Writing Genres: Key Features and





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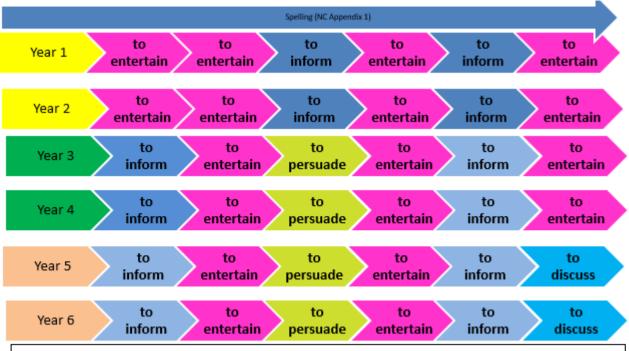
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St Peter and St Paul Catholic Primary School Our approach to teaching genres

We focus on the four core purposes of writing and reading: to entertain, to inform, to persuade and to discuss. These purposes will have a variety of genres that can be taught and recapped over the year and phases. As skills are developed and embedded, teachers will find opportunities for the children to apply these genres into different contexts.





These documents can also be found in the English explained document. This flowchart is not for order, but instead the weight of each purpose. In Year 6, it is expected that pupils will write in a wide variety of these genres regularly, to ensure they are embedding the features and knowledge.

	Reception	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Year 4	Year 5	Year 6
Golden opportunity Autumn	Early learning goals Write recognis able letters, most of which are correctly formed. Spell words by identifyin g sounds in them and represen ting the sounds with a letter or letters. Write simple phrases and sentenc es that can be read by others.	Core skills and writing structure repeated this term Genres to introduce (Autumn 2) To inform: Instructions To entertain: Story narrative (Character and setting descriptions) To inform: Non-chronological reports Poetry – Now we are six- Michael Rosen Instructions Non-chronological report	To entertain: Narrative descriptions and settings To inform: non-chronological reports, To inform – recounts (diary entry/ eye witness accounts) To entertain: narratives To persuade - letter To entertain - Poetry To entertain – adventure Poetry – Acrostic poems – Fireworks/ Christmas Diary recount Non-chronological report	To inform/ to entertain — recounts (diary in role) To inform — procedural instructions To inform — non-chronological reports To entertain- adventure narrative — descriptions and settings To persuade - debates/ adverts/ persuasive letter writing To entertain — dilemma narrative_ To entertain — Poetry Poetry: Rhyme- On the grassy Hill/ The Ning nang nong Diary recount of the migration to the Hillfort Biography of Mary Anning NCR of Animals on the Savannah	To entertain: adventure stories To inform: recounts To inform: news reporting (Oral, news reports to present) To persuade: Letters To entertain: descriptions To inform: biography To entertain: metaphor poetry To persuade: advertising at Christmas Poetry – Giant Winter, The Sun by Wes Magee Letter to persuade developers not to build on Deer Park Diary of a Roman Soldier Letter to persuade someone to rescue you from Antarctica	To inform: Non Chronological reports-guide book for visit, prospectus To entertain – Fantasy narrative To discuss: explanations: newspaper reports / eye witness reports To entertain: stories from other cultures To entertain- Poetry – figurative poetry – poems using personifications Instructions of how to build a Mayan headdress Biography- Sir Isaac Newton Non chronological report about the Mayan Empire	To inform - Information text To entertain — Poetry(limericks) to inform - Autobiographies to entertain - Radio scripts to discuss - Balanced Arguments/Debate to persuade - Persuasive te to inform - Chronological reports to inform - Journalistic writi Recounts — eyewitness, dia Poetry: Rondeau poem: Flanders fi Metaphor poem: Mountain Peak

Spring	Using the progress ion of genres docume nt – opportun ities to see and use genres are given. For example – writing a letter to	 To entertain- narrative creation stories To entertain- familiar stories To inform- non-chronological reports To discuss- dilemmas/ oral literacy To inform - instructions To inform -recounts Poetry - shape/ alliterative list poems Here is the seed- John Foster 	 To entertain - Creation stories To inform – newspaper reports To inform – non chronological reports To entertain – poetry To persuade – adverts and posters/ leaflets Poetry – calligrams Poetry – London's Burning A tiny burning flame 	 To entertain – folktales and fables (The Wrekin giant) To inform: Biographies To entertain/ to discuss - To entertain – playscripts – Egyptian Cinderella To inform – recounts – Howard Carter To inform - News reporting(recounts and presenting) Poetry - couplets 	To entertain: historical fiction To inform – Non chronological report To entertain - playscript To entertain: adventure To inform: explanation text Science Week – To inform: explanations	 To entertain: playscripts To persuade : formal and informal letters To entertain: Historical fiction with dialogue To inform: Diary entries To entertain: fables To entertain: Poetry Cinquains / tankas 	To entertain - Poetry-raps-lyrics To persuade - Public speaking To entertain - Playscripts To entertain- Classic fiction - Shakespeare Limericks to entertain - Adventure Stories to inform - explanation Texts to entertain – Poetry classic: The Highway Man - Alfred Noyse
Golden opportunity	Santa, or giving reasons why they should go with baby bear to the	 Recounts – diary (real life) Instructions Story writing (RE) 	Recounts Letter writing (Persuasive) Non-chronological reports	 Diary recounts Persuasive writing Instructions biography 	Biography of Dr Barnardo Description of life as a Street Child Letter to persuade people to look after Planet Earth	 Character and setting descriptions Newspaper reports Persuasive letter writing playscripts 	

Summer	in ser es pui	ntenc with a rpose mind	To entertain: Narrative - fantasy stories about animals. To inform: Information / explanation texts The Jolly Postman To entertain: Narrative- traditional tales To explain/ to inform: Non- chronological report/leaflet (Newport now and then) Poetry - performance	To pre sch war To Inst To To diag	entertain – poetry d song lyrics persuade: seentation to nool council (global rming) inform – tructions inform - recounts explain – grams/ flowcharts/ nclusions	•	To entertain – performance poetry To persuade- letters To inform – instructions – recipes To inform – information leaflets To entertain: adventure narrative To explain – science observations and leaflets To explain – newspaper articles/ diaries Poetry: Performance poetry: Please Mrs Butler/ Chocolate cake Haiku: Windy day/ seaview	•	To entertain - Limericks (Loopy Limericks (book) by John Foster) To entertain- creation stories and legends To inform: non-chronological report To persuade: leaflets/brochure To entertain- Stories with Dilemmas To inform: balanced argument To entertain - performance poetry (figurative language Macavity by T.S Eliot, The Trouble with My Brother - Brian Patten	•	To discuss: balanced arguments To discuss: Recounts: Biographies and Autobiographies – link to Buzz Aldrin To entertain: Science fiction To persuade: magazine articles / writing to persuade To entertain: Myths and legends To entertain: Rhyming couplets – whimsical nonsensical poems	•	(In Year 6 we challenge the writer to use cross genre techniques – ensuring the purpose fits the audience) To entertain: Historical Fiction Classic Fiction – Just William Poetry Performance poetry: What I Love About School - Roger Mc Gough Traditional tales To inform: Recounts To explain/ to discuss: Explanatory Texts Journalistic Writing
Golden Sumn opportunity		_	A range of golden opportunities		genres covered in	•	Golden opportunities for genres covered over the year	•	Golden opportunities for genres covered this year	•	Golden opportunities for genres covered this year	•	Golden opportunities for genres covered this year

Explanation texts (Based on National Strategy Documents)

<u>Purpose</u>: To explain how or why, e.g. to explain the processes involved in natural/social phenomena or to explain why something is the way it is.

Explanatory texts generally go beyond simple 'description' in that they include information about causes, motives or reasons. Explanations and reports are sometimes confused when children are asked to 'explain' and they actually provide a report, e.g. what they did (or what happened) but not how and why. Like all text types, explanatory texts vary widely and are often found combined with other text types.

Generic structure	Language features	Knowledge for the writer	Key elements to achieve progression
 A general statement to introduce the topic being explained. (In the winter some animals hibernate.) The steps or phases in a process are explained logically, in order. (When the nights get longer because the temperature begins to drop so the hedgehog looks for a safe place to hide.) 	 Generally (but not always) written in simple present tense. (Hedgehogs wake up again in the spring.) Use of time/ sequencing adverbs, e.g. first, then, after that, finally. Use of reinforcing and opposing adverbs to link ideas between sentences and paragraphs: e.g. in addition to, because of this. 	 Choose a title that shows what you are explaining, perhaps using why or how. (How do hedgehogs survive the winter? Why does it get dark at night?) Decide whether you need to include images or other features to help your reader, e.g. diagrams, photographs, a flow chart, a text box, captions, a list or a glossary. Use the first paragraph to introduce what you will be explaining. Plan the steps in your explanation and check that you have included any necessary information about how and why things happen as they do. Add a few interesting details. Interest the reader by talking directly to them (You'll be surprised to know that Have you ever thought about the way that?) or by relating the subject to their own experience at the end (So next time you see a pile of dead leaves in the autumn). Re-read your explanation as if you 	 Speaking and listening before reading and writing. Teacher modelling, scribing and shared writing before children's independent attempt. Increased understanding by the children of the form and features of discussion writing and then increasing ability to manipulate elements of writing to present a balanced argument, with or without a personal conclusion Increasing complexity, subtlety, challenge of task (for example, moving from simple for-and-against arguments to those with multiple viewpoints; moving from clear cut issues into those eliciting more subtle differences in views). Increasing ability to recognise discussion and understand the devices used in the writing of others; in their own writing to discuss effectively as appropriate to their purpose and audience.

	know nothing at all about the subject. Check that there are no gaps in the information. Remember that you can adapt explanatory texts or combine them with other text types to make them work effectively for your audience and purpose	

	Suggested approaches to show progression in Explanation texts (from Herts for Learning)
Reception	 Talk about why things happen and how things work; ask questions and speculate Listen to someone explain a process and ask questions Give oral explanations e.g. their own or another's motives; why and how they made a construction Explain own knowledge and understanding, and asks appropriate questions of others They develop their own explanations by connecting ideas and events Use labels and captions on simple diagrams e.g. parts of the body Grammar opportunities: Communicate ideas through simple sentences Show awareness of listener. Orally use joining words such as and, but, because, if e.g. explaining what happens if different fabric is put down a car ramp. Adult asks 'If I put fabric down the ramp, what will happen to the car? Child responds 'It will go slow because it will get in the way of the
	wheels'.
Year 1	 Read captions, pictures and diagrams on wall displays and in simple books that explain a process Draw pictures to illustrate a process and use the picture to explain the process orally Asks questions to extend their understanding and knowledge Write a series of sentences to explain a simple, process based on first-hand experience e.g. chicks hatching, life cycle of a frog
Year 2	 Listen to and discuss a wide range of explanatory texts Draw on and use new vocabulary from reading explanatory texts After carrying out a practical activity e.g. experiment, investigation, construction task, contribute to creating a flowchart or cyclical diagram to explain the process After seeing and hearing an oral explanation of a process, explain the same process orally also using flowchart, language and gestures appropriately Read flowcharts or cyclical diagrams explaining other processes Following other practical tasks, produce a flowchart or cyclical diagram independently ensuring content is clearly sequenced Write a series of sentences to explain the flowchart
Year 3	 Read explanations as a whole class, in groups and individually Comment on a range of explanatory texts, focusing on how easy they are to understand (e.g. by trying to reproduce that information in a different form, such as a diagram, or flow chart) Create diagrams such as flow charts to summarise or make notes of stages in a process (e.g. in science, D&T or geography) Ensure relevant items are grouped together In formal presentations, explain processes orally using notes Write a series of extended sentences to explain a process Ensure relevant details are included and accounts ended effectively
Year 4	 Read and analyse a range of explanatory texts, investigating and noting features of impersonal style (and noting when a personal tone is used)

	 Distinguish between explanatory texts, reports and recounts while recognising that an information book might contain examples of all these forms of text or a combination of these forms Comment on, and justify views about, a range of explanatory texts Plan the steps in your explanation and check that you have included any necessary information about how and why things happen as they do
Year 5	 Read and analyse a range of explanatory texts linked to other curriculum areas e.g. 'physical geography, including: climate zones, biomes and vegetation belts, rivers, mountains, volcanoes and earthquakes, and the water cycle Teacher demonstration of how to research and plan a page for a reference book In shared writing and independently plan, compose, edit and refine explanatory texts, using reading as a source, focusing on clarity, conciseness and impersonal style
Year 6	 Choose the appropriate form of writing and style to suit a specific purpose and audience Consider the difference between historical explanations (e.g. Roman army tactics) and explanations using the present tense (e.g. the water cycle) Investigate when a different tense is needed

Explanations in Key Stage 1								
Suggest	Suggested contexts: captions, leaflets, observations, flowcharts							
	Year 1							
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation					
 Regular plural noun suffixes –s & - es Use of the prefix un- to change the meaning of verbs and adverbs 	 Oral rehearsal of sentence structure Joining words and joining clauses using 'and' and 'because' Third person 	Sequencing sentences to form short passages e.g. Chicks have a spike on their beak. This is called the egg tooth.	 Separating words with spaces Use of capital letters and full stops to demarcate sentences Introduction to use of question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences Use of capital letters for names and the pronoun I 					
	Ye	ar 2	,					
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation					
 Formation of nouns using suffixes (-ness, -er) Formation of adjectives using suffixes (-ful, -less) Use of -er and -est in adjectives 	 Functions of sentence types: statement, command, exclamation or question explore titles of explanations texts and identify that they usually begin with 'how' or 'why' write general statements to introduce topics being explained e.g. In the winter some animals hibernate Expanded noun phrases to describe and specify (use of adjectives before the noun or preposition phrase after the noun) e.g some 	Correct choice and use of present tense or past tense throughout writing	 Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences e.g. practice generating their own titles for explanations texts, for example, How do hedgehogs survive the winter? Why do we use bricks to build houses? Commas to separate items in a list Apostrophes for singular possession 					

hibernating animals, the adult male frog in the pond Use of coordinating (and, or, but) and subordinating conjunctions (when, if, that,	
because)	

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	Explanations in Lower Key Stage 2									
	Suggested contexts: leaflets, science experiments, newspaper reports, letters, diary									
	Year 3									
	Word	Sentence		Text	Punctuation					
•	Formation of nouns using a range of prefixes (super-, anti-, auto-) Use of 'a' or 'an' according to whether the next word starts with a vowel Word families based on common words showing how words are related in form and meaning	 Use of prepositions (during, in, because of, before, after),) to express time, cause and place e.g. Hedgehogs make their nests under hedges and at the base of tree trunks. Hedgehogs build up their stores of fat during autumn. Use of adverbs to express time, place and cause (then, next, soon, therefore) e.g. to show sequence, first, then, after that, finally Use of coordinating and subordinating conjunctions (when, while, after, because, soon, while) to express time and cause e.g.'because the temperature begins to drop', 'so the hedgehog looks for a safe place to sleep.' Formation of subordinate clauses using subordinating conjunctions 	a way to information Headings aid prese reader Use of prese of simple over two	ion of paragraphs as group related on and subheadings to ntation and guide the esent perfect instead past (it has grown years rather than it er two years)	Consolidation of all KS1 punctuation					

	Yea	r 4		
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation	
 Standard forms of English verb inflections (we were rather than we was, I did rather than I done) Use of articles (a, an, the) and possessive pronouns (my, his, her, their etc) as determiners Grammatical difference between plural and possessive -s. 	 Use of a wider range of subordinating conjunctions Noun phrases further expanded by adding adjectives and prepositions to modify the noun (e.g. When an animal dies, the soft part of the animal rots away. Millions of years later, the rock surrounding the skeleton rises to the Earth's surface) Use of preposition phrases, subordinate clauses and noun phrases as fronted adverbials to indicate time, place, manner or frequency e.g. Millions of years later,, When an animal or plant dies, Consequently, 	 Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme e.g. use the first paragraph to introduce what you will be explaining. Organise following paragraphs according to the stages of the process. Conclude by addressing the reader. Appropriate choice of pronoun (person or possessive) or noun, within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition. Decide on an appropriate balance between nouns and pronouns to aid clarity. 	 Use of commas after fronted adverbials Apostrophes for plural possession 	

Explanations in Upper Key Stage 2									
Suggested cont	Suggested contexts: science conclusions, newspaper reports, eye witness reports, letters								
Year 5									
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation						
 Converting nouns or adjectives into verbs using suffixes (-ate, -ify, -ise) Verb prefixes (dis-, de-, mis-, over-, re-) 	 Use of relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that or an omitted relative pronoun e.g. use relative clauses to add an extra layer of information, Use of modal verbs to indicate degree of certainty Precise use of preposition phrases, subordinate clauses and noun phrases as adverbials to indicate time, place, manner or frequency. 	 Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph (then, after, that, this, firstly) Linking ideas across paragraphs using adverbials of time, place and number or tense choices 	 Brackets, dashes and commas to indicate parenthesis Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity 						
	Ye	ar 6							
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation						
Difference between formal and informal vocabulary and structures	 Use of the passive voice Use of subjunctive form for formal writing Use modal verbs to recommend and assert e.g. it might be advisableit should be relatively easy tothere may be an opportunity to Precise use of a range of sentence structures for effect eg. Use embedded phrases and clauses for succinctness e.g. The final stage, to be completed by June, will involve 	 Use of a wider range of cohesive devices to link ideas across paragraphs repetition of a word or phrase use of a wider range of adverbials ellipsis Use of a range of layout devices to structure text headings & subheadings columns & bullet points tables & diagrams 	 Use of semi-colon, colon or dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses Use of bullets, colons & semi-colons to punctuate lists 						

Persuasive texts (Based on National Strategy Documents)

<u>Purpose</u>: To argue a case from a particular point of view and to encourage the reader/listener towards the same way of seeing things. Persuasive texts can be written, oral or written to be spoken, e.g. a script for a television advert or presentation. The persuasive intention may be covert and not necessarily recognised by the reader or listener. Texts vary considerably according to context and audience so that persuasion is not always a distinct text-type that stands alone. Elements of persuasive writing are found in many different texts including letters, moving image texts and digital multimedia texts. Some examples may include evidence of bias and opinion being subtly presented as facts. Units of work on persuasion will involve children in using elements from all of the cross curricular, key aspects of learning - creative thinking, communication, empathy, enquiry, evaluation, information processing, managing feelings, motivation, problem solving, reasoning, self awareness and social skills.

