity and ways of overcoming it;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in <strong>Design</strong> and <strong>Technologies</strong>, generate, develop, test, modify and communicate design ideas, plans and processes;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in <strong>Digital Technologies</strong>, define and decompose real-world problems, taking into account constraints and requirements; plan and manage projects that take safety and social contexts into account;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in <strong>Health and Physical Education</strong>, plan and evaluate new and creative interventions that promote connection to community.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 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 above (Appendix 3).

Some writing tasks will involve a 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.

To achieve its purpose, each genre goes through different stages. Each stage has a particular function in helping the genre achieve its purpose. The stages of a genre are usually fairly predictable, though sometimes the organisation of the genre is unique to a particular task.

It is beyond the scope of this booklet to describe the typical stages of each genre. Here we will just provide a couple of examples.
Factorial Explanation in History (Amy, aged 16: scaffolded explanation)

What were the factors that led to the Greek victory over the Persians?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The victory of the Greeks over the Persians in the Second Persian War during 480-479 BC came about due to many factors. Three vital factors determining the victory of the Greeks were leadership, naval strength and unity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The leadership of men such as Pausanias, Miltiades and Callimachus greatly assisted in the Greek defeat of the Persians but perhaps the most important man in leading the Greeks to victory was the Athenian strategist and tactician, Themistocles. Themistocles was described by Plutarch as a man of ‘unmistakable genius’ and that he was supreme at ‘doing precisely the right thing at precisely the right moment’. Themistocles showed excellent leadership skills as he had the foresight to plan for Athens a future as a naval power. This ensured at Artemisium and Salamis in 80BC and at Mycale in 79BC, the Greeks had a chance of defeating the Persians.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another leadership quality admired in Themistocles was his ability as a strategist. The Greek strategy, thought to be devised by Themistocles was to keep the Persians restricted in narrow straits and mountain passes. This would ensure that the Persians could not use the size of their forces to their advantage. Also, Themistocles realised that the large navy and army of the Persians would require a large supply line and so if the Greeks could cut off the supply lines at sea, they would be advantaged. These strategies devised by Themistocles showed his leadership skills and they allowed Greeks to enjoy victory over the Persians at battles such as Salamis, Plataea and Artemisium. The leadership skills of Themistocles played a vital role in the Greek defeat of the Persians. |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Another factor contributing to the Greek defeat of the Persians during the Second Persian War was the Greeks’ naval strength. The Greek naval powers were clearly demonstrated at Artemisium and Salamis. At Artemisium in 80 BC, the Greeks showed naval skills by holding the Persians at Artemisium. The Persians were exposed to Greek raids and poor weather conditions which led to the destruction of a large portion of their fleet. Naval power was similarly demonstrated at Salamis in the same year where the Greeks used their triremes to their advantage. The Greeks rammed the taller Phoenician ships and showed skilled use of their smaller, heavier ships. The naval battles also showed the use of the kyklos which is the naval formation used by the Greeks. This formation was depicted on many primary sources as was the Greek trireme. On vases and plates could be seen images of the triremes and their rams. The naval strength of Greece led to the Greek defeat of the Persians during the naval battles in 480-479 BC.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A further reason for the Greek defeat of the Persians is Greek unity. The best example of Greek unity is seen at the battle of Plataea in 79 BC. Twenty-three Greek states swore an oath of comradeship to fight together against the barbarian invaders. Roughly 100,000 Greeks endured three weeks of difficulties together and it was their comradeship and unity that led them to victory. After Plataea, and before Mycale, the serpent column was erected. This column is a further testament to Greek unity. The war spoils left behind by the fleeing Persians were used by the Greeks to build the serpent column and on it was inscribed the names of the Greek allies that attended the conquest at Isthmus in 481 BC and that had fought together during 480-479 BC. In the battle of Plataea, it was seen that Greek unity was a vital factor in their victory over the Persians.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reinforcement of factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From studying the battles between the Greeks and the Persians it is evident that leadership, naval strength and unity were three important and essential factors in leading the Greeks to victory in the second Persian War during 480-479 BC.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Argument in Geography (Nick, Year 7)

Present an argument regarding an issue of environmental quality in relation to the liveability of the planet.

**POSITION STATEMENT**
The pollution of the planet is one of the greatest issues facing mankind today. It is our responsibility to ensure that our environment remains liveable. There are two main kinds of pollution – air pollution and water pollution.