	Generic structure
0	An opening statemen
	(thesis) that sums up
	the viewpoint being
	presented. (Merton is
	the best borough in
	Greater London.
	School uniform is a
	good idea.)
0	Strategically organised
	information presents
	and then elaborates

- Strategically organised information presents and then elaborates on the desired viewpoint. (Vote for me because I am very experienced. I have been a school councillor three times and I have ...)
- A closing statement repeats and reinforces the original thesis. (All the evidence shows that ... It's quite clear that ... Having seen all that we offer you,

Language features

- Written in simple present tense.
 May include present perfect verb form eg. Residents have been affected for many weeks.
- Often refers to generic rather than specific participants. (Vegetables are good for you. They ...)
- Uses reinforcing and opposing adverbs rather than sequencing adverbs to link ideas between sentences and paragraphs. (This proves that ... As a result of ... Therefore ...)
- Tends to move from general to specific when key points are being presented. (The hotel is comfortable. The beds are soft, the chairs are specially made to support your back and all rooms have thick carpet.)
- Use of **rhetorical questions**. (Do you want to get left behind in the race to be fashionable? Want to be the most relaxed person in town? So what do you have to do?)

Knowledge for the writer

- Decide on the viewpoint you want to present and carefully select the information that supports it.
- Organise the main points to be made in the best order and decide which persuasive information you will add to support each.
- Plan some
 elaboration/explanation,
 evidence and example(s) for each
 key point but avoid ending up with
 text that sounds like a list.
- Think about counter arguments your reader might come up with and include evidence to make them seem incorrect or irrelevant.
- Try to appear reasonable and use facts rather than emotive comments.
- Choose strong, positive words and phrases and avoid sounding negative.
- o Use **short sentences** for emphasis.
- Use techniques to get the reader

Key elements to achieve progression

- Speaking and listening preceding reading and writing.
- Teacher modelling, scribing and shared writing before children's independent attempt.
- Increased understanding by the children of the form and features of persuasive writing and then increasing ability to manipulate elements of writing to persuade others.
- Increasing complexity, subtlety, challenge of task (persuading a reader to change their mind), and/or adding additional features such as multi-modal elements (visual images, video, vox clips, etc.).
- Increasing ability to recognise persuasion and understand the persuasive devices used in the writing of others; in their

there can be no doubt that we are the best.)	Text is often combined with other media to emotively enhance an aspect of the argument, e.g. a photo of a sunny, secluded beach, the sound of birds in a forest glade or a picture of a cute puppy.	 on your side: Address them directly (This is just what you've been waiting for.); Adopt a friendly and informal tone if appropriate to the task; Use memorable or alliterative slogans (Happy Holidays at Hazel House); Use simple psychology to appeal to the reader's judgement. (Everyone knows that Nine out of ten people agree that Choosing this will make you happy and contented. You'd be foolish not to sign up.) Re-read the text as if you have no opinion and decide if you would be persuaded. Remember that you can use persuasive writing within other text types. 	own writing to persuade effectively as appropriate to their purpose and audience.
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	Suggested approaches to show progression in <u>Persuasive texts</u> (from Herts for learning)
Reception	 Talk about how they respond to certain words, stories and pictures by behaving or wanting to behave in particular ways e.g. pictures of food that make them want to eat things Watch and listen when one person is trying to persuade another to do something or go somewhere. Recognising what is happening. Give oral explanations e.g. their or another's motives; why and how they can persuade or be persuaded. Begin to be able to negotiate and solve problems without aggression e.g. when someone has taken their toy Use simple imperative verbs to persuade e.g. creating written rules or labels, for example, please don't touch, please don't break my model, keep away Grammar opportunities: Know that a sentence tells a whole idea and makes sense Awareness of listener Communicate ideas through simple written sentences e.g. 'Please don't break my model' (label in the construction area / 'Please can I have a' (letter to Santa)
Year 1	 Read captions, pictures, posters and adverts that are trying to persuade Write simple examples of persuasion e.g. in the form of a letter to a character in a book. Through games and role play begin to explore what it means to persuade or be persuaded, and what different methods might be effective
Year 2	 As part of a wide range of reading, explore persuasive texts (posters, adverts, etc.) and begin to understand what they are doing and the devices that they use Evaluate simple persuasive devices e.g. say which posters in a shop or TV adverts would make them want to buy something, and why Continue to explore persuading and being persuaded in a variety of real life situations through role-play and drama Write persuasive texts linked with topics relevant to children's current experience and motivations e.g. persuasive letter to Santa at Christmas, presentation to school council, persuasive letter to a character from a text Select information that supports the chosen viewpoint
Year 3	 Read and evaluate a wider range of persuasive texts, explaining and evaluating responses orally Through role play and drama explore particular persuasive scenarios e.g. a parent persuading a reluctant child to go to bed, and discuss the effectiveness of different strategies used Present a persuasive point of view in the form of a letter, beginning to link points together and selecting style and vocabulary appropriate to the reader
Year 4	 Read and analyse a range of persuasive texts to identify key features (e.g. letters to newspapers, discussions of issues in books, such as animal welfare or environmental issues) Distinguish between texts which try to persuade and those that simply inform, whilst recognising that some texts might contain examples of each of these From examples of persuasive writing, investigate how style and vocabulary are used to convince the reader Evaluate advertisements for their impact, appeal and honesty, focusing in particular on how information about the product is presented: exaggerated claims, tactics for grabbing attention, linguistic devices such as puns, jingles, alliteration, invented words Assemble and sequence points in order to plan the presentation of a point of view, e.g. on hunting/school rules, using more formal

	language appropriately linking points persuasively and selecting style and vocabulary appropriate to the listener/reader • Use graphs, images, visual aids to make the view more convincing
Year 5	 Read and evaluate letters, e.g. from newspapers or magazines, intended to inform, protest, complain, persuade, considering (i) how they are set out, and (ii) how language is used, e.g. to gain attention, respect, manipulate Read other examples (e.g. newspaper comment, headlines, adverts, fliers) to compare writing which informs and persuades, considering for example the deliberate use of ambiguity, half-truth, bias; how opinion can be disguised to seem like fact From reading, to collect and investigate use of persuasive devices such as words and phrases, prot a single person' revery right-thinking person would' the real truth is'; rhetorical questions, e.g. rare we expected to?' pandering, condescension, concession, e.g. rhaturally, it takes time for local residents'; deliberate ambiguities, e.g. rhotobolly the bestin the world' ribelieved to cure all known illnesses' the professional's choice' (through the use of vague nouns) Draft and write individual, group and class persuasive extended texts for real purposes, presenting a clear point of view, commenting on emotive issues, and evaluating effectiveness Understand how persuasive writing can be adapted for different audiences e.g. a protest aimed at an audience who are already backing your cause, compared with a speech aimed at a neutral audience where greater justification of your point of view is required Combine persuasion with other text types e.g. instructions, discussion, explanation
Year 6	 Through reading and analysis, recognise how persuasive arguments are constructed to be effective through, for example: the expression, sequence and linking of points providing persuasive examples, illustration and evidence pre-empting or answering potential objections appealing to the known views and feelings of the audience Orally and in writing, construct effective persuasive arguments: using persuasive language techniques to deliberately influence the listener.

- supporting and illustrating points persuasively
- > anticipating possible objections
- > harnessing the known views, interests and feelings of the audience
- > tailoring the writing to formal presentation where appropriate
- In oral and written texts choose the appropriate style and form to suit a specific purpose and audience, drawing on knowledge of different non-fiction text types and adapting, conflating and combining these where appropriate

	Persuasion in Key Stage 1					
	Suggested contexts: role play, points of view, posters, letters					
		Ye	ar 1			
	Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation		
•	Use of the prefix un- to change the meaning of verbs and adverbs First & second person	 Introduce commands as sentence type Oral rehearsal of sentence structure Joining words and joining clauses using 'and' and 'because' 	Sequencing sentences to form short passages	 Separating words with spaces Use of capital letters and full stops to demarcate sentences Introduction to question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences Use of capital letters for names and the personal pronoun 'I' 		
		Ye	ar 2			
	Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation		
•	Formation of adjectives using suffixes (-ful, -less) Use of –er and –est in adjectives First, second & third person	 Functions of sentence types: statement, command, exclamation or question (rhetorical) e.g. inclusion of an opening statement that presents the persuasive point of view, Expanded noun phrases to describe and specify Power of 3 adjectives Use of coordinating (and, or, but) and subordinating conjunctions (when, if, that, because) e.g. extend reasoning using subordination, for example, Vote for me because 	 Correct choice and use of present tense Use of progressive forms in present and past tense Imperative verbs 	 Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences Commas to separate items in a list e.g. list persuasive arguments, for example, I think I should be school councillor because I like speaking in public, I have lots of good ideas and I listen to other people's ideas. Apostrophes for singular possession 		

	Persuasion in Lower Key Stage 2				
	Suggested contexts: role play, points of view, letters, tv & radio adverts				
		Yeo	ar 3		
	Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation	
whe	 Use of 'a' or 'an' according to whether the next word starts with a vowel Use of prepositions (during, in, because of, before, after), adverbs (next, soon, therefore) and conjunctions (when, while, after, because, soon, while) to express time and cause Use of prepositions as adverbials to express time and cause Use of preposition phrases as adverbials to express time, cause or place 		 Introduction of paragraphs as a way to group related information generate several reasons for a point of view group related persuasive points together Use of present perfect instead of simple past (Residents have complained over several weeks or Doctors have discovered how damaging it can be.) 	Consolidation of all KS1 punctuation	
Year 4					
	Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation	
infle than I do • Use poss	ndard forms of English verb ections (we were rather in we was, I did rather than ine) of articles (a, an, the) and sessive pronouns (my, his, their etc) as determiners	 Use of a wider range of subordinating conjunctions use connecting adverbs to link persuasive points together and provide further justification, for example, I think that we should be allowed to keep the dragon as a pet because FurthermoreAdditionally 	 Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme, .e.g. Consider organising paragraphs around persuasive points, and counter-arguments e.g. analyse how a particular view can most convincingly be presented, ordering points to link them 	 Use of commas after fronted adverbials Apostrophes for plural possession 	

 use adverbs which show cause and effect rather than adverbs of time /conjunctions to offer justification of a point of view, for example, You should buy this product so that you are the envy of all your friends The trainer is brightly 	together so that one follows from another how statistics, graphs, images, visual aids, etc. can be used to support or reinforce arguments how a closing statement repeats and reinforces the original/opening statement
coloured, therefore you will be seen in the dark. • Use of preposition phrases, subordinate clauses and noun phrases as fronted adverbials to indicate time, place, manner or frequency.	or viewpoint, for example, All the evidence shows thatIt's quite clear thatHaving seen all that we offer you, there can be no doubt that we are the best.

Appropriate choice of pronoun

aid cohesion and avoid

repetition

(person or possessive) or noun,

within and across sentences to

Noun phrases further

expanded by adding

phrases in advertising,

> rich, velvety chocolate

sand...

adjectives and prepositions to

modify the noun e.g. explore the use of expanded noun

the beach with its mile long stretch of golden white

> harvested from the heart of the Amazonian rainforest...

	Persuasion in Upper Key Stage 2					
	Suggested contexts: role play, editorials, formal & informal letters, magazine articles, debate					
		Yeo	ar .	5		
	Word	Sentence		Text		Punctuation
•	Converting nouns or adjectives into verbs using suffixes (-ate, -ify, -ise) Verb prefixes (dis-, de-, mis-, over-, re-)	 Use of relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that or an omitted relative pronoun, investigate examples of complex sentences, where information is layered up to add additional persuasive detail, and use in own writing, for example, The exquisite silk, which has been hand-stitched by expert weavers from India, glows with rainbow colours. Experiment with removing relative clauses from example texts and consider the effect Indicating degrees of possibility using adverbs [for example, perhaps, surely] or modal verbs [for example, might, should, will, must] e.g. explore the use of adverbs of possibility and modal verbs in forming rhetorical questions, for example, Surely you would not 	•	later, after), place (nearby) and number (secondly) to link ideas across paragraphs Use of reinforcing and opposing connecting adverbs to link ideas between sentences and across paragraphs	•	Brackets, dashes and commas to indicate parenthesis Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity e.g. explore how much additional information can be added to a sentence, without compromising meaning, and how these sentences can be used to overwhelm the reader's senses, for example, 'This decadent chocolate treat, flavoured with bittersweet cherry liquor - which is made with care in the Alps - will not only satisfy your hunger, but will no doubt wake up your taste buds, giving them a well-earned break from their usual, boring flavours'.

want? Can you imagine?	
Explore which modal verbs	
are most commonly used in	
persuasive writing, for	
example, those that express	
certainly and offer a	
promise or commitment	
(must, can, will)	
Precise use of preposition	
phrases, subordinate clauses	
and noun phrases as	
adverbials to indicate time,	
place, manner or frequency.	

	Year 6			
	Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation
•	Difference between formal and informal vocabulary and structures	 Use of the passive to affect the presentation of information in a sentence e.g. Explore how the passive can be used to gain support of an audience without dictating who should be responsible for making that action happen, therefore making the action seem less daunting, for example, 'the invaders must be stopped' Consider how the alternative version (in the active voice) might not be so effective in harnessing the support of the audience, for example, 'we (or 'you') must stop the invaders' The difference between structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing [for example, the use of question tags: He's your friend, isn't he? or the use of subjunctive forms such as If I were or Were they to come in some very formal writing and speech], e.g. If I were prime minister, I would 	 Use of a wider range of cohesive devices to link ideas across paragraphs repetition of a word or phrase use of a wider range of adverbials ellipsis Apply persuasive skills in a range of contexts/ structures Vary and manage paragraphs in a way that support whole structure of the text e.g. single sentence paragraphs to secure an argument, movement of focus from the general to the specific 	Use of semi-colon, colon or dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses Use of bullets, colons & semi-colons to punctuate lists

Discussion texts (Based on National Strategy Documents)

<u>Purpose</u>: To present a reasoned and balanced overview of an issue or controversial topic. Usually aims to provide two or more different views on an issue, each with elaborations, evidence and/ or examples.

Discussion texts are not limited to controversial issues but polarised views are generally used to teach this text type as this makes it easier to teach children how to present different viewpoints and provide evidence for them. Discussions contrast with persuasion texts which generally only develop one viewpoint and may present a biased view, often the writer's own. Like all text types, discussion texts vary widely and elements of discussion writing are often found within other text types

Generic structure

The most common structure includes:

- a statement of the issues involved and a preview of the main arguments;
- arguments for, with supporting evidence and examples;
- arguments against or alternative views, with supporting evidence and examples.

Another common structure presents the arguments 'for' and 'against' alternatively. Discussion texts usually end with a summary and a statement of recommendation or conclusion. The summary may develop one particular viewpoint using reasoned judgements based on the evidence provided.