**ARGUMENT 1**
Air pollution has become a danger to living things. Millions of tonnes of harmful material in the form of solids, liquids and gases are being added to the air every day. Most of this pollution is caused by burning in the form of car exhausts, factory emissions and backyard fires.

**POINT**
The exhaust from cars and trucks is one of the major sources of air pollution. The waste products of motor vehicles come from the incomplete burning of fuel. These exhaust gases include carbon monoxide, oxides of nitrogen and unburned hydrocarbons.

**POINT**
Factory emissions are the next largest sources of air pollution. Such emissions can cause diseases such as asthma and cancer. Recently strict emission controls have been introduced so that the rate of air pollution can be kept in check.

**POINT**
Burning off rubbish in the backyard incinerator is also becoming a problem in urban areas. On the weekend, the air pollution rate tends to soar.

**ARGUMENT 2**
Water pollution is the other major pollution problem facing the planet today. Streams, rivers, lakes and oceans are becoming increasingly unsafe for humans, animals and marine life.

**POINT**
A major cause of the water pollution problem is the dumping of chemical and nuclear wastes into water systems. These wastes kill the fishes and plant life and they have a long-term effect on the marine environment.

**POINT**
Another concern are the oil spills which are occurring increasingly frequently. In the past decade there have been 20 major oil tanker accidents, causing untold damage to ocean life.

**CONCLUSION**
Both clean air and clean water are essential for the well-being of the planet. Human beings, animals, fish and plants require clean air and clean water in order to live. Human beings must find ways of reducing pollution if the planet is to survive.

Teaching implications

Genre-based pedagogy:
- identifies the language demands of the various curriculum areas;
- explicitly teaches students the genres needed for success in schooling;
- is concerned with deep learning of content together with learning the language of the content area. It is not an ‘add on’ – genres are integral to achieving the task. By teaching the genre, you are enabling the students to achieve the learning outcomes of the task.

• When designing a task, clarify the purpose/s for which your students will be writing.
• Be explicit in the task description about the genre required, with careful attention to the verb, e.g. explain the consequences of xxx; discuss the advantages and disadvantages of xxx; describe the way of life in xxx; critically analyse the expression of point of view in xxx. (It is helpful if all teachers have shared understandings of the genres of their subject areas and shared ways of referring to them with students.)
• Scaffold students by providing a model of the genre (similar to the one they will need to write). You (with your colleagues) might need to write the model text – a very illuminating exercise that generally reveals unanticipated challenges.
• In Shared Reading sessions, guide students to identify the stages that the genre goes through in achieving its purpose.
• Jointly construct part of the text with the class so that they know what is expected and how to organise their ideas in an appropriate way.
• In Differentiated Writing sessions, work with those students who are experiencing difficulties in writing the genre required for the task.
4.2 Assessment tools for writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment tools: writing</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Steps: Writing map of development, Department of Education W.A</strong></td>
<td><a href="http://det.wa.edu.au/stepsresources/detcms/navigation/first-steps-literacy/?oid=MultiPartArticleId-13602018">http://det.wa.edu.au/stepsresources/detcms/navigation/first-steps-literacy/?oid=MultiPartArticleId-13602018</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>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>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Middle School Writing Assessment</strong></td>
<td><a href="http://www.edutopia.org/pdfs/stw/edutopia-stw-assessment-middle-sch-writing-DYO-rubric.pdf">http://www.edutopia.org/pdfs/stw/edutopia-stw-assessment-middle-sch-writing-DYO-rubric.pdf</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A set of rubrics for assessing writing in the lower secondary years.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some ideas for assessing critical literary analysis.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Writing Assessment: A Position Statement</strong></td>
<td><a href="http://www.ncte.org/cccc/resources/positions/writingassessment">http://www.ncte.org/cccc/resources/positions/writingassessment</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An outline of key principles in the assessment of writing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A writing analysis tool that can be used to assess students’ writing across six areas – text structure, sentence structure, and grammatical features, vocabulary, spelling, punctuation and handwriting. Dr. Noella Mackenzie (Charles Sturt University)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3 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 Title</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Website</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.</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>
<tr>
<td><strong>Make their Heads Spin! Improving Learning in the Middle Years W.A.</strong></td>
<td>A whole school, cross curriculum approach to teaching and assessing adolescent learners and literacy – available free online:</td>
<td><a href="http://det.wa.edu.au/stepsresources/detcms/navigation/stepping-out-literacy/">http://det.wa.edu.au/stepsresources/detcms/navigation/stepping-out-literacy/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Effective Writing Instruction, Alison Davis, PETAA 2013</strong></td>
<td>This resource offers explicit support for effective classroom instruction, and includes numerous examples and activities to assist teachers to plan for and engage their students in writing.</td>
<td><a href="http://www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/w/Store/Item_Detail.aspx?iProductCode=PBO105&amp;Category=BOOK">http://www.petaa.edu.au/imis_prod/w/Store/Item_Detail.aspx?iProductCode=PBO105&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.</td>
<td><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 Thief: Using Mentor Texts to Teach the Craft of Writing</strong>, Ruth Culham, International Literacy Association, 2014</td>
<td>A major part of becoming a writing thief is finding the right mentor texts to share with students. Within this book, discover more than 90 excellent mentor texts, along with straightforward activities that incorporate the traits of writing across informational, narrative, and argument modes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Writing activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity Title</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Website</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Success for All W.A.</strong></td>
<td>A collection of practical literacy activities to accompany Making their Heads Spin!</td>
<td><a href="http://det.wa.edu.au/stepsresources/detcms/navigation/stepping-out-literacy/">http://det.wa.edu.au/stepsresources/detcms/navigation/stepping-out-literacy/</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Multiliteracies

**Using Multimodal Texts and Digital Resources in a Multiliterate Classroom**

*update 004*, Anstey, M., & Bull, G., 2009, Primary English Teaching Association of Australia, Marrickville

Deals with the considerations for teaching multimodal texts for learning.


**Students Writing with New Technologies**

Kervin, L., 2015, PETAA Paper 201, Primary English Teaching Association of Australia (PETA)

Practical information on how to support students in composing digital texts, from the planning stage through to selection of print, audio and visual resources, the composing of the text and final publication and sharing.
## 5.1 Assessment tools for spelling

### Assessment tools: spelling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment tools: spelling</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First Steps: Writing map of development, Department of Education W.A</strong></td>
<td>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>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>Progressive Achievement Tests in Written Spelling, Punctuation and Grammar (PAT-SPG)</strong></td>
<td>To assess students’ understanding of the Standard Australian English language conventions of spelling, grammar and punctuation (Years 2-10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Single Word Spelling Test</strong></td>
<td>To identify gaps in spelling skills, track progress over time and provide teachers with information for effective planning of spelling instruction. 6-14 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Upper-level Spelling Inventory (USI)</strong></td>
<td>Aligned with Words Their Way (see below), this inventory provides a quick assessment tool for screening or basic diagnostic assessment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The International Competitions and Assessments for Schools (ICAS) Spelling, University of NSW.</strong></td>
<td>The International Competitions and Assessments for Schools (ICAS) Spelling is an independent spelling assessment developed in conjunction with Macquarie Dictionary. It assesses and reports students’ skills at spelling words in four different contexts: dictation, proofreading, error correction and applying rules and conventions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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5.2 Useful resources to support spelling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Words Their Way</strong> Bear et al.</td>
<td>A teacher-directed, student-centred approach to vocabulary growth and spelling development where 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>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; 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>Teaching Australian Curriculum English</strong></td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><a href="http://www.teachingacenglish.edu.au/">http://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>Spell-it</strong> Macquarie University</td>
<td>Spell-It is a flexible program that assists teachers to plan and implement spelling instruction based on assessment of students’ current knowledge. Designed for upper primary and secondary students, Spell-It teaches the rules, conventions, structure and logic of the English language, to enable teachers to plan effective spelling lessons based on the needs of their students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><a href="http://www.multilit.com/programs/spell-it/">http://www.multilit.com/programs/spell-it/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Science of Spelling: The Explicit Specifics That Make Great Readers and Writers (and Spellers!) 1st Edition</strong> Richard Gentry, Heinemann 2004</td>
<td>The Science of Spelling breaks down preconceptions and misconceptions about how students learn to spell, making startling new connections between orthography and literacy. Through up to the moment research, Gentry argues that children use early spelling cognition to break the reading code.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX 6:
GRAMMAR AND PUNCTUATION