Language features

- Written in simple present tense as commonly accepted facts.
- Generalises the participants and things it refers to using uncountable noun phrases (some people, most dogs), nouns that categorise (vehicles, pollution) and abstract nouns (power).
- O Uses **reinforcing and opposing adverbs** to link ideas between sentences and paragraphs (therefore, however, in addition to, as a result of, furthermore).
- Generic statements are often followed by specific examples (Most vegetarians disagree. Dave Smith, a vegetarian for 20 years, finds that ...)
- Sometimes combined with diagrams, illustrations, moving images and sound to provide additional information or give evidence

Knowledge for the writer

- Rhetorical questions often make good titles. (Should everyone travel less to conserve global energy?)
- Use the introduction to show why you are debating the issue. (There is always a lot of disagreement about x and people's views vary a lot.)
- Make sure you show both/all sides of the argument fairly.
- Support each viewpoint you present with reasons and evidence
- If you opt to support one particular view in the conclusion, give reasons for your decision.
- Don't forget that discussion texts can be combined with other text types depending on your audience and purpose.

Key elements to achieve progression

- Speaking and listening before reading and writing.
- Teacher modelling, scribing and shared writing before children's independent attempt.
- Increased understanding by the children of the form and features of discussion writing and then increasing ability to manipulate elements of writing to present a balanced argument, with or without a personal conclusion
- Increasing complexity, subtlety, challenge of task (for example, moving from simple for-and-against arguments to those with multiple viewpoints; moving from clear cut issues into those eliciting more subtle differences in views).
- Increasing ability to recognise discussion and understand the devices used in the writing of others; in their own writing to discuss effectively as appropriate

	Suggested approaches to show progression in <u>Discussion texts</u> (from Herts for Learning)
Reception	 Experience and recognise that others sometimes think, feel and react differently from themselves Talk about how they and others might respond differently to the same thing e.g. like a particular picture or story when someone else doesn't Give oral explanations e.g. their own or another's preferences, e.g. what they like to eat and why Listen and respond to ideas expressed by others in discussion Initiate conversations, attend to and take account of what others say Grammar opportunities: Communicate opinions through simple written sentences e.g. I hopeI likeI wish Show awareness of the listener Use the personal pronoun 'I' in discussions e.g. during a discussion about their age Matilda said, 'I'm 6 years old!' In discussions, use joining words such as and, but, because to begin exploring thinking further e.g. 'She's not 6, because she is
Year 1	 younger than me and I'm only 5'. Through talk and role play explore how others might think, feel and react differently from themselves and from each other In reading explore how different characters might think, feel and react differently from themselves and from each other Write a sentence (or more) to convey their opinion and a sentence (or more) to convey the contrasting opinion of another e.g. character from a book or peer in the class etc e.g. I think that he should give the toy back. James thinks that he should keep the toy.
Year 2	 Through reading, role play, drama techniques and in life situations, recognise, that different people and characters from texts, have different thought/feelings about, views on and responses to particular scenarios e.g. that the wolf would see the story of the Red Riding Hood differently to the girl herself Write a series of sentences to convey their opinion, and a series of sentences to convey the contrasting opinion of another
Year 3	 Through reading, role play and drama explore how different views might be expressed/explained/justified (e.g. the different view of characters in a particular book, or the different view of people writing to a newspaper.) In the process, draw inferences such as inferring character's feelings, thoughts and motives from their actions, and justifying inferences with evidence Write a traditional tale (or a scene from any narrative) from two key characters' perspectives, showing a contrast in viewpoint Write a summary statement/series of sentences expressing their own opinion on the characters viewpoints e.g. who was in the right/wrong and present reasons for their opinion
Year 4	 In exploring persuasive texts, and those presenting a particular argument (see Progression in Persuasion), begin to recognise which present a single (biased) viewpoint and which try to be more objective and balanced Through questioning and debate, continue to explore the expression of different views through discussion, role play and drama Give well-structured, and extended, justification for feelings and opinions
Year 5	 In exploring persuasive texts, and those presenting a particular argument (see Progression in Persuasion), distinguish and discuss any texts which seems to be trying to present a more balanced or reasoned view, or which explore more than one possible perspective on an issue Experiment with the presentation of various views (own and others, biased and balanced) though discussion, debate and drama Consider and evaluate different viewpoints, noting when justifications for a particular viewpoint are strong or weak

	 Through reading, identify the language, grammar, organisational and stylistic features of balanced written discussions which: summarise different sides of an argument clarify the strengths and weaknesses of different positions signal personal opinion clearly draw reasoned conclusions based on available evidence Plan, compose, edit and refine a balanced discussion presenting two sides of an argument following a debate
Year 6	 Recognise and understand the distinction between the persuasive presentation of a particular view and the discursive presentation of a balanced argument First explore orally and then write a balanced report of a controversial issue: summarising fairly the competing views analysing strengths and weaknesses of different positions drawing reasoned conclusions where appropriate using formal language and presentation as appropriate Experiment with setting out opposing views in separate paragraphs or as alternate points within a paragraph and consider impact Choose the appropriate style and form to suit a specific purpose and audience, drawing on knowledge of different non-fictional text types and adapting, conflating and combining these where appropriate. Sometimes diagrams, illustrations, moving images and sound may be used to provide additional information or give evidence

Discussion in Key Stage 1					
Suggested contexts: role play, drama, points of view					
Year 1					
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation		
First & third person	 Oral rehearsal of sentence structure Joining words and joining clauses using 'and' and 'because' 	Sequencing sentences to form short passages	 Separating words with spaces Use of capital letters and full stops to demarcate sentences Use of capital letters for names and the personal pronoun 'I' 		
	Ye	ar 2			
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation		
 Formation of nouns using suffixes (- ness, -er) Use of -er and -est in adjectives 	 Functions of sentence types: statement, command, exclamation or question Expanded noun phrases to describe and specify (use of adjectives before the noun or preposition phrase after the noun) – selecting adjectives thoughtfully for additional information they provide. Use of coordinating (and, or, but) and subordinating conjunctions (when, if, that, because) e.g. use 'because' to extend reasoning, for example, 'I think that the wolf is naughty because he scares the little pigs'. 	Correct choice and use of present tense throughout writing, presenting information as commonly accepted facts.	 Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences Commas to separate items in a list Apostrophes for singular possession 		

Discussion in Lower Key Stage 2						
	Suggested contexts: letters, debate, role play					
	Year 3					
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation			
 Formation of nouns using a range of prefixes (super-, anti-, auto-) Use of 'a' or 'an' according to whether the next word starts with a vowel 	 Use of prepositions (during, in, because of, before, after), adverbs (next, soon, therefore) and conjunctions (when, while, after, because, soon, while) to express time and cause Formation of subordinate clauses using subordinating conjunctions Use of rhetorical questions 	 Introduce paragraphs as a way to group related information, e.g. write an introduction to show why you are debating the issue, for example, 'There is always a lot of disagreement about x and people's views vary a lot.' group arguments for and arguments against in separate paragraphs Use of subheadings e.g. use headings to present arguments for and arguments against 	Use of inverted commas to punctuate direct quotes			
Year 4						
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation			
 Standard forms of English verb inflections (we were rather than we was, I did rather than I done) Use of articles (a, an, the) and possessive pronouns (my, his, her, their etc) as determiners 	 Use of a wider range of subordinating conjunctions Use of preposition phrases, subordinate clauses and noun phrases as fronted adverbials to indicate time, place, manner or frequency Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and preposition phrases e.g. 'most 	 Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme e.g. consider different sides of an argument, presenting them in separate paragraphs, and decide on a course of action/personal stance, summarising reasons in a final paragraph Appropriate choice of pronoun (person or possessive) or noun, 	 Use of commas after fronted adverbials e.g. use connecting adverbs/adverbials to present further justification of a point of view, for example, furthermore, in addition, also Apostrophes for plural possession 			

knowledge of the subject', 'all dogs with a history of violence', 'all the sporty girls in the class' aid cohesion and ave repetition, e.g. use a nouns referring to the subject e.g. many do argue thatthey go thatthese animal lo make the point that	me owners o state
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Discussion in Upper Key Stage 2

Suggested contexts: formal & informal letters , balanced arguments, debate, newspaper reports

Year 5					
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation		
 Converting nouns or adjectives into verbs using suffixes (-ate, - ify, -ise) Verb prefixes (dis-, de-, mis-, over-, re-) 	 Use of relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that or an omitted relative pronoun e.g. follow generic statements with more specific examples, for example, 'There are those however who disagree. Mr T Rexus, who is a well-respected palaeontologist, has argued instead that' Indicating degrees of possibility using adverbs [for example, perhaps, surely] e.g. use adverbs of possibility to help express a personal opinion in the final paragraph, for example, 'With the growing amount of evidence in this area, perhaps now is the time to accept the argument that' 	 Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph (then, after, that, this, firstly Use of adverbs of time (soon, later, after), place (nearby) and number (secondly) to link ideas across paragraphs Tense choice to link ideas (he had seen her before) Use of correlating conjunctions 	 Brackets, dashes and commas to indicate parenthesis Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity 		

	Year 6						
	Word	Sentence		Text	Punctuation		
•	Difference between formal and informal vocabulary and structures Formal verb inflections	 Use of modal verbs to indicate degree of certainty Use of the passive voice Use of subjunctive form 	•	Use of a wider range of cohesive devices to link ideas across paragraphs e.g. build and use a range of connecting adverbs to move between opposing views, for example, on the other hand, in contrast, alternatively, conversely, on the contrary, in opposition. o repetition of a word or phrase o use of a wider range of adverbials o ellipsis o paired arguments vs grouped arguments	Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses e.g. use colons to: introduce questions for discussion, for example,. 'the pressing issue now is: what should happen to?'; introduce a quotation to support a viewpoint, for example, 'supporters of this view often refer to the well-known proverb: 'treat others as you would wish to be treated'; to prepare the reader for a revelation of the author's opinion in the final paragraph, for example, 'The final conclusion is therefore clear in my mind: animal testing must be banned immediately'.		

Non-Chronological/information texts (Based on National Strategy Documents)

<u>Purpose</u>: To provide detailed information about the way things are or were; To help readers/listeners understand what is being described by organising or categorising information

Non-chronological reports describe things the way they are, so they usually present information in an objective way. Sometimes, the selection of information by the writer can result in a biased report. As with all text types, variants occur and non-chronological reports can be combined with other text types. A text that is essentially a non-chronological report written in the present tense may include other text types such as other types of report, e.g. when a specific example is provided to add detail to a statement. (Sharks are often seen around the coasts of Britain but they rarely attack people. In 2006, a man was surfing in Cornwall when he was badly bitten but it was the only incident recorded there for twenty years.)

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In the absence of a temporal (chronological) structure where events happen in a particular order, non-chronological reports usually have a logical structure. They tend to group information, often moving from general to more specific detail and examples or elaborations. A common structure includes:

- an opening statement, often a general classification (Sparrows are birds);
- sometimes followed by a more detailed or technical classification (Their Latin name is ...);
- a description of whatever is the subject of the report organised in some way to help the reader make sense of the information:
 - > its qualities (Like most

Language features

- o Often written in the **third person** and **present tense**. (They like to build their nests ... It is a cold and dangerous place to live.)
- Sometimes written in the past tense, as in a historical report. (Children were poorly fed and clothed and they did dangerous work.)
- o The **passive voice** is frequently used to avoid personalisation, to avoid naming the agent of a verb, to add variety to sentences or to maintain an appropriate level of formality for the context and purpose of writing. (Sparrows are found in ... Sharks are hunted ... Gold is highly valued ...)
- Tends to focus on generic subjects (Dogs) rather than specific subjects (My dog Ben).
- Description is usually an important feature, including the language of comparison and contrast. (Polar bears are the biggest carnivores of

Knowledge for the writer

- Plan how you will organise the information you want to include, e.g. use paragraph headings, a spideraram or a arid.
- o Gather information from a wide range of sources and collect it under the headings you've planned.
- Consider using a question in the title to interest your reader (Vitamins – why are they so important?).
- Try to find a new way to approach the subject and compose an opening that will attract the reader or capture their interest. Use the opening to make very clear what you are writing about.
- Include tables, diagrams or images (e.g. imported photographs or drawings) that add or summarise information.
- Find ways of making links with your

Key elements to achieve progression

- Speaking and listening preceding reading and writing.
- Teacher modelling, scribing and shared writing before children's independent attempt.
- Increased understanding by the children of the form and features of the text type and then increasing ability to manipulate elements of various text-types to fulfil a writing purpose.
- Increasing complexity, such as length, obscurity of task, adding additional features such as diagrams.
- Increasing ability to evaluate texts and their own work.

>	birds, sparrows have feathers.); its parts and their	all. They hibernate, just like other bears. A polar bear's nose is as black as a piece of coal.)	0	reader, addressing them personally. Re-read the report as if you know	
>	functions (The beak is small and strong so that it can); its habits/behaviour/uses (Sparrows nest in).	 Description is generally used for precision rather than to create an emotional response so imagery is not heavily used. 	0	nothing about its subject. Check that information is logically organised and clear. Use other text-types within your report if they will make it more effective for your purpose and	

audience.

	Suggested approaches to show progression in Non-Chronological texts (as from Herts for Learning)
Reception	 Describe something/someone (possibly after drawing it/them). Develop the description in response to prompts or questions (what does she like to eat? Has she a favourite toy?) Ask similar probing questions to elicit a fuller description from someone else. Links statements orally and sticks to a main theme or intention In a shared reading context read information books and look at/re-read the books independently Experiment with writing labels, captions and sentences for pictures or drawings in a variety of play, exploratory and role-play situations e.g. when being a dinosaur detective, a child wrote a report on fossils for the dinosaur museum Grammar opportunities Break the flow of speech into words Write simple sentences, in meaningful contexts, that can be read by themselves and others
Year 1	 Find out about a subject by listening and following the text as information books are read, or when watching a video Contribute to a discussion on the subject as information is assembled and the teacher writes the information Assemble information on a subject from their own experience e.g. food, pets Write a simple non-chronological report by writing sentences to describe aspects of the subject
Year 2	 After a practical activity, or undertaking some research in books or the web, take part in a discussion, generalising from repeated occurrences or observations Through reading, recognise that description is generally used for precision rather than to create an emotional response so imagery is not heavily used Distinguish between a description of a single member of a group and the group in general e.g. a particular dog and dogs in general. Read texts containing information in a simple report format, e.g. There are two sorts of x; They live in x; The As have x, but the Bs etc. Assemble information on another subject and use the text as a template for writing a report on it, using appropriate language to present and categorise ideas
Year 3	 Analyse a number of report texts and note their function, form and typical language features, e.g introduction indicating an overall classification of what is being described - use of short statement at the start of each paragraph to introduce each new topic - language (specific and sometimes technical) to describe and differentiate - impersonal language Explore, and begin to incorporate into their own writing, the language of comparison and contrast e.g. They hibernate just like other bears. / All bees sting apart from the (build up banks of other possible words/phrases e.g. except for, including/not including, instead of) revisit the use of –er and –est when formulating adjectives – see year 2 Turn notes into sentences grouping information Note how writing often moves from general to more specific detail Write (non-comparative) non-chronological reports, independently, including the use of organisational devices to aid conciseness, such as headings, based on notes from several sources

Year 4	Analyse a number of report texts and note their function, form and typical language features recognising that they are often written in the present tense
	• Compare with some examples of reports written in the past tense, as in a historical report e.g. Children as young as seven worked in factories. They were poorly fed and clothed and they did dangerous work.
	Develop research and note-taking techniques
	 Teacher demonstrates how to write non-chronological report using notes in a spidergram In reading, analyse a comparative and non-comparative reports and note the difference e.g. reports that deal with a single (albeit
	wide-ranging) topic, for example, British Birds, and those that deal with two or more topics for example, Frogs and Toads
	Write own non-comparative reports, based on notes from several sources, helping the reader to understand what is being described
	by organising or categorising information
Year 5	• Collect information to write a report in which two or more subjects are compared, (e.g.) spiders and beetles; solids, liquids and gases, observing that a grid rather than a spidergram is appropriate for representing the information
	 Consider using a question in the title to interest the reader (Vitamins – why are they so important?).
	Write short non-chronological comparative report focusing on clarity, conciseness and impersonal style
	• Explore the use of a more personal style in some reports and use this in their own writing when appropriate e.g. So, next time you
	choose a pet, why not consider getting a dog. After all, everyone knows that a dog is a man's best friend.
Year 6	Write reports as part of a presentation on a non-fiction subject
	Choose the appropriate style and form of writing to suit a specific purpose and audience, drawing on knowledge of different non-fiction text types
	Plan how information will be organised, e.g. choosing to use paragraph headings, a spidergram or a grid, depending on the nature of the information
	Approach the subjects and compose an opening, subsequent paragraphs and a conclusion that will attract the reader and capture their interest throughout