6.1 Assessment tools for writing and punctuation

While it is preferable to assess students’ grammar and punctuation in the context of their own writing, there are some tools available to assess the accuracy of their grammar and punctuation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tool</th>
<th>Website/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>How knowledge of the way 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>A New Grammar Companion, Beverly Derewianka, PETAA 2011</td>
<td>Written in response to the new <em>Australian Curriculum: English</em>, this book is organised around the main functions that language plays in our lives — interacting with others, structuring coherent texts, and expressing and connecting ideas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Title</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conversations About Text</strong></td>
<td>An outline of how to 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><strong>Conversations About Text</strong></td>
<td>A companion to <em>Conversations About Text</em> 1, 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 such as: 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></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>Punctuation Lesson Plan</strong></td>
<td>Activities and games for teaching punctuation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Eats Shoots and Leaves</strong></td>
<td>An entertaining look at the vagaries of English punctuation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### APPENDIX 7: VOCABULARY

#### 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, subservive</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, television</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retro-</td>
<td>back, backward</td>
<td>retroactive, regressive</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>dia-</td>
<td>across, through</td>
<td>diagonal, diameter, diagnose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefix</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>Examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>----------</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>

**Greek**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mono –</td>
<td>uni –</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>di –</td>
<td>bi-, du-, duo –</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tri-</td>
<td>tri-</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tetra-</td>
<td>quadri-, quart-</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>penta-</td>
<td>quin-</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hexa-</td>
<td>sext-</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hepta-</td>
<td>septem-, septi-</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>octo-</td>
<td>octa-, oct-</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ennea-</td>
<td>novem-</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deca-</td>
<td>deci-, decem-</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hecto-</td>
<td>cent-, cente-</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kilo-</td>
<td>mili-, mile-</td>
<td>1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hemi-</td>
<td>semi-</td>
<td>half</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Greek**: monologue, monotone, monopoly, monorail, unicycle, unified, unicorn, universe
- **Latin**: dichotomy, bicycle, bilingual, duet, duel, duplicate
- **Number**: tetragon, tetrameter, quadrangle, quadruplegic, quarter, quartet
- **Latin**: pentagon, pentameter, quintet, quintuplet
- **Number**: hexagon, hexameter, sextet
- **Latin**: heptagon, September (was once the seventh month)
- **Number**: octagon, octogenarian, octopus, October (used to be the eighth month)
- **Latin**: November (used to be the ninth month)
- **Number**: decagon, decade, decimal, decibel, December (used to be the tenth month)
- **Latin**: cent, century, centipede, centenary
- **Number**: kilogram, kilometre, kilobyte, milligram, millisecond, millenium
- **Latin**: hemisphere, semicircle, semicolon
### Prefixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>poly-</td>
<td>multi-</td>
<td>many</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>polygon, polygamy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>multiply, multigrain, multiple</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><strong>Verbs</strong></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>
<tr>
<td><strong>Adverbs</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ly</td>
<td>how</td>
<td>quickly, easily, happily, majestically, carefully</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nouns</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-acy</td>
<td>state or quality</td>
<td>privacy, democracy, literacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ance, – ence</td>
<td>state or quality</td>
<td>maintenance, dominance, decadence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-dom</td>
<td>place or state of being</td>
<td>freedom, kingdom, wisdom, boredom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-er, – or, – ist, -ian, – eer</td>
<td>one who …</td>
<td>trainer, teacher, mentor, survivor, motorist, biologist, realist, librarian, magician, pioneer, mountaineer, engineer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ism</td>
<td>doctrine, belief</td>
<td>communism, socialism, capitalism, Buddhism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ity, – ty</td>
<td>quality of</td>
<td>honesty, veracity, clarity, vanity, sanity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ment</td>
<td>condition of</td>
<td>argument, judgment, resentment, contentment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ness</td>
<td>state of being</td>
<td>happiness, heaviness, openness, harshness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ion, – sion, -tion</td>
<td>state of being, quality, act</td>
<td>action, erosion, vision, transition, conclusion, invitation, condemnation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-o-logy</td>
<td>study of</td>
<td>biology, ecology, mineralogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suffix</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td>Example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</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**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-able, -ible</td>
<td>able to be, worthy of, capable of</td>
<td>comfortable, likable, enjoyable, predictable, edible, visible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ful</td>
<td>notable for, full of</td>
<td>beautiful, wonderful, colourful, fearful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ic, -al, -ial, -ical</td>
<td>pertaining to, relating to</td>
<td>energetic, historic, volcanic, fatal, social, magical, historical, comical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ious, -ous</td>
<td>characterised by, full of, having</td>
<td>nutritious, pretentious, curious, furious, prosperous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ish</td>
<td>having the quality of, somewhat like</td>
<td>fiendish, childish, selfish, foolish, boyish, warmish, sourish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ive</td>
<td>having the nature of</td>
<td>creative, festive, responsive, positive, negative, inventive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-less</td>
<td>without</td>
<td>endless, fruitless, worthless, powerless, selfless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ly, -ly</td>
<td>characterised by, act in a way that</td>
<td>sleazy, funny, foggy, risky, milky, sudsy, curly, crazy, shiny</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 7.3 Grammatical suffixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Tense</strong></th>
<th><strong>-ed</strong></th>
<th><strong>-ing</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>in the past</td>
<td>walked, jumped, helped</td>
<td>walking, jumping, helping</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Plurals</strong></th>
<th><strong>-s, – es</strong></th>
<th><strong>more than one</strong></th>
<th><strong>hotels, stories, houses, wishes, prefixes, quizzes, branches</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>some common irregular plurals</td>
<td>curriculum</td>
<td>curricula</td>
<td>fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>criterion</td>
<td>criteria</td>
<td>sheep</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phenomenon</td>
<td>phenomena</td>
<td>foot</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>analysis</td>
<td>analyses</td>
<td>goose</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hypothesis</td>
<td>hypotheses</td>
<td>half</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crisis</td>
<td>crises</td>
<td>hoop</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oasis</td>
<td>oases</td>
<td>thief</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appendix</td>
<td>appendices</td>
<td>loaf</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cactus</td>
<td>cacti</td>
<td>wife</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fungus</td>
<td>fungi</td>
<td>wolf</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stimulus</td>
<td>stimuli</td>
<td>wharf</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>child</td>
<td>children</td>
<td>mouse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>woman</td>
<td>women</td>
<td>ox</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>men</td>
<td>tooth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Possessives</strong></th>
<th><strong>-s, – s’</strong></th>
<th><strong>ownership</strong></th>
<th><strong>girl’s, girls’, lady’s, ladies’, boss’s, bosses’, child’s, children’s</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Comparatives</strong></th>
<th><strong>-er</strong></th>
<th><strong>comparing two things</strong></th>
<th><strong>stronger, darker, prettier, bigger, better</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Superlatives</strong></th>
<th><strong>-est</strong></th>
<th><strong>identifying the thing that surpasses all others</strong></th>
<th><strong>the strongest, the prettiest, the biggest, the best</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</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, minimise, 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, pedal, 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>
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<tr>
<td>auto</td>
<td>self</td>
<td>autograph, autobiography, automobile</td>
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<tr>
<td>astro</td>
<td>star</td>
<td>astronomy, astronaut, astronomer, astrology</td>
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<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, synchronise</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, homogenise</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>philia</td>
<td>love, friendship</td>
<td>philosopher, philanthropist, philharmonic</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.

**PAT-R Vocabulary – 4th Edition**

https://www.acer.edu.au/taa/patrvocabulary4thedition/

To monitor progress in reading comprehension, vocabulary and spelling, and to provide teachers with diagnostic information to inform teaching Years 3–10.
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 where 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/

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.

**A selection of digital resources for vocabulary development**  
http://www.learningunlimitedllc.com/2013/02/20-digital-tools-for-vocabulary/

A practical resource for explicitly teaching vocabulary. This research-based book, based on successful classroom practice, offers dozens of strategies, mini-lessons, units, and activities that increase students’ exposure to and appreciation of sophisticated language.

**Greek and Latin Roots**  
An app for practising Greek and Latin root words.  

**How to Really Teach Vocabulary: The Clarifying Routine**, Edwin Ellis and Theresa Farmer  
http://www.ldonline.org/article/5759

**Dictionary skills for secondary students**  
A British Council unit of work containing several activities that introduce students to using a dictionary.  
http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/dictionary-skills-secondary-students

**Learning Vocabulary in Context.** J. Miller, 2015, Primary English Teaching Association of Australia (PETAA)  
A readable paper on key aspects of teaching and learning vocabulary.