Non-Chronological/Information writing in Key Stage 1 Suggested contexts: spidergrams, labelled diagrams, note taking, class books on a theme, leaflets Year 1 Word Sentence Text Punctuation Use of regular plural noun Oral rehearsal of sentence Sequencing sentences to Separatina words with spaces Use of capital letters and full stops suffixes form short passages structure Joining words and joining Suffixes that can be added to to demarcate sentences verbs where no change is clauses using 'and' and Introduction of auestion marks and needed in the spelling of root 'because' exclamation marks words (e.a. helpina, helped, Third person Use of capital letters for names and for the personal pronoun I helper) Use of the prefix un- to change the meaning of verbs and adverbs Year 2 Punctuation Word Sentence Text Use of capital letters, full stops, Formation of nouns using suffixes Functions of sentence types: Correct choice and use of auestion marks and exclamation (-ness, -er) statement, command, present tense or past tense Formation of adjectives using exclamation or auestion throughout writing marks to demarcate sentences suffixes (-ful, -less) (rhetorical) Explore the use of capitalisation for Use of -er and -est in adjectives Expanded noun phrases to common and proper nouns in the describe and specify (use of Formation of nouns by context of reports, for example, adjectives before the noun Bees belong to a larger family of compounding identify the use of factual or preposition phrase after insects known as Apoidea. Commas to separate items in a list adjectives to give significant the noun) detail, often clarifying colour, ollect and use examples of Apostrophes for singular possession position or size e.a. scaly bodies noun phrases to generalise explore the inappropriateness of e.g. most butterflies, some 'empty' adjectives which do not insects, all hedgehogs, and help the reader to learn more consider their meaning Explore the difference about the topic e.g. pretty wings • between proper nouns and general nouns, and identify

 their use in this text type Use of collective nouns Use of coordinating (and, or, but) and subordinating conjunctions (when, if, that, 	
because)	

Non-Chronological/ Information writing in Lower Key Stage 2					
Suggested contexts: leaflets, page for information book, letters, guide books, descriptions					
	Ye	ar 3			
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation		
 Use of 'a' or 'an' according to whether the next word starts with a vowel Use of 'a' or 'an' according to whether the next word starts with a vowel Word families based on common words showing how words are related in form and meaning 	 Use of prepositions (instead of, because of) adverbs (therefore, however) and conjunctions (also, consequently, likewise,) to express cause and place Use of preposition phrases as adverbials to express cause or place Collect and use examples of prepositional phrases to clarify physical features, for example, Ants do not have lungs. They have tiny holes all over their body which they breathe through. Include exploration of prepositions to clarify position, for example, Ants build their mounds in sand or soil. Include exploration of similes (using 'as' and 'like') and consider how these are used to specify rather than for literary effect, for example, Bees have tubes instead of mouths. The tube is like a straw. A polar bear's nose is as 	 Use of present perfect verb form – Hedgehogs have lived in this area for many years introduce paragraphs as a way to group related information e.g. organise information about a topic into obvious groupings, for example, appearance, feeding habits etc Headings and sub headings to aid presentation 	Consolidation of all KS1 punctuation		

 black as a piece of coal. Use of subordinating conjunctions as adverbials to express cause Formation of subordinate clauses using subordinating conjunctions 	
Note the lack of use of 'adverbs of time' in this text type, drawing attention to the difference between recounts (which are structured chronologically) and non-chronological reports	

Year 4				
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation	
 Standard forms of English verb inflections (we were rather than we was, I did rather than I done) Draw attention to importance of subject verb agreements e.g. family is, people are Use of articles (a, an, the) and possessive pronouns (my, his, her, their etc) as determiners Note how writing often moves from general to more specific detail, exploring how determiners are used to indicate this shift in focus e.g. Dogs have an exceptional sense of smell. A dog can pick up a scent from a significant distance away. The (breed of dog) is known to have the most sensitive sense of smell. 	 Use of a wider range of subordinating conjunctions (although, however, despite, therefore) Explore how subordination and coordination can help the writer move from the general to the more specific within one sentence, for example, Most bees are black or grey, but/however some are bright red, yellow or metallic green. Use of preposition phrases and subordinate clauses as fronted adverbials to indicate place, manner or frequency Fronted adverbials e.g. collect and use a range of adverbials that can be used to draw similarities, for example, 'Like most birds, swallows like to', 'As well as honeybees,',' On the whole,', 'Just like honeybees, bumble bees like to' Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and preposition phrases e.g. continue building banks of noun phrases used to generalise (see year 2) 	 Appropriate choice of pronoun (person or possessive) or noun, within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme e.g. begin to explore more subtle paragraph breaks, or paragraph breaks within headed sections of reports and consider how the author organised the information 	 Use of commas after fronted adverbials Apostrophes for plural possession 	

Non-Chronological/Information writing in Upper Key Stage 2 Suggested contexts: descriptions, projects, guide book for visit, prospectus, formal & informal letters Year 5 Punctuation Sentence Word Text Converting nouns or adjectives Use of relative clauses Devices to build cohesion Brackets, dashes and into verbs using suffixes (-ate, beginning with who, which, within a paragraph (then, commas to indicate ify. -ise) where, when, whose, that or after, that, this, firstly) parenthesis e.a. explore Verb prefixes (dis-, de-, mis-, an omitted relative pronoun Use of adverbials of place when the author chooses to > explore how noun phrases (nearby) and number over-, re-) parenthesise information using are most commonly (secondly) to link ideas across brackets and when the author expanded using the paraaraphs uses a dash/comma instead pronouns 'which' and Use of addition, reinforcing and and draw generalisations from 'that' in this text type, for opposina adverbs this example, They have a long Indicating degrees of possibility Explore when commas are thin proboscis which is using adverbs e.g. explore the used to parenthesise relative use of adverbs and adverbials inserted into small flowers. clauses and when they are not such as Primroses, to drink to provide generalised Use of commas to clarify information (these can provide nectar. meaning or avoid ambiguity > explore the impact on a 'aet-out clause' for the clarity when these relative writer), for example, usually, clauses are omitted commonly, mostly Fronted adverbials e.a. collect and use a range of adverbials that can be used to draw

similarities and differences

	Year 6			
	Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation
•	Difference between formal and informal vocabulary and structures Formal verb inflections	Use of the passive to affect the presentation of information in a sentence e.g. explore how the passive can be used to: avoid personalisation; avoid naming the agent of a verb; add variety to sentences or to maintain an appropriate level of formality for the context and purpose of writing, for example, Sparrows are found in Sharks are hunted Gold is highly valued Use of subjunctive form	 Use of a wider range of cohesive devices to link ideas across paragraphs repetition of a word or phrase use of a wider range of adverbials ellipsis Use of a range of layout devices to structure text headings & subheadings columns & bullet points tables & diagrams 	 Use of semi-colon, colon or dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses Use of bullet points, semi-colons & colons to punctuate lists Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses, for example, explore how the colon can be used to create different effects to lead the reader to a revelation of information e.g. The relationship between these eco-systems is complex: each depends on the survival of the other. There is a major advantage to this feature: it allows the to introduce a quote/motto e.g. There is an old, muchloved saying: 'A dog is a man's best friend.'

Recounts (Based on National Strategy Documents)

<u>Purpose</u>: The primary purpose of recounts is to retell events. Their most common intentions are to inform and/or entertain but they may also be written in a style so as to persuade.

Recounts are sometimes referred to as 'accounts'. They can have a range of purposes, frequently depending on the genre being used, and they often set out to achieve a deliberate effect on the reader/listener. In non-fiction texts they are used to provide an account of events. Recounts can be combined with other text types, for example, newspaper reports of an event often consist of a recount that includes elements of explanation. Recounting or retelling personal events is fundamental to young children's lives. The readiness and ease with which they do it orally makes it an obvious starting point for developing writing. In fact, for most children, sharing each other's personal recounts and writing them down probably precedes their reading many of them. Personal recount is an early text for children to write but it branches into many forms in upper KS2. Opportunities to listen to, speak, read and write recount texts occur in all areas of the curriculum.

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Generic structure	Language features	Knowledge for the writer	Key elements to achieve progression			
 Orientation/ introduction such as scene-setting or establishing context An account of the events that took place, often but not always, in chronological order. This will often include direct quotes or reported speech; some additional detail about each event; Reorientation, e.g. a closing statement/ conclusion that may include elaboration. Structure sometimes reorganises the chronology 	 Usually written in the past tense. Some parts may use present tense. Events being recounted may have a chronological order so sequencing adverbs are common (then, next, first, afterwards, just before that, at last, meanwhile). The subject of a recount tends to focus on individual or group participants or an event (third person: they all shouted, she crept out, it looked like an animal of some kind). Reported speech or direct quotes may be used. These can include the use of perfect and progressive verb forms. 	 Plan how you will organise the way you retell the events. You could use a timeline to help you plan. Details are important to create a recount rather than a simple list of events in order. Try using When? Where? Who? What? Why? questions to help you plan what to include. Decide how you will finish the recount. You'll need a definite ending, perhaps a summary or a comment on what happened (I think our school trip to the Science Museum was the best we have ever had). Read the text through as if you don't know anything about what it is being recounted. Is it 	 speaking and listening preceding reading and writing Teacher modelling, scribing and shared writing before children's independent attempt. increased understanding by the children of the form and features of the text type and then increasing ability to manipulate elements of various text-types to fulfil a writing purpose increasing complexity, such as length, obscurity of task, adding additional features such as diagrams increasing ability to evaluate texts and their own work 			

of events using techniques such as flashbacks, moving the focus backwards and forwards in time but these strategies are more often used in fiction recounts.	clear what happened and when? o Is the style right for the genre you are using? (Technical/formal language to recount a science experiment, powerful verbs and vivid description to recount an adventure, impersonal when writing a news report, informal, personal language to tell your
	adventure, impersonal when
	friends about something funny that happened to you.)

	Suggested approaches to show progression in <u>Recount texts</u> (as from Herts for Learning)
Reception	 Informally recount incidents in own life to other children or adults and listen to others doing the same Experiment with writing in a variety of play, exploratory and role-play situations Write sentences to match pictures or sequences of pictures illustrating an event Use experience of simple recounts as a basis for shared composition with an adult focusing on retelling, substituting or extending, leading to simple independent writing about a known event e.g. what they did on a school trip Grammar opportunities Break the flow of speech into words Write simple sentences that can be read by themselves and others Attempt to write short sentences in meaningful contexts e.g. I saw/I went
Year 1	 Describe incidents from own experience in chronological order using basic sequencing words and phrases, for example, 'then', 'after that' Listen to other's recounts and ask relevant questions to find out more about the event being recounted Read personal recounts and begin to recognise generic structure, e.g. chronologically ordered sequence of events, use of time words like first, next, after, when Write simple first person recounts linked to events of interest/study or to personal experience, incorporating at least three chronological 'events' in order, maintaining past tense and consistent use of first person
Year 2	 Discuss the sequence of events recounted in texts at a level beyond which they can read independently Collect a wider range of words and phrases to support chronology e.g. next, when, after, before, finally, at the end of the day Read recounted information and discuss how information is related e.g. What happened first? What happened after that? What was the final event? Create simple timelines to record the order of events Write narratives about personal experiences and those of others, in role (real and fictional)
Year 3	 Watch or listen to third person recounts such as news or sports reports on television, radio or podcasts and identify the sequence of main events Note the inclusion on relevant, but non-essential detail, to interest and engage the reader Continue to build banks of words supporting chronology, noting those that indicate specific timings e.g. at 3pm, after two hours Build banks of descriptive verbs to add detail and description; use well-chosen verbs in own recounts Read examples of third person recounts such as letters, newspaper reports and diaries and recount the same event in a variety of ways, such as in the form of a story, a letter, a news report Write impersonal newspaper-style reports, e.g. about school events or an incident from a story including relevant, additional detail to add interest
Year 4	 Explore and compare texts that recount the same event: evaluate and identify those that are more effective at engaging the reader; those that convey a specific viewpoint and those that present recounts from different perspectives

Year 5	 Write recounts based on the same subject such as a field trip, a match or a historical event for two contrasting audiences such as a close friend and an unknown reader, reflecting on the level of formality required Practise writing recounts with word limits so that pupils are forced to consider the conciseness of their writing, whilst still trying to maintain the engagement of the reader
Year 6	Distinguish between biography and autobiography, recognising the effect on the reader of the choice between first and third person, distinguishing between fact, opinion and fiction, distinguishing between implicit and explicit points of view and how these can differ
	• Develop the skills of biographical and autobiographical writing in role, adapting distinctive voices, e.g. of historical characters, through preparing a CV; composing a biographical account based on research or describing a person from different perspectives, e.g. police description, school report, newspaper obituary
	When planning writing, select the appropriate style and form to suit a specific purpose and audience, drawing on knowledge of different non-fiction text types.

	Recounts in Key Stage 1				
	Suggested contexts: interviews, eye witness accounts, diary entries				
		Ye	ar 1		
	Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation	
•	Regular plural noun suffixes –s or –es [for example, dog, dogs; wish, wishes], including the effects of these suffixes on the meaning of the noun	 Oral rehearsal of sentence structure Joining words and joining clauses using 'and' and 'because' First person 	Sequencing sentences to form short passages	 Separating words with spaces Use of capital letters and full stops to demarcate sentences Use of capital letters for names and the pronoun I 	
		Ye	ar 2		
	Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation	
•	Formation of nouns by compounding	 Functions of sentence types: statement, command, exclamation or question Expanded noun phrases to describe and specify (use of adjectives before the noun or preposition phrase after the noun) e.g. experiment with expanding noun phrases to provide factual detail for the reader, for example, old toys, large room, enormous machines Use of coordinating (and, or, but) and subordinating conjunctions (when, if, that, because) First & third person Subject/ verb agreements 	 Correct choice and use of present tense or past tense throughout writing Use of past progressive form to report events Use of present progressive in direct speech 	 Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences e.g. explore the use of capitalisation for proper nouns used in recount texts, for example, Butterfly Village, Merton, Chaucer Centre Use commas to separate items in a list e.g. explore how commas are used to separate adjectives in lists, for example, a tall, grand building Apostrophes for singular possession 	

Recounts in Lower Key Stage 2					
Suggested contex	Suggested contexts: newspaper reports, diary entries in role, biography & autobiography				
		ar 3			
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation		
 Formation of nouns using a range of prefixes (super-, anti-, auto-) Use of 'a' or 'an' according to whether the next word starts with a vowel 	 Use of prepositions (during, in, because of, before, after), e.g. provide further detail through giving examples beginning with 'such as', 'like' e.g. The class learned about lots of new butterflies such as Tortoiseshell and Emperor. Use of adverbs (next, soon, therefore) and conjunctions (when, while, after, because, soon, while) to express time and cause Formation of subordinate clauses using subordinating conjunctions Use of rhetorical questions 	 Introduce paragraphs as a way to group related information explore the content of introductory paragraphs, identifying answers to the questions: What? Who? When? Where? Include this information concisely in own recounts e.g. Last week, class 3c travelled to Butterfly Village to find out more about these fascinating creatures. Write finishing lines for a final paragraph that indicate the conclusion of the recount, and include a simple summary e.g. The day ended with a talk by a butterfly expert. The whole class enjoyed a great day. Use of present and past perfect verb forms to reports events or quote direct speech Headlines and subheadings 	Use of inverted commas to punctuate direct quotes		

	Year 4			
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation	
 Standard forms of English verb inflections (we were rather than we was, I did rather than I done) Use of articles (a, an, the) and possessive pronouns (my, his, her, their etc) as determiners 	 Use of a wider range of subordinating conjunctions Use of prepositions (during, in, because of, before, after), adverbs (next, soon, therefore) and conjunctions (when, while, after, because, soon, while) to express time and cause Use of subordinate clauses as adverbials to express time and cause Explore and manage the shift between past and present tense in recounts e.g. present tense to describe on-going events/topics/things, compared with past tense to recount the actual event e.g. Butterfly Village houses a vast array of butterfly species, some of which are very rare (present). Class 4G visited this intriguing attraction last week and were stunned by the number of natural wonders waiting to be discovered there (past). 	 Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme develop the final paragraph as a way of summarising the event in greater detail, for example, not simply stating the final event in the timeline, but providing an insight into the impact of the event on participants, or offering an insight into the future e.g. 'No doubt, year 5 children will continue to be amazed by this fascinating attraction for years to come.' support pupils to begin selecting some words and phrases that support the 'theme' of the recount e.g. a positive event will use positive imagery/word choices throughout (to be developed in year 5) Appropriate choice of pronoun (person or possessive) or noun, within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition Headlines and subheadings 	 Use of commas after fronted adverbials Use of inverted commas where speech is preceded by the speaker. Explore how direct speech is used in recount to engage the reader, and explore where the speech is used within the text e.g. as the opening line (draw the reader in immediately); in the conclusion to support summarising, for example, One year 4 pupil summed up the day on behalf of the whole class, 'That was the best school trip ever!' Apostrophes for plural possession 	

Recounts in Upper Key Stage 2

Suggested contexts: application across a range of subject areas and contexts - biography & autobiography, newspaper reports, formal & informal letters

autopiography, newspaper reports, format & informatierters				
	Ye	ar 5		
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation	
Verb prefixes (dis-, de-, mis-, over-, re-)	 Use of relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that or an omitted relative pronoun Use of modal verbs to indicate degree of certainty, adverbs of degree Precise use of preposition phrases, subordinate clauses and noun phrases as adverbials to indicate time, place, manner or frequency. Explore the use of reported versus direct speech and compare the effect e.g. reported – for summing up opinions and glossing over detail; direct speech – for impact e.g. sharing a pertinent view or influential quote Explore the use of personal versus impersonal writing and decide when each is appropriate Explore the balance of long, complicated sentence constructions within this text type, compared with shorter, simple sentence constructions, noting the need for both Explore the use of short, simple sentences to summarise; orientate the reader; dramatic impact Explore the use of longer, complex sentences (with multiple clauses) to convey complex information 	 Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph (then, after, that, this, firstly) Use of adverbs of time (soon, later, after), place (nearby) and number (secondly) to link ideas across paragraphs Tense choice to link ideas (perfect and progressive forms, simple past & present tense) Explore recounts where the chronology is indicated by layout, paragraphing and ordering, rather than more obvious chronology words and phrases 	Brackets, dashes and commas to indicate parenthesis explore how dashes are less commonly used in more formal texts experiment with moving clauses and phrases around in the text, considering the impact on engaging the reader Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity	

	Year 6		
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation
Difference between formal and informal vocabulary and structures	 Use of the passive voice to affect the presentation of information in a sentence, for example, explore how passives can be used to create dramatic cliff hangers e.g. It was at that point that his life was thrown out of control. Use of subjunctive form for formal speech and structures Reported speech 	 Use of a wider range of cohesive devices to link ideas across paragraphs repetition of a word or phrase use of a wider range of adverbials for effect ellipsis use connectives to create contrast concisely summarising the complexity of certain situations (e.g. of a negative experience with a positive) e.g. His life was sent into turmoil, yet despite all of the uncertainty and danger surrounding him, he managed to stay positive. Opening and closing lines of paragraphs support movement across the text e.g. The encounter affected him deeply and so he decided to focus his efforts on helping destitute children. In 1870, Barnardo opened his first shelter for homeless boys in Stepney Causeway Use of a range of layout devices to structure text headings & subheadings columns & captions 	 Use of semi-colon, colon or dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses Explore how colons can be used to increase the impact of key quotations which give an insight into a person's motives and life choices e.g. Throughout her life, her father's words remained with her: 'Reach for the stars!' Explore how colons can be used to lead to a 'big reveal' of a person's actions e.g. It was then that she made her most important decision: she quit university and established her own company.

Instruction texts (Based on National Strategy Documents)

<u>Purpose</u>: Instructions, rules and procedures aim to ensure something is done correctly and a successful outcome achieved. If there is a process to be undertaken this is given in the order in which in needs to be undertaken to achieve a successful outcome -usually a series of sequenced steps.

Like all text types, variants of instructions occur and they can be combined with other text types. They may be visual only (e.g. a series of diagrams with an image for each step in the process) or a combination of words and images. Instructions and procedural texts are found in all areas of the curriculum and include rules for games, recipes, instructions for making something and directions.

ŀ	Generic structure	Language features	Knowledge for the writer	Key elements to achieve progression
	 Begin by defining the goal or desired outcome. (How to make a board game.) List any material or equipment needed, in order. Provide simple, clear instructions. If a process is to be undertaken, keep to the order in which the steps need to be followed to achieve the stated goal. Diagrams or illustrations are often integral and may even take the place of some text. (Diagram B shows you how to connect the wires). 	 Use of imperative verbs (commands), e.g. Cut the card Paint your design Instructions may include negative commands. (Do not use any glue at this stage.) Additional advice (It's a good idea to leave it overnight if you have time. If the mixture separates) or suggested alternatives (If you would like to make a bigger decoration, you could either double the dimensions of the base or just draw bigger flowers.). 	 Use the title to show what the instructions are about. (How to look after goldfish.) Before writing instructions be clear about what is needed and what has to be done, in what order. Decide on the important points you need to include at each stage. Decide how formal or informal the text will be. (Cook for 20 minutes/Pop your cheesecake in the oven for 20 minutes.) Present the text clearly. Think about using bullet points, numbers or letters to help your reader keep track as they work their way through each step. Use bullet points, numbers or letters to help the reader. Use short clear sentences so the reader does not become muddled. Avoid unnecessary adjectives and adverbs or technical words, especially if your readers are young. Appeal directly to the reader's 	 Speaking and listening before reading and writing. Teacher modelling, scribing and shared writing before children's independent attempt. Increased understanding by the children of the form and features of instruction writing and then increasing ability to adapt writing for the audience and purpose Increasing complexity, such as length, obscurity of task, adding additional features such as diagrams Increasing ability to evaluate texts and their own work Careful planning of where and how the genre could best be covered in the curriculum, and which year groups.

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	Suggested approaches to show progression in <u>Instruction texts</u> (as from Herts for Learning)
Reception	Responds to instructions involving a two-part sequence
	Give oral instructions when playing
	Writes own name and other things such as labels, captions
	Children follow instructions involving several ideas or actions
	Grammar Focus:
	Write simple sentences which can be read by themselves and others following a practical activity .e.g. 'How to get ready for
	Red Nose Day' or 'How to look after a mini beast'.
	Use imperative verbs in both talk and writing e.g. put, get
Year 1	Listen to and follow a single more detailed instruction and a longer series of instructions
	Plan and give clear single oral instructions
	Routinely read and follow written classroom labels carrying instructions
	Read and follow short series of instructions in shared context
	Contribute to class composition of instructions with teacher scribing
	Write consecutive instructions independently
Year 2	Listen to and follow a series of more complex instructions
	Read and follow simple sets of instructions such as recipes, plans, constructions which include diagrams
	Analyse some instructional texts and note their function, form and typical language features:
	Include: a statement of purpose, list of materials or ingredients, sequential steps,
	Use direct/imperative language
	As part of a group with the teacher, compose a set of instructions with additional diagrams
	Write extended instructions independently e.g. getting to school, playing a game
Lower key	Read and follow increasingly complex instructions
stage 2	Read and compare examples of instructional text, evaluating their effectiveness.
	Analyse more complicated instructions and identify organisational devices which make them easier to follow, e.g. lists,
	numbered, bulleted points, diagrams with arrows, keys
	• Research a particular area (e.g. playground games) and work in small groups to prepare a set of oral instructions. Try these out
	with other children and evaluate their effectiveness
	Independently write clear written instructions using simple devices to aid the reader

Upper key stage 2

- In group work, give clear oral instructions to achieve the completion of a complex task.
- Follow oral instructions of increased complexity
- Evaluate sets of instructions (including attempting to follow some of them) for purpose, organisation and layout, clarity and usefulness
- Identify sets of instructions which are for more complex procedures, or are combined with other text types (e.g. some recipes)
- Compare these in terms of audience/purpose and form (structure and language features)
- Write a set of extended instructions (using appropriate form and features) and test them out on other people, revise and try them out again
- Choose the appropriate form of writing and style to suit a specific purpose and audience drawing on knowledge of different non-fiction text types
- Interweave the use of diagrams and illustrations, using these to take the place of text where a visual would make the instructions easier to follow e.g. Diagram B shows you how to connect the wires
- Use the language conventions and grammatical features of the different types of text as appropriate

Instructions in Key Stage 1						
	Suggested contexts: recipes & familiar games					
		ar 1				
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation			
Note: Many of the year 2 statements will need to be addressed in year 1 in order to ensure progression from FS in the context of this text type.	 Oral rehearsal of sentence structure Joining words and joining clauses using 'and' and 'because' First person 	Sequencing sentences to form short passages	 Separating words with spaces Use of capital letters and full stops to demarcate sentences Introduction to exclamation marks and question marks Use of capital letters for names and the pronoun I 			
	Ye	ar 2				
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation			
Formation of nouns by compounding Generate synonyms for over-used imperative verbs, for example, chop, slice, cut	 Functions of sentence types: statement, command, exclamation or question write titles to show what the instructions are about, for example, how to look after goldfish explore and generate negative commands, for example, Do not open the oven door Expanded noun phrases to describe and specify (use of adjectives before the noun or preposition phrase after the noun) e.g. use expanded noun phrases to be specific about materials 	 Correct choice and use of present tense or past tense throughout writing Use of past progressive form to report events Use of present progressive in direct speech 	 Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences Use commas to separate items in a list e.g. use commas to separate items in the 'materials/equipment needed' list Apostrophes for singular possession 			

or equipment needed, for example, a large bucket, sharp scissors, thick card • Use of coordinating (and, or, but) and subordinating conjunctions (when, if, that, because) e.g. clarify instructions using subordination, for example, Take the cake out of the oven when the top looks golden brown.	
First & third personSubject/ verb agreements	

	Instructions in Lower Key Stage 2				
	Suggested co	ntexts: procedural texts in	science & DT, instructions	in computing	
		Yeo	ar 3		
	Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation	
•	Formation of nouns using a range of prefixes (super-, anti-, auto-) Use of 'a' or 'an' according to whether the next word starts with a vowel	 Use of prepositions (during, in, because of, before, after), e.g. through reading instructions written to give directions, build up and use a wide range of prepositions used to indicate and clarify position, for example, under the bridge, around the pond, through the deep, dark woods Use of adverbs (next, soon, therefore) e.g. through reading, build up and use a wide range of adverbs used to sequence instructions Use of conjunctions (when, while, after, because, soon, while) to express time and cause e.g. build on the range of conjunctions used in year 2 to extend instructions Formation of subordinate clauses using subordinating conjunctions 	 Introduce paragraphs as a way to group related information e.g. explore instructions that have clear sections, for examples, introduction, equipment needed, procedure, additional advice, conclusions. Use of present and past perfect verb forms to reports events or quote direct speech Headlines and subheadings to organise information and aid presentation 	Consolidation of Key stage 1 punctuation	

	Year 4				
	Word	Sentence	Text Punctuation		
•	Standard forms of English verb inflections (we were rather than we was, I did rather than I done) e.g. investigate instructions with differing levels of formality and decide on an appropriate register when writing their own, for example, 'Cook for 20 mins' compared with 'Pop the cheesecake in the oven for 20 minutes' Use of articles (a, an, the) as determiners	 adverbials to express time, cause or place Use of Fronted adverbials Use of subordinate clauses ass adverbials to express time and cause e.g. once the mixture has settled use the conjunction 'if' to start complex sentences which give additional advice, for example, 'If the mixture separates,' compare the clarity of the instruction when the adverbial or subordinate clause is fronted, for example, 'Remove the cake from the oven when it turns golden brown' compared with 'When the cake turns ideas arou write instruction write instruction advice, compared introduction needed, particular advice, compared within and advice, for example, 'Remove the clarity of the instruction use of nou instruction the children nouns are (rather the pronouns) clarity 	und a theme e.g. uctions that have tions, for example, ion, equipment procedure, additional conclusions at choice of pronoun or possessive) or noun, d across sentences to sion and avoid n.e.g.nvestigate the tuns and pronouns in nal texts and support ren to realise that e often repeated tan replaced with sty to ensure greater s and subheadings		

Instructions in Upper Key Stage 2

Suggested contexts: application across a range of subject areas and contexts – build into explanatory or report texts, cross genre texts (e.g. a recipe for an adventure...)

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real 3			
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation
• Verb prefixes (dis-, de-, mis-, over-, re-)	 Use of relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that or an omitted relative pronoun Precise use of preposition phrases, subordinate clauses and noun phrases as adverbials to indicate time, place, manner or frequency. Explore the balance of long, complicated sentence constructions within this text type, compared with shorter, simple sentence constructions, noting the need for both 	 Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph (then, after, that, this, firstly) Use of adverbs of time (soon, later, after), place (nearby) and number (secondly) to link ideas across paragraphs 	 Brackets, dashes and commas to indicate parenthesis Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity identify effective examples of instructions and use these to study the nature of the sentence construction used note the use of relatively simple sentence constructions, which include a limited number of additional clauses and phrases note where sentences could have been combined to create a more sophisticated, complex construction, but where the author has chosen a more simplistic construction to aid the reader in following the steps practise simplifying overly complicated instructions by reducing the complexity of the sentence construction

Year 6			
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation
Difference between formal and informal vocabulary and structures	Precise use of preposition phrases, subordinate clauses and noun phrases as adverbials to indicate time, place, manner or frequency.	 Use of a wider range of cohesive devices to link ideas across paragraphs e.g. further explore the repetition of subject nouns in effective instructional texts (see year 4), rather than the use of pronouns which may cause confusion Use of a range of layout devices to structure text headings & subheadings columns & captions bullet points & tables Experiment with using different layout devices and evaluate the effectiveness of these 	 Use of semi-colon, colon or dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses Use of the colon to introduce a list and use of semi-colons within lists e.g. further explore the simplistic nature of sentence constructions in this text type (see year 5)

Features of Poetry Forms

Poetry (Based on National Strategy Documents)

<u>Purpose</u>: Poems can have many different purposes, e.g. to amuse, to entertain, to reflect, to convey information, to tell a story, to share knowledge or to pass on cultural heritage. Some forms of poetry are associated with certain purposes, e.g. prayers to thank, celebrate, praise; advertising jingles to persuade; limericks to amuse. Although a poem may share the same purpose as the text type it is related to (e.g. to recount), the context for writing does not always mean that a poem is the most appropriate choice of text type. <u>Reading</u> and writing poetry should form part of the curriculum in every year group, exploring vocabulary and structural choices as well as encouraging children to experiment with language for effect. A range of forms should be covered through each key stage as appropriate to the task.

Poetry is a very wide-ranging type of text and has many purposes and forms. Often written or spoken for an intended reader, it may also be composed for a personal outcome because the concise and powerful nature of poetry conveys emotion particularly well. Like oral storytelling, poetry has strong social and historical links with cultures and communities. The fact that poetry often plays with words makes it an attractive text type for children and one that they experiment with in their early language experiences. Features of other text types are frequently used as the basis for a poem, e.g. lists, dialogue, questions and answers. As children become familiar with a wider range of poetic forms and language techniques they can make increasingly effective use of wordplay to explore and develop ideas through poetry.

ideas inrough poeiry.			
Generic structure	Language features	Knowledge for the writer	
 Poems are often grouped for learning and teaching by theme, structure, form or language features. Themes: poetry selections or anthologies often group poems by their content or subject matter and include different examples of structures. Structure: Poetry has an extremely wide range of 	Poems use the same language features as other text types but each feature is often used more intensively to achieve a concentrated effect, e.g. of mood, humour, and musicality: frequent alliteration, use of imagery or repetitive rhythm. Rhyme is used almost exclusively by poetic text. The language features used depend on context, purpose and audience and also on the intended style of a poem. Different poetic forms tend to use different language features. The most common are rhyme, metre and imagery. Rhyme: many traditional forms use particular rhyme patterns which are usually described using an	 Depending on the kind of poetry being written: observe carefully and include detail, drawing on all your senses; when writing from memory or imagination, create a detailed picture in your mind before you begin writing; be creative about the way you use words – use powerful or unusual vocabulary, or even create new words and phrases; when using few words, make every word count; play with the sounds or meanings of words to add an extra layer of enjoyment for your audience, e.g. use 	

structural variety, from poems that follow a rigid textual structure to those that have only a visual or graphic basis. The most common structures include patterns of rhyme (e.g. ABABCC) or metre (di-dum di-dum). Structures based on syllable counts (such as haiku and some versions of cinquains) are also common. Other structures rely on repetition of grammatical patterns rather than rhythm. For example, some list poems, dialogue poems and auestion and answer poems follow a specific structure even though they don't include rhyme or follow a pattern of line lenath.

alphabetic system. AABBA is the usual rhyme pattern of a limerick. Other common patterns in children's poetry are AABB and ABABCC for each verse. The usual order of clauses or words is sometimes deliberately rearranged to create a rhyme at the end of a line. For example, Did he smile his work to see? Did he who made the lamb make thee? (William Blake 'The Tyger'.) Playing with rhyme and creating nonsense poems is an important element in exploring and manipulating language. Children also need to learn how to avoid the danger of 'forced rhyme' where they use a word simply because it rhymes, not because it is what they want to say.

<u>Metre</u>: rhythm, stress patterns (e.g. **dum**-de, **dum**-de or de-**dum**, de-**dum**), syllable patterns (e.g. 5, 7, 5 syllables in the three lines of a haiku).

Imagery: e.g. simile, metaphor and personification. The effective use of imagery is often a key ingredient in powerful, memorable poetry. Children usually begin using imagery by comparing one thing with another and by saying what something was like.

Rich vocabulary: powerful nouns, verbs, adjectives, invented words and unusual word combinations.

Sound effects: alliteration, assonance (repetition of the same vowel phoneme in the middle of a word, especially where rhyme is absent: cool/food)

onomatopoeia (where the sound of a word suggests its meaning: hiss, splutter).

When a poem does not use rhyme at all, it is often the distinct combination of metre, imagery and vocabulary that distinguishes it from prose. The language effects found in poems can be different across time and cultures because poems reflect the way that language is used by people.

- alliteration or assonance, a pun or double meaning;
- use imagery to help your reader/listener visualise what you are describing but don't weigh the poem down with too many adjectives or similes;
- use the poem's shape or pattern to emphasise meaning, e.g. make an important line stand out by leaving space around it;
- read the text aloud as you draft, to check how it sounds when read aloud or performed;
- improve it by checking that every word does an important job, changing the vocabulary to use more surprising or powerful words;
- use images that help your reader easily imagine what you are writing about – think of comparisons they will recognise from their own lives;
- try to think of new, different ways to describe what things are like and avoid using too many predictable similes (her hair was as white as snow).

	Suggested approaches to show progression in <u>Poetry</u> (as from Herts for Learning)
Reception	 listen to poems being read and talk about likes and dislikes – including ideas or puzzles, words, and patterns join in with class rhymes and poems, "h copy actions enjoy making up funny sentences and playing with words; look carefully at experiences and choose words to describe; make word collections or use simple repeating patterns writes rhyming pairs of words Grammar opportunities extend vocabulary, especially by grouping and naming, explaining the meaning and sounds of new words
Year 1	 discuss own response and what the poem is about; talk about favourite words or parts of a poem; notice the poem's pattern be aware of a significant poet and be able to join in with some of their poems perform in unison, following the rhythm and keeping time imitate and invent actions read aloud clearly enough to be heard by peers and teachers invent impossible ideas, e.g. magical wishes; observe details of first hand experiences using the senses and describe; list words and phrases
Year 2	 talk about own views, the subject matter and possible meanings; comment on which words have most effect, noticing alliteration discuss simple poetry patterns be aware of more than one significant poet and recite one or more of their poems (or sections of their poems) perform individually or together use actions and sound effects to add to the poem's meaning read aloud with appropriate intonation to make the meaning clear experiment with alliteration to create humorous and surprising combinations; make adventurous word choices to describe closely observed experiences; create a pattern or shape on the page; use simple repeating phrases or lines as model
Year 3	 describe the effect a poem has and suggest possible interpretations; discuss the choice of words and their impact, noticing how the poet creates 'sound effects' by using alliteration, rhythm or rhyme and creates pictures using similes; explain the pattern of different simple forms be aware of two or more significant poets, recite one or more of their poems (or sections of their poems) and begin to express a preference

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	perform individually or chorally; vary and controlling volume, experimenting with expression and use pauses for effect
	use actions, voices, sound effects and musical patterns to add to a performance
	invent new similes and experiment with word play;
	use powerful nouns, adjectives and verbs; experiment with alliteration;
	create own free verse poetry
	write own examples of kennings, tankas, haiku
Year 4	describe poem's impact and explain own interpretation by referring to the poem;
	comment on the use of similes and expressive language to create images, sound effects and atmosphere;
	discuss the poem's form and suggest the effect on the reader
	• be aware of a range of significant poets (both contemporary and classic), recite one or more of their poems (or sections of their
	poems) and begin to express a preference
	vary and control volume and tone, pace and use appropriate expression when performing
	use actions, sound effects, musical patterns and images to enhance a poem's meaning
	use language playfully to exaggerate or pretend;
	use similes to build images and identify clichés in own writing;
	create own free verse poetry write own examples of riddles based on models provided
Year 5	discuss poet's possible viewpoint, explain and justify own response and interpretation;
	• explain the use of unusual or surprising language choices and effects, such as onomatopoeia and metaphor; comment on how this influences meaning;
	 explore imagery including metaphor and personification;
	 compare different forms and describe impact
	 be aware of a range of significant poets (both contemporary and classic), recite one or more of their poems (or sections of their
	poems) and begin to express a preference, justifying own views
	vary pitch, pace, volume, expression and use pauses to create impact;
	• use movement, sound effects, musical patterns, images and dramatic interpretation when performing both their own poetry, and that of others
	invent nonsense words and situations and experiment with unexpected word combinations;
	use carefully observed details and apt images to bring subject matter alive; avoid cliché in own writing;
	create own free verse poetry
	• write raps/spoken word poetry on topics relevant to the children's interests/ motivations (possibly link with work on persuasion
	e.g. writing protests – see persuasion progression)
Year 6	interpret poems, explaining how the poet creates shades of meaning; justify own views and explain underlying themes
	explain the impact of figurative and expressive language, including metaphor;
	comment on poems' structures and how these influence meaning
	• be aware of a wide range of significant poets (both contemporary and classic, including Shakespeare), recite one or more of
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their poems (or sections of their poems) and begin to express a preference, justifying own view points

- vary pitch, pace volume, rhythm and expression in relation to the poem's meaning and form
- use movement, sound effects, musical patterns, images and dramatic interpretation, varying presentations by using ICT when performing both their own poetry, and that of others
- use language imaginatively to create surreal, surprising, amusing and inventive poetry;
- use simple metaphors and personification to create poems based on real or imagined experience;
- select pattern or form to match meaning and own voice
- create own free verse poetry

<u>Free verse</u> is not restricted by conventions of form or pattern and does not have to rhyme or maintain a consistent structure (such as line length) throughout.

Poetry often makes use of language forms associated with informal and spoken language, relying more on the patterns and vocabulary of speech than on poetic	Make the most of the wide choices that free verse gives you and try out different ways of
conventions of rhyme and metre.	
Written in the first person , a single voice. Often a recount or an explanation of a personal viewpoint. May address the reader directly, for example by asking rhetorical questions or using language as if the reader is taking part in a conversation with the writer. (Is it hard to believe? Guess what happened next!) There are many examples in the poetry of Michael Rosen.	structure, e.g. using informal spoken language as if you are talking to the reader. Use layout to control the way the poem is read, for example by creating space around important lines or phrases. If you're using the style of spoken language, make sure the lines don't get too long. Think about the types of sentences you use and decide if you need questions as well as statements.
As above, but two or more voices present. Can be a dialogue taking place or a series of questions and answers, as in the traditional poem, Who killed Cock Robin?	Don't forget that poetry allows you to use words in many ways, not just in sentences. Use questions directed to your reader to draw them in, e.g. Do you know what I mean?
A simple list of words, phrases or sentences, often preceded by a 'starter' sentence, such as In my picnic basket I will put:/ Things that make me smile:	Make punctuation work for you and guide your reader in the way you want the poem to sound, if read aloud.
	Written in the first person , a single voice. Often a recount or an explanation of a personal viewpoint. May address the reader directly, for example by asking rhetorical questions or using language as if the reader is taking part in a conversation with the writer. (Is it hard to believe? Guess what happened next!) There are many examples in the poetry of Michael Rosen. As above, but two or more voices present. Can be a dialogue taking place or a series of questions and answers, as in the traditional poem, Who killed Cock Robin? A simple list of words , phrases or sentences , often preceded by a 'starter' sentence, such as In my picnic basket I will put:/ Things that

<u>Visual poems</u> are based (often exclusively) on visual appearance and/or sound. The words are presented to create a particular shape, to create an image or to convey a visual message. Letter shapes may be exaggerated in the design. Meaning may be literal or rely on metaphor.

exaggerated in the design, Medring thay be ineral or tely of the aprior.		
Generic structure	Language features	Knowledge for the writer
Calligrams & shape poetry	A calligram can be a poem, a phrase or even a single word. Calligrams use the shape of the letters, words or whole poem to show the subject of the calligram in a visual way. E.g. A one-word calligram could use a wobbly font or handwriting style for the word TERRIFIED. A shape poem about eating fruit to stay healthy could be presented to look like the shape of an apple on the page or screen by adapting line length.	 Think about words in different ways. Listen to the way they sound and look carefully at their letters and shapes on the page or screen. Find out more about word meanings by using a thesaurus to get ideas. Stick to simple shapes that you can recreate by typing or writing. Get more ideas by exploring font options and text effects. The way they make words look will help you plan visual poems. Remember that some visual poems only work by looking at them, not by reading them aloud. Others only make sense when you read them and hear the sound of the words.
Concrete poetry	The simplest concrete poems are shape poems but others blur the boundaries between poetry and art. They can include sounds and images and can also be 3-D. New technologies have brought about innovative forms that include multi-layered texts with hyperlinks to 'poems within poems', visual stories, audio files and images that form part of the poem itself.	

<u>Structured poems</u> follow a consistent framework based on features such as line length, syllable count, rhyme pattern, rhythm, metre or a combination of these. A poem's structure (particularly rhythm and rhyme) generally influences the way it sounds when read aloud and helps to make it memorable. Poems with a clear, simple structure are often used as models or writing frames for children's own writing.

The structure of a poem sometimes helps to organise the content. For example, a longer narrative poem (such as a ballad) may be organised chronologically into verses or parts. An important line may be repeated as a chorus or refrain. The range of poetry structures presented as ICT texts is even wider and includes multimodal and/or interactive poems that contain hypertext, live links, moving images and sounds. There are many forms of structured poetry. Some are culturally specific. Some of the most common forms are listed below

Generic structure	Language features		Knowledge for the writer
<u>Cinquain</u>	A generic name for a five-line poem. One of the most commonly used forms follows a syllable pattern for each line: 2, 4, 6, 8, 2. There are many different types of cinquains providing a wide range of opportunities for children to experiment with rhyme or syllabification. For example, reverse cinquains where the line pattern works backward, quintiles where cinquains are grouped in multiples to create a longer poem and English quintains that have a rhyme pattern (ABABB) but no specific line length.	•	Double-check that any deliberate patterns of rhyme or rhythm work all the way through. Remove clichés and change any rhymes that sound forced.
<u>Quatrain</u>	Quatrain is a generic term for a four-line stanza or poem of any kind.	•	Avoid choosing words just because they fit the
<u>Couplets</u>	Two successive lines, usually part of a poem longer than two lines and typically at the end of a verse or stanza. Couplets have two lines, each with the same metre and often share the same rhyme (rhyming couplets).	•	pattern or rhyme – only use words that really work. Re-read aloud as you
Rap	Rap is an example that straddles the boundaries between poetry, talk and song. It is one of the central elements of hip hop culture and uses strong musical rhythm and repeated rhyme patterns. The content is often focused on social commentary.		write, to check how the structure sounds, especially to hear rhyme and metre.
Limerick	A traditional five-line rhyming form, usually with humorous subject matter. Popularised in the nineteenth century by Edward Lear's Book of Nonsense. The rhyme pattern is usually AABBA. The first line of a limerick is typically: There once	•	When you have few words to use (e.g. haiku, couplets) make sure that

	was a xx from xxx,		every word works hard for
<u>Kennings</u>	Derived from Old English and Norse poetry, kennings use compound nouns to refer to a person or thing without using the actual name. Anglo-Saxons often used kennings to name their swords. A kenning is a type of list poem. Although kennings follow a list structure, they could be described as free verse in other respects because they rarely rhyme (e.g. 'skin burner, chocolate melter' to refer to the sun)	•	meaning and effect. Don't let the poem's structure take over and make all the choices for you – you are the writer so you decide what works
<u>Ballads</u>	Ballads are narrative poems, usually of some length. Rhyme and musical rhythm patterns make them memorable for oral retelling. They often recount heroic deeds or legends. Ballads typically include a chorus between each verse or a refrain that repeats key lines.		and what doesn't.
Question and answer poems	Question and answer poems may not rhyme or maintain the same metre but they are often tightly structured as a series of questions, each followed by an answer.		
their original form they were t	erive from Japanese poetry forms and are all based on syllabic line patterns. In based on Japanese sound units which do not translate exactly to 'syllables' in d fast rules for the structure of these forms written in English but the following ed:		
<u>Haiku</u>	Three lines: syllable pattern 5, 7, 5. A personal but universal comment on nature and/or humankind's place in the world. The poet aims to capture a single moment or thought and also aims to leave half the work for the reader to do.		
<u>Tanka</u>	Five lines: syllable pattern 5, 7, 5, 7, 7. Typically a haiku with two additional lines. The first three lines may describe a state or situation and the last two provide more detail, or the poet's comment.		
<u>Renga</u>	Haiku-like verses linked together can be described as renga and are often written by more than one poet. Each is linked by two additional lines, each of seven syllables. The line/syllable pattern is: 5, 7, 5 7, 7 5, 7, 5 7, 7 and so on.		

Poetry in Key Stage 1				
	Year 1			
Word	Word Sentence Text Punctuat			
 First & third person Regular plural noun suffixes -s or - es [for example, dog, dogs; wish, wishes], including the effects of these suffixes on the meaning of the noun How the prefix -un changes the meaning of verbs and adjectives Suffixes that can be added to verbs where no change is needed in the spelling of root words (e.g. helping, helped, helper) 	 Oral rehearsal of sentence structure Joining words and joining clauses using 'and' and 'because' Begin to use noun phrases for description e.g. with adjectives 	Sequencing sentences to form short passages	 Separating words with spaces Use of capital letters and full stops to demarcate sentences Use of capital letters for names and the personal pronoun 'I' 	
	Ye	ar 2		
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation	
 Formation of nouns using suffixes (ness, -er) (e.g. kennings) and by compounding [for example, whiteboard, superman] formation of adjectives using suffixes such as -ful, -less Use of -er and -est in adjectives Use of -ly to turn adjectives into adverbs 	 Functions of sentence types: statement, command, exclamation or question Expanded noun phrases to describe and specify (use of adjectives before the noun or preposition phrase after the noun) e.g. the blue butterfly, the man in the moon Use of coordinating (and, or, but) and subordinating conjunctions (when, if, that, because) 	Use of progressive form of verbs in past and present tense	 Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences Commas to separate items in a list Apostrophes for singular possession 	

	Poetry in Lowe	er Key Stage 2			
	Year 3				
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation		
 Formation of nouns using a range of prefixes (super-, anti-, auto-) Use of 'a' or 'an' according to whether the next word starts with a vowel word families based on common words, showing how words are related in form and meaning [for example, solve, solution, solver, dissolve, insoluble] Recognition of abstract, concrete & collective nouns 	 Use of prepositions (during, in, because of, before, after) to express time, place and cause Use of rhetorical questions 	Organisation of related information into verses	Consolidation of all K\$1 punctuation		
	Yeo	ar 4			
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation		
 Standard forms of English verb inflections (we were rather than we was, I did rather than I done) Use of articles (a, an, the) and possessive pronouns (my, his, her, their etc) as determiners 	 Use of a wider range of subordinating conjunctions Use of prepositions (during, in, because of, before, after), adverbs (next, soon, therefore) and conjunctions (when, while, after, because, soon, while) to express time and cause Use of preposition phrases as adverbials to express time, cause or place Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and preposition phrases (build on from Year 2) 	 Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme Appropriate choice of pronoun (person or possessive) or noun, within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition Headlines and subheadings 			

Poetry in Upper Key Stage 2			
	Ye	ar 5	
Word	Sentence	Text	Punctuation
Converting nouns or adjectives into verbs using suffixes [for example, –ate; –ise; –ify]	 Use of relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that or an omitted relative pronoun Use of modal verbs or adverbs to indicate degrees of possibility 	Explore different poetic structures and the ways that poets group information	Use of semi-colons, colons or dashes to mark boundaries between independent clauses
	Ye	ar 6	
Word Sentence Text Punctu		Punctuation	
how words are related by meaning as synonyms and antonyms [for example, big, large, little]	Explore how known poets break the sentence rules and the impact this has on the reader	Explore use of structures by known poets to organise information and impact on the reader	Explore use of the full range of punctuation marks and the impact they have on clarity of meaning

Features of Narrative Text Types

Year group	pproaches to show progression in <u>Narrative</u> (Oral story telling	Composition	Key grammar opportunities
Reception	Turn stories into play using puppets, toys, costumes and props; imagine and recreate roles; re-tell narratives using patterns from listening and reading; tell a story about a central character; experiment with story language by using familiar words and phrases from stories in re-telling and play	Attempt own writing for various purposes, using features of different forms, including stories. Attempts to write own texts that show understanding of features typically found in books read .e.g. Dear Black beard, you are very mean./The wicked witch was bad. Retells aspects of well – known stories e.g. Once upon a time. / I'll puff and I'll puff.	Begins to break the flow of speech into words Write simple sentences that can be read by themselves and others. Attempts to write short sentences in meaningful contexts Uses vocabulary and forms of speech that are increasingly influenced by their experiences of books e.g. once upon a time
Year 1	Innovate on patterns from a familiar story orally including some story language. Retell familiar stories and recount events; include main events in sequence, focusing on who is in the event, where events take place and what happens in each event; use story language, sentence patterns and sequencing words to organise events, (e.g.) then, next etc.; recite stories, supported by story boxes, pictures etc.; act out stories and portray characters and their motives	Write own version of a familiar story using a series of sentences to sequence events. Use patterns and language from familiar stories in own writing; write complete stories with a simple structure: beginning – middle – end, decide where it is set, include good and bad characters and use ideas from reading for some incidents and events.	How words can combine to make sentences Joining words and joining clauses using and Sequencing sentences to form short narratives Separation of words with spaces Introduction to capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences Capital letters for names and for the personal pronoun I
Year 2	Re-tell familiar stories using narrative structure and dialogue from the text; include relevant details and sustain the listener's interest; tell own real and imagined stories; Dramatise parts of own stories for class. Read aloud with appropriate intonation to make the meaning clear.	Plan and write own stories with a logical sequence of events, using complete sentences grouped together to tell the different parts of the story. Include descriptions of characters and setting and some dialogue. Use phrases drawn from story language to add interest, (e.g.) she couldn't believe her eyes.	Subordination (using when, if, that, because) and co-ordination (using or, and, but) Expanded noun phrases for description and specification [for example, the blue butterfly, plain flour, the man in the moon] How the grammatical patterns in a sentence indicate its function as a statement, question, exclamation or command

	Correct choice and consistent use of present tense and past tense throughout writing Use of the progressive form of verbs in the present and past tense to mark actions in progress [for example, she is drumming, he was shouting] Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences Commas to separate items in a list Apostrophes to mark where letters are missing in spelling Apostrophes to mark singular possession in nouns [e.g. the girl's
	name]

Year group	Oral story telling	Composition	Key grammar opportunities
Year 3	Plan and tell stories, varying voice and intonation to create effects and sustain interest. Role play include dialogue to set the scene and present characters; Discuss writing models similar to those they will use in their own writing to learn from its structure grammar and vocabulary. Explore moral dilemmas for characters using drama	Write stories that have a problem and resolution and are organised into paragraphs using adverbs of time. Include description of a typical setting and characters. Use written dialogue to move the plot on. Consolidate vocabulary and grasp of sentence structure.	Expressing time, place and cause using conjunctions [for example, when, before, after, while, so, because], adverbs [for example, then, next, soon, therefore], or prepositions [for example, before, after, during, in, because of] Introduction to paragraphs as a way to group related material Introduction to inverted commas to punctuate direct speech Use of the present perfect form of verbs instead of the simple past [for example, He has gone out to play contrasted with He went out to play], specifically in direct speech
Year 4	Work in role to 'interview' story characters. Use improvisation to explore alternative actions and outcomes to a particular issue. Explore dilemmas using drama techniques, (e.g.) improvise alternative courses of action for a character.	Write in role as a character from a story. Plan and write a longer story where the central character faces a problem that needs to be resolved. Use a clear story structure. Use different ways to introduce or connect paragraphs, (e.g.) Sometime later, Suddenly, Inside the castle; develop settings using adjectives and figurative language to evoke time, place and mood. Include character descriptions designed to provoke sympathy or dislike in the reader and try using some figurative or expressive language to build detail. Monitor whether their writing makes sense.	Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and preposition phrases (e.g. the teacher expanded to: the strict maths teacher with curly hair) Fronted adverbials [for example, Later that day, I heard the bad news.] Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition Use of inverted commas and other punctuation to indicate direct speech [for example, a comma after the reporting clause; end punctuation within inverted commas: The conductor shouted, "Sit down!"] Apostrophes to mark plural possession [for example, the girl's name, the girls' names] Use of commas after fronted adverbials

Year	Oral story telling	Composition	Key grammar opportunities
Year 5	Use improvisation and role-play to explore different characters' points of view. Re-tell a familiar story from the point of view of another character, using spoken language imaginatively to entertain and engage the listener.	Plan and write complete stories; organise more complex chronological narratives into several paragraph units relating to story structure; adapt for narratives that do not have linear chronology, e.g. parallel narratives. (e.g.) portray events happening simultaneously (Meanwhile); extend ways to link paragraphs in cohesive narrative using adverbs and adverbial phrases; Experiment with the order of chapters or paragraphs to achieve different effects. Try varying pace by using direct and reported speech. Use dialogue to build character. Develop characterisation by showing the reader	Relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that, or an omitted relative pronoun Indicating degrees of possibility using adverbs [for example, perhaps, surely] or modal verbs [for example, might, should, will, must] Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph [for example, then, after that, this, firstly] Linking ideas across paragraphs using adverbials of time [for example, later], place [for example, nearby] or tense choices [for example, he had seen her before] Brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis e.g. in asides to the reader
Year 6	Use improvisation and role play to explore typical characters, setting and events in a particular fiction genre. Tell short stories in a particular genre to engage and entertain an audience.	Plan and write an extended story. Enhance the effectiveness of writing as well as accuracy. Use paragraphs to vary pace and emphasis. Describe a setting by referring to all the senses; vary sentence length to achieve a particular effect; use a variety of techniques to introduce characters and develop characterisation; use dialogue at key points to move the story on or reveal new information. Reflect an understanding of how the selection of appropriate grammar and vocabulary can change and enhance meaning. Use techniques learned from reading, e.g. Create a setting by: using expressive or figurative language; describing how it makes the character feel; adding detail of sights and sounds; create mood and	The difference between structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing [for example, the use of question tags: He's your friend, isn't he?, or the use of subjunctive forms such as If I were or Were they to come in some very formal writing and speech] Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: repetition of a word or phrase, grammatical connections [for example, the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence], and ellipsis Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses [for example, It's raining; I'm fed up] Use of the colon to introduce a list and use of semi-colons within lists

atmosphere by describing a character's How hyphens can be used to avoid ambiguity response to a particular settina: use Ifor example, man eating shark versus manchanges of scene to move the plot on or eating shark, or recover versus re-coverl to create a break in the action: vary the pace by using sentences of different length and direct or reported speech. Create convincing characters and gradually reveal more as the story unfolds. through the way that they talk, act and interact with others. Understand nuances in vocabulary choice. Bevond Explore the techniques and devices that writers use to develop character. Apply arowing knowledge of vocabulary and viewpoint, and voice. Writing choices should extend beyond a simple choice arammar in writina. between first and third person narration and include a range of narrative voices Recognise that non-finite clauses are those (e.g., (first-, second- and third-person narration and stream of consciousness – a form which do not contain a subject + verb: they of first-person narration). Use of multiple narration to offer contrasting accounts of contain an infinite verb with or without to, a the same event or to drive the plot at alternate intervals would provide high levels of verb + ina or a verb + ed. For example: challenge in terms of sustaining and moving between viewpoints and in planning > Diving to the ground, James narrowly carefully so that plotlines remain credible and cohesion is achieved across different escaped the first round of fire. : verb + ina strands of narration. Alternatively, use of an omniscient narrator may provide Overwhelmed by the kindness. Marie's commentary (judgment, rationale, sympathy etc.) on a central character and their gaze toured the room taking in every last actions/choices/situation. detail verb + ed In exploring narrative voice, build on earlier work on plot, setting and To make it safe. Ting would have to test it characterisation. Use figurative language with increasing confidence, precision and before the big day: but who would originality. Create imagery in places that is detailed and evocative and avoids volunteer?: To + infinitive cliché (where appropriate). Some imagery may recur across a narrative Refine expressions so that redundant words (iconography of particular genres, refrains in dialogue or motifs). Vocabulary and phrases are kept to a minimum. (e.g. choices are consistent with the theme and mood of the writing. overuse of adjectives and adverbs); revises Experiment with form in terms of chronology (reverse chronology, cyclical structures, longer sentences and considers whether

shifts in time and space in science fiction/fantasy) or by manipulating sentence or

paragraph structures in surprising/unconventional ways.

impact is enhanced e.g. He grabbed the gun

vs. He quickly grabbed the gun.

Adventure (Based on National Strategy Documents) Purpose: to entertain			
Generic structure	Language features	Knowledge for the writer	
Typically a recount or retelling of a series of exciting events leading to a high impact resolution. The most common structure is a chronological narrative. Building excitement as the hero faces and overcomes adversity is an important element, so more complex structures such as flashbacks are less common. Archetypical characters are the norm and much of the building tension comes from the reader predicting who or what represents the threat (the villain) and what is likely to go wrong for the hero. Longer narratives build tension in waves, with one problem after another accelerating the adventure in several sections or chapters, with the high point of tension near the end. The story can take place in any setting where there is the potential for adventure through a danger or threat. ICT 'adventure' texts often employ different structures, allowing the user to select different routes through the order of events, sometimes with different resolutions that depend on the choices made by the reader.	An effective blend of action, dialogue and description develops archetypical characters that the reader will care about, at the same time as moving the plot along at an exciting pace. Description adds to the sense of adventure by heightening the reader's awareness, e.g. a sense of potential danger (The cliffs were high and jagged) or dropping clues to encourage involvement through prediction (The captain welcomed them aboard but his eyes were narrow and cruel-looking) Dialogue is an element of characterisation but is used more to advance the action than to explore a character's feelings or motivation. "What was that noise? Did you hear it too?" Language usually has a cinematic quality, with powerful, evocative vocabulary and strong, varied verbs for action scenes. (He leaped from his horse, charged into the banquet hall and hurtled himself onto the table where the prince was devouring a chicken.)	Create characters your readers will have a strong opinion about. Make the reader like your hero so they want him/her to succeed. Create a villain that is a good match for the hero, someone the reader definitely doesn't want to win in the end. Don't forget that villains we dislike most often work in subtle ways. They do sneaky, mean things that they might just get away with. Keep the plot moving but vary the pace: • use fast-moving action to create excitement at a high point; • slow things down a little with description or dialogue when you want to build tension and create suspense. Can you surprise the reader at the end? Perhaps someone who seemed insignificant saves the day and turns out to be a real hero, or perhaps a character that appeared good and helpful turns out to be two-faced.	

Mystery (Based on Nati	Mystery (Based on National Strategy Documents) Purpose: to intrigue and entertain Generic structure Language features Knowledge for the writer				
Structure is often chronological , even in a longer narrative, but complex structural techniques are sometimes used for effect. Different structures can be used for layering of information or drip-feeding facts to build up a full picture for the reader, e.g. using flashbacks to fill in information needed that wasn't provided earlier in the story or organising sections so they tell the story both before and after a key event. Knowing what is going to happen and then reading about it happening can add to the suspense. Settings are often places the main character is unfamiliar with. Different cultures often share views about the kinds of settings that seem mysterious (deep, dark forests, old, uninhabited places, lonely rural landscapes). Other settings can be very familiar places (school, home, the local town) but with an added ingredient that triggers the mystery (a stranger arrives in town, a parcel arrives, people begin acting strangely, something unusual happens).	The narrator uses questions to exaggerate the mystery, e.g. Who could it be? Why had the car suddenly stopped? Language is used to intensify the mystery, particularly adjectives and adverbials. Some typical vocabulary is associated with this narrative type (puzzling, strange, peculiar, baffling, weird, odd, secretive, unexplained, bewildering). Use of pronouns to create mystery by avoiding naming or defining characters, especially when they first appear in the story. (First line: He climbed in through the window on the stroke of midnight. The wind howled and there was no moon.) Use of the pronoun 'it' to suggest a nonhuman or mysterious character. (And that's when I saw it, creeping carefully along behind the hedge. It wasn't much taller than me.)	Use questions to highlight key moments as the mystery deepens (A sudden noise! What could be making that low mumbling sound?). Decide what the mystery is before you begin writing and introduce it fairly soon so the reader wants to find out the solution. Keep readers interested by hinting and suggesting but don't give too much away too soon. Drop clues and puzzles for the reader to pick up and think about along the way. Make adventurous word choices to make your reader really think about what you're describing. Don't just say someone is 'mysterious', make them seem mysterious by describing them, their actions or what they say. Don't describe everything in detail. What i left out can often be scarier than what is described.			

Science Fiction (Based on National Strategy Documents) Purpose: to entertain and speculate				
Generic structure	Language features	Knowledge for the writer		
Can use any of the varied structures typical of narrative. The setting is often a time in the future so may use structures that play with the time sequence, such as flashbacks and time travel. Science fiction typically includes detail about the way that people might live in the future, predicting in a creative and imaginative way how technology might advance.	The plot usually includes adventure so action is fast-moving. Where futuristic characters are created, dialogue may use unusual forms and vocabulary, or even alternative languages. Description is important to convey imagined settings, technology, processes and characters.	Even if the story is set in the future, you still need to create a setting, characters and plot that readers can believe possible. Make sure you have main characters the reader will care about (e.g. a likeable hero) even if the characters are non-human. Use description carefully when you want your reader to imagine something they have never seen.		

Fantasy (Based on National Strategy Documents) Purpose: to entertain and fuel the imagination			
Generic structure	Language features	Knowledge for the writer	
May simply be a basic chronological narrative set in a fantasy world but some fantasy narratives extend the 'fantastic' element to the structure as well. For example, the story may play with the concept of time so that characters find themselves moving through time in a different way. Some fantasy structures focus on character development or description of setting at the expense of plot so that the actual order of events becomes less important or even impossible to follow.	Description is very important because fantasy uses settings (and often characters) that must be imagined by the reader. Imagery plays an important role in helping to describe places and things the reader has never seen.	Choose adjectives carefully to describe the places and things in the story. Use similes to help the reader imagine what you are describing more clearly. (The glass castle was as big as a football field and as tall as a skyscraper. Its clear walls sparkled like blocks of ice in the sun.) Don't make everything so fantastic that it is unbelievable. Make what happens as interesting and detailed as the setting where it happens. Don't get so involved in creating amazing places and characters that you forget to tell a good story about what happens to them.	

Historical Fiction (Based on National Strategy Documents) Purpose: to entertain and inform				
Generic structure	Language features	Knowledge for the writer		
The narrative is about something that has already happened in the past so a series of events is usually the underlying structure. The writer can adapt the structure to achieve a specific effect. For example, the story can begin with a main character looking back and reflecting on the past (I was just a lad then. Let me tell you what happened). Sometimes, a historical narrative begins with the final event and then goes on to explain what led up to that by moving back in time to tell the whole story. Historical fiction requires a historical setting but can also be an adventure or a mystery. It can also give a fictionalised account of real events or additional, fictional detail to things that really happened.	Historical settings need detail to make them authentic and to give important 'mapping' clues to the reader. When was this happening? Whereabouts is this story taking place? Appropriate archaic language is used, including old-fashioned words that have fallen out of usage, e.g. Let me carry thy basket, old dame. It can also include models of sentence grammar no longer commonly or informally used, e.g. That which you seek, you shall find in the forest.	Include accurate historical detail to create the setting (The winter of 1509 was bitterly cold and many poor country folk were starving) or let the reader work it out (The young prince had just been crowned King Henry VIII when a country boy called Tom arrived in London). Use the right kind of old-fashioned language when characters speak to one another. Description is important for the setting and characters but you can add historical detail in different ways to give variety: Description: The little girl was wearing a long cloak and woollen hood. Action: He threw his sword to the floor and rushed down the stone spiral staircase. Dialogue: Wait, I'll get a candle to light our way		

Dilemma (Based on National Strategy Documents) Purpose: to entertain and explore issues				
Generic structure	Language features	Knowledge for the writer		
The strength of the story often depends on a character facing a difficult (or seemingly impossible) dilemma, with a limited choice of actions. A strong, simple story structure usually leads the character to the dilemma quite quickly and then makes the reader wait to find out how it is dealt with. The narrative makes the waiting interesting by adding to the suspense, for example by increasing the complexity or gravity of the dilemma or by threatening the right/chosen course of action. (The main character has decided to apologise just in time and is on the way to do so but has an accident and is taken to hospital - soon it will be too late.) Most forms of narrative can include stories	Characterisation is fundamental. The main characters are often well-established from the beginning with additional detail such as background, history or interests included. The reader understands why a character feels the way they do. Key characters also develop and change over time, usually as a result of the events that take place in the story and particularly as a result of the dilemma they face and their resulting actions. Description, action and dialogue are all important for developing and deepening character and showing both why and how someone has changed.	Make sure the dilemma or issue to be faced is a really tricky one to deal with. If there is no easy or obvious answer, it will be even more interesting to read what your main character decides to do. If characters change during the story, decide how to show this. Do they behave differently? Do they speak differently?		

which raise dilemmas.

Myths (Based on National Strategy Documents)				
Purpose	Themes	Plot & structure	Characters	Style
The usual purpose of a myth is to provide an explanation for the origins of phenomena (thunder, day and night, winter) by telling the story of how they came to be. Most cultures used myths, handed down orally from generation to generation from an anonymous source, to explain the world and its mysteries, so mythology from different regions usually reflects the wonders that people saw around them in their own environment. Myths often provide narrative clues that help to build a picture of the beliefs, lifestyles and	Myths are set in the past, usually a distant and non-specific past, and are presented (unlike fables) as something that actually happened. There is evidence that the content of some myths is based on real events and places that may have existed. Myths explain why the world is the way it is and, for this reason, they reflect the basic principles of the religion or spirituality of the people. For example, Norse and Greek myths narrate what the gods did and how they interacted with humans. The most famous Hindu myths, The Mahabharata and The Ramayana, are epic tales that contain the teachings of Hindu sages told as exciting stories about the lives of people and gods. The social and religious	The plot of a myth usually includes incredible or miraculous events, where characters behave in superhuman ways using unusual powers or with the help of superhuman beings.	Characters typical of traditional stories appear in myths (talking animals, rich kings, foolish young men, clever villains) although the 'trickster' character is often a mischievous god (Loki, for example). The most notable character types in this sub-class are classic heroes and supernatural beings. Characterisation is an interesting focus for composition when children write their own myths or retell versions because the characters need to be awe-inspiring and larger-than-life.	Rich, evocative vocabulary and use of imagery are typical but style is often more literary than other types of tales so that some versions offer a more challenging read for children. Myths often include very vivid description of characters and settings (dense, mysterious rainforest or icy, mist-shrouded mountain peaks) and fast-moving narration of action. They tend to make less use of dialogue and repetition than some other types of traditional story. Simile is used widely to help convey grand settings and describe awe-inspiring characters. Myths also provide good examples of the use of symbols. For example, the thread that Theseus unwinds behind him in the Minotaur's den could be seen as a symbol of his link between the real world of humans and the

ideology of the	status of myths varies from		supernatural world of the
people who first told	culture to culture but for		gods. The labyrinth itself
them. There are	some they continue to be		could represent the
many similarities	sacred texts.		confusion in his own life –
between the myths			he doesn't know 'which
of different cultures	Opposites occur frequently		way to turn' to solve his
(Why the Crow is	in myths as themes,		problems. He feels 'lost'.
Black: Aboriginal	including:		
Australian, Sioux and	good and evil;		
Dakota, Filipino and	 night and day; 		
ancient Greek).	• calm and storm;		
,	 wise and foolish; 		
	old and young;		
	beautiful and ugly;		
	 mean and generous; 		
	• just and unjust.		
	,		
	Like other traditional stories,		
	myths use quests, journeys		
	and trials as themes. The		
	hero or heroine often has to		
	undergo some kind of test		
	(the trials of Hercules) or set		
	off on a long and difficult		
	journey where dangers arise		
	at each stage (the		
	Odyssey).		

Myths (Based on National Strategy Documents)			
Generic structure	Language features	Knowledge for the writer	
The plot is often based on a long and dangerous journey, a quest or a series of trials for the hero. The plot usually includes incredible or miraculous events, where characters behave in superhuman ways using unusual powers or with the help of superhuman beings. Myths are often much longer texts than other traditional stories (apart from some legends) especially in their original form. They provide a very useful contrast with shorter forms of traditional narrative such as fables.	Rich vocabulary evoking the power and splendour of the characters and settings: Hercules hurled the glittering spear with all the strength of a mighty army. Use of imagery to help the reader imagine. Simile is used widely to help convey grand settings and describe aweinspiring characters: Thor's hammer was as heavy as a mountain. Vivid description of characters and settings. Fast-moving narration of action to keep the drama moving along. Myths tend to make less use of dialogue and repetition than some other types of traditional story. Myths often provide good examples of the use of symbols: Theseus unwinds a thread behind him in the Minotaur's den – a thread could be seen as a symbol of his link between the real world of humans and the supernatural world of the gods.	Make the characters larger than life by giving them supernatural powers or strong characteristics like courage and wisdom. Create a negative character who is the opposite of your hero: good and evil, brave and cowardly, strong and weak. Consider including a character who is a 'trickster' to add to the fun or to create twists in the plot. Choose a setting that gives a dramatic backdrop for the action: (a huge, dense forest, a mountain shrouded in icy fog or a wide, sun-baked desert).	

Legends (Based on National Strategy Documents)

Plot & Character

There are a great many similarities between myths and legends and some stories are categorised in both these subclasses of traditional tales. Although legends often include mythical beings and supernatural events, their narrative spine is more closely connected to the real world of human history. The events in legends tend to seem more likely and less fictionalised than those in myths.

Legends are usually based on real characters and events, even though these have been richly embellished and exaggerated over time. This gives the narrative an exciting quality because all the events seem to be within the realm of possibility even when the plot has become so widely adapted or updated that it is completely fictional.

The plot of a legend usually focuses on an individual character, a cultural hero or a person respected and remembered (Jason, King Arthur, Robin Hood, William Tell, Roland) but there are also legends about places (Atlantis, Shangri-La), objects (the Holy Grail, the Philosopher's Stone) and legendary animals (the Yeti, Loch Ness monster, Sasquatch, Chupacabra).

Structure & Style

Structure is usually episodic, as in the phases of a journey over several years or the stages of a great battle. Some legends tell the entire life story of their hero as a series of linked episodes, each one a story in its own right, as in the King Arthur stories and the sagas of German-speaking and Northern European countries

Common structures include:

- chronological episodes;
- journey stories;
- seauential stories:
- life stories and community histories.

Like myths, legends sometimes use a more literary style than fairy tales or fables. For example:

- rich, evocative vocabulary
- memorable language use
- use of rhythm and repetition techniques
- formulaic openings and endings
- imagery: simile, metaphor and symbolism.

Themes

Legends employ many of the typical themes of traditional stories:

- good and evil
- friend and foe
- magic
- the supernatural
- rich and poor/rags to riches/riches to rags
- wise and foolish
- strong and weak
- just and unjust
- a quest or search
- a journey
- trials and forfeits.

Legends, like myths, reveal information about the way people lived, what they believed, what was important to them, what they valued and what they were afraid of.

They also convey meaning about the way we live our lives that make them relevant and interesting across cultures and time. This makes them worth repeating through generations and publishing as new versions or adaptations for twenty-first century readers. Brand new legends continue to be developed as part of contemporary literary and oral storytelling cultures.

Legends (Based on National Strategy Documents)			
Generic structure	Language features	Knowledge for the writer	
Structure is usually chronological, with one episode told after another, for example as the phases of a journey or the stages of an ongoing battle. Some legends tell the whole life story of their hero as a series of linked episodes; each one may be a story in its own right. Common structures include: • chronological episodes; • journey stories; • sequential stories; • life stories and community histories.	Language features are very similar to those of myths: • rich, evocative vocabulary; • memorable language use; • use of rhythm and repetition techniques; • formulaic openings and endings; • imagery: simile, metaphor and symbolism. Legends written in a traditional style often use more literary language than fairy tales or fables. Modern versions such as twenty-first century retellings or new legends may use more contemporary, informal language.	Work out how the story will tell of a struggle, e.g. between good and evil, friend and foe, wise and foolish. When you've decided on your main character, decide on the structure you will use and what will be included in each episode/each stage of the journey or quest. Consider adding ingredients of magic or the supernatural to make your legend different from other kinds of stories. Use symbols your reader will recognise to help them get involved in the story, e.g. red for anger/danger, darkness for danger/evil, a light or flame for goodness and hope.	

	Fables (Based on National	Strate au De auge antel
Generic structure	Language features	Knowledge for the writer
There is a shared	The short and simple structure of the	Characters are portrayed as simple stereotypes rather than
understanding between	narrative leaves little room for additional	multidimensional heroes or villains. If your main characters
storyteller and audience	details of description or character	are animals, make them behave like human stereotypes: a
that the events told did	development.	brave little ant, a wise old turtle, a cunning fox, a lazy
not actually happen so	·	donkey. Use the main characters to give your fable a title:
fables do not need to	Dialogue is used to advance the plot or to	The Ant and the Elephant.
convince and their	state the moral, rather than to engage a	
structure is usually simple.	reader with the characters and their	State the moral of your fable clearly at the end: a wise
They are often very short	qualities.	person always plans ahead. Establish the setting in the first
with few characters –		line and introduce the two main characters as soon as you
sometimes only two.	Characterisation is limited but specific: A	can. Give clues to your reader about what might happen:
	lazy duck was making its way to the river	a greedy but impatient fox was watching the chickens
Structure is typically the	A crafty raven was sitting on a branch	from behind a tree. Don't add too much detail of
simplest kind of narrative		description and only use dialogue that helps to tell what
with a beginning, a	There is limited use of description because	happened.
complication and a	settings are less important than the events	
resolution. Two	that take place. Action and dialogue are	Use connecting adverbs when characters talk to one
characters (often	used to move the story on because the all-	another, to explain or show cause and effect : "If you will
animals) meet, an event	important moral is most clearly evident in	give me your hand, I will help you over the river", said the
occurs and they go on their way with one of	what the main characters do and say.	wolf. "I can't possibly eat you because I'm a vegetarian," lied the bear.
them having learned an	Connecting adverbs are an important	lied the bedi.
important lesson about	language feature to show cause and	Use connecting adverbs to show your reader quickly and
life.	effect and to give coherence to a short	easily when things happened and how time passed: (One
	narrative.	morning as he was first he saw then he saw When
		winter came And then the grasshopper understood)
		Questions are often the way one character introduces
		themself to another in a fable: Why do you howl so loudly?
		What are you writing so busily in your book, little bird?

Fables (Based on National Strategy Documents)				
Fables tend to use:	Themes	Plot & structure	Characters	Style
 formulaic beginnings that establish setting and character very quickly (One day a farmer was going to market A hungry fox was sitting by the roadsideIn a field, one spring morning) connecting adverbs to explain or show cause and effect (If you will give me so the wolf) adverbs of time that hold the narrative together and give it a chronological shape (One morning as he was first he saw then he saw When winter came And then the grasshopper understood) simple dialogue between two main characters, often 	Although they use many of the typical themes, characters and settings of traditional stories, fables have a very specific purpose that strongly influences their content. A fable sets out to teach the reader or listener a lesson they should learn about life. The narrative drives towards the closing moral statement, the fable's theme: the early bird gets the worm, where there's a will there's a way, work hard and always plan ahead for lean times, charity is a virtue. The clear presence of a moral distinguishes fables from other folk tales.	Plot is overtly fictitious as the point of the story is its message, rather than an attempt to convince the reader of a real setting or characters. There is a shared understanding between storyteller and audience that the events told did not actually happen. They are used as a means to an end, a narrative metaphor for the ethical truth being promoted. For this reason, fables do not carry any nonessential narrative baggage. There are usually few characters and often only two who are portrayed as simple stereotypes rather than multidimensional heroes or villains. Narrative structure is short (sometimes just a few sentences) and simple	The main characters are often named in the title (the town mouse and the country mouse, the North wind and the sun) and they are also frequently animals, another subtle way of signalling the fictional, 'fabulous' nature of the story and its serious purpose. Animal characters speak and behave like human beings, allowing the storyteller to make cautionary points about human behaviour without pointing the finger at real people.	Many fables use the rich vocabulary, imagery and patterned language common in traditional tales but generally speaking, the shorter the fable, the more simple its use of language. In these short texts, use of vocabulary is often pared down and concise.

questions and	and there is lir	nited use	
answers (Why do you	of description	. Action	
howl so loudly?) or	and dialogue	are used	
statements that	to move the s	tory on	
reflect on a situation	because the a	all-	
(You seem to have a	important mo	ral is most	
wonderful life here in	clearly evider	t in what	
the town. My feathers	the main char	acters do	
may not be beautiful	and say.		
but they keep me			
warm in winter.)			

Fairy Tales (Based on National Strategy Documents)			
Generic structure	Language features	Knowledge for the writer	
Setting is nearly always vague. (Once upon a time A long, long time ago) Structure is most typically a recount in chronological order, where events retell what happened to a main character that came into contact with the 'fairy world'. Often the hero or heroine is searching for something (a home, love, acceptance, wealth, wisdom) and in many tales dreams are fulfilled with a little help from magic. 'Fairy tale endings' (where everything turns out for the best) are common but many fairy tales are darker and have a sad ending.	Formulaic sentences are used: Once upon a time There was once a Long ago in the And it came to pass Language often reflects the settings, in the past, using archaic or regional vocabulary and grammar: Say these words thrice! I shall return and take thy gold. He knew not where he was.	Characters may be fairy folk or even talking animals but make sure they are still interesting, believable characters your reader will care about, e.g. a good-hearted hero, a scheming villain, a wise helper. Decide how the world of people and the world of fairy land will come into contact and how this will cause a problem. Use numbers and patterns that usually appear in fairy tales: the numbers 3 and 7. Use phrases that have a strong rhyme or rhythm or another kind of pattern: a magic sentence is repeated several times during the story, the hero must say a secret rhyme to escape, a line is used at the beginning of each section or chapter. (On and on walked the little old man.) Use different styles of language for the human beings and the characters from the fairy world when they speak, to make a strong contrast between them: "Eeeek! Who are you, you wrinkly old thing?" asked Tom. "Beware, child and address me with respect. I am not of your world," came the goblin's whispered reply.	

Fairy Tales (Based on National Strategy Documents)				
Origin, audience & purpose	Themes	Plot & structure	Characters	Style
The oldest forms of fairy tales were originally intended for adults and children. These early folk tales were passed down orally from generation to generation and later became increasingly associated with children as their audience. Their primary purposes are to amuse and to convey cultural information that influences behaviour (mountains can be dangerous places to travel alone, unselfish behaviour benefits the community and is rewarded, do as your parents tell you and all will be well).	The familiar themes of many traditional stories are prevalent in fairy tales: • magic and skill • safe and dangerous • good and evil • weak and strong • rich and poor • wise and foolish • old and young • beautiful and ugly • mean and generous • just and unjust • friend and foe • family/home and stranger/far away • the origins of the Earth, its people and animals • the relationship between people and	The setting and details about when events took place are nearly always vague. (Once upon a time A long, long time ago It happened that Once there was a small cottage in the middle of a forest) The stories tell the adventures of people in the land of fairy folk so plots usually include the use of magic, fantastic forces and fanciful creatures. Sometimes the inhabitants of the magical land of 'faerie' venture into the world of humans and this disruption of the status quo triggers a farfetched sequence of events. Enchantments are common and rule-breaking has	Fairy tales consistently include some of the most familiar and traditional archetypes of all folk tales (hero, villain, mentor, trickster, sage, shape shifter, herald). Human characters are simply the people who lived in the castles, cottages and hovels of the original stories: kings and queens, princes and princesses, knights and ladies, poor farmers, youngest sons, wise old women, beggars, tailors, soldier, a goose-girl. The main character is often humble, melancholy or hard-working and wants to make life better. Characters also include a wide range of magical folk including animals or creatures who may have	Fairy tales include good examples of the repetitive, rhythmic and patterned language of traditional stories. Phrases or expressions are repeated for emphasis or to create a magical, theatrical effect (so she went over the gate, across the meadow and down to the stream once more not once, not twice, but three times). Fairy stories use: • rich, evocative vocabulary • the language of the fairy world (magic spells, incantations, charms) • the spoken language of the ordinary people (dialogue, regional
Later adaptations, written in a more literary and sophisticated style, are also among the traditional stories known	the seen or unseen world around them.	consequences. Often the hero or heroine is searching for something (a	mystical powers yet behave with human characteristics. The names given to the inhabitants of	accent and dialect vocabulary, informal expressions) memorable language (rhyme, alliteration,
and sophisticated style,			characteristics.	The names abitants of

as fairy tales although the often agry and frightening content of the original stories was sometimes sanitised by those who composed new. written adaptations. Fairy tales are found in most cultures and many derive from the oldest stories ever told. New fairy tales are still being written today although some of these texts with fairy-tale elements (such as The Hobbit) could be included in the more recently categorised aenre of fantasy.

wealth, wisdom) and in many tales dreams are fulfilled with a little help from magic. 'Fairy tale endinas' (where everything turns out for the best) are common. Heroes overcome their adversaries and airls marry the prince of their dreams but many fairy tales are darker and have a sad ending. The fairy tales of Hans Christian Andersen, for example. include many where things go from bad to worse even for 'good' characters or where people's negative characteristics are their downfall at the end. (The little match airl dies tragically in the snow, the fashion-obsessed emperor becomes a laughing stock when he parades through the city wearing nothing at all, the toy soldier melts away to a lump of lead.) This means that careful selection of texts is required to ensure age-appropriateness.

different cultures but they include the 'little folk' (elves, imps, fairies, leprechauns, pixies/piskies, goblins and dwarfs) as well as the larger and often more sinister trolls, giants, ogres, wizards and witches.

Interestingly, the presence of fairies or talking animals is not necessarily the best way to identify a traditional tale as a fairy story. Many fairy stories do not include fairies as characters and the main characters in fables are often talking animals.

assonance, repetition)
 formulaic openings and endings; imagery: simile, metaphor and symbolism.

Fairy tales are commonly presented as implausible but it is important to remember that in cultures where the inhabitants of the magical world are perceived as real, the stories may be interpreted more as legends, so that storyteller and reader/audience understand them to have some historical, factual basis.

References:

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