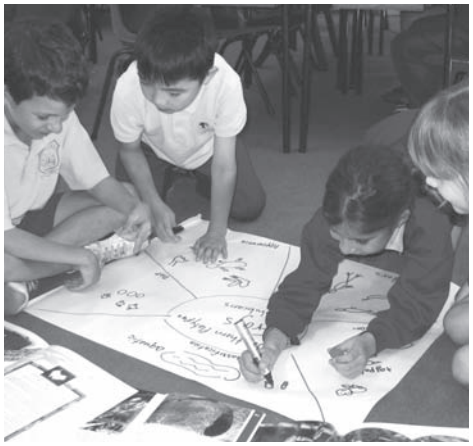
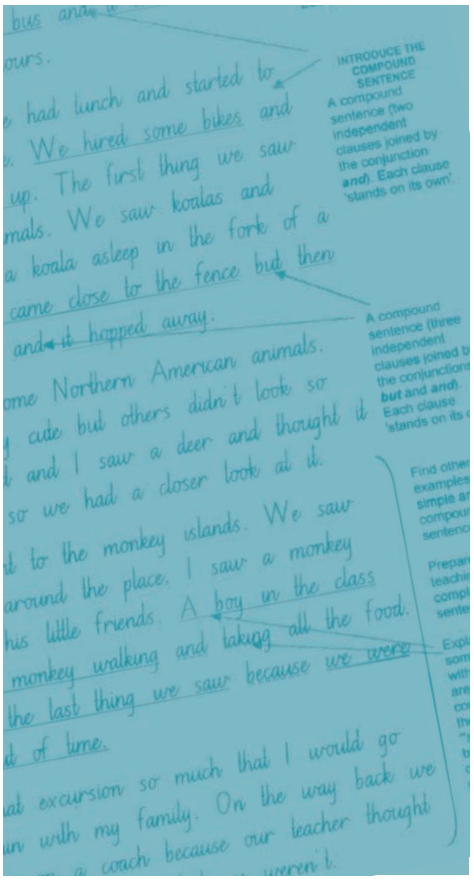
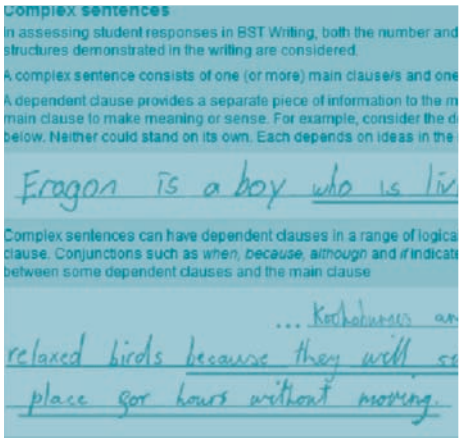
Writing and Spelling Strategies

Assisting students who have additional learning support needs







NEW SOUTH WALES
DEPARTMENT
OF EDUCATION
AND TRAINING

Writing and Spelling Strategies: Assisting students who have additional learning support needs

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This is a product of the NSW Department of Education and Training focusing on literacy improvement strategies for students in need of additional support.

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Contents

Introduction 5

Section 1 Supporting students experiencing difficulties in writing 7

Meeting the needs of different learners through effective teaching 7

NSW Quality Teaching Model 7

Barriers to writing 10

Effective writing instruction 14

Section 2 Assessing students' writing achievements 17

What is assessment? 17

A process for assessing writing achievement 18

Using Basic Skills Test (BST) for planning and programming 20

Section 3 Writing instruction 25

Features of exemplary writing instruction 25

Strategies to engage all students in writing 27

Modelled writing 27

'Think aloud' writing 33

Guided writing 34

Independent writing 50

Writing conferences 51

Cooperative learning 54

Section 4 Preparing students to write 57

Building field knowledge 57

Brainstorming 58

Note-making 61

Using cued listening to stimulate writing 65

Organising ideas and information: graphic organisers and planning sheets 68

Developing word knowledge 77

Constructing concept maps 77

Word meaning checklist 79

Understanding key words 80

Some research-based models for classroom practice 83

Scaffolded instruction 83

Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD): every child can write 90

The POWER strategy 95

Section 5 Text structure and grammar 103

Establishing a 'book talk' framework 104

Sequencing information 106

Text cohesion 111

Pronouns: understanding pronouns and how they contribute to producing cohesive texts 111

Conjunctions and connectives 118

Constructing sentences 123

The simple sentence 123

Writing sentences with more than one clause 129

Prepositional phrases 136

Punctuation 142

Conspicuous strategy instruction 149

Section 6 Spelling 153

Developing spelling skills 153

Developing a teaching plan for spelling 154

Independent strategies for self-correction and practice 161

Spelling with a peer tutor or 'spelling buddy' 165

Room print 171

Using phonological, visual, morphemic and etymological knowledge to develop spelling 174

Section 7 Using technology to support writing 177

Assistive technology: supporting students to read and write 177

Speech synthesis (text to speech) and word prediction technology 178

Organisational software 180

Voice recognition software 182

Specialised hardware 183

Exploratory learning environments 184

E-mail penfriend writing 184

Section 8 References and resources 187

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Introduction

Writing and Spelling Strategies: Assisting students who have additional learning support needs

This practical resource can assist teachers to develop and adjust teaching strategies and class programs to meet the needs of a range of learners experiencing difficulties with spelling and writing.

Writing and Spelling Strategies: Assisting students who have additional learning support needs should be used in conjunction with other support material developed under the State Literacy and Numeracy Plan such as:

Focus on literacy: Writing

Focus on literacy: Spelling

Spelling K-6

Leaps and Bounds – Improving student writing using PWA

In particular, the *Programming and Strategies Handbook: Assisting students in Year 3 and Year 5 who need additional support in literacy* is a useful resource for teachers of students who have learning support needs. Within this document links are made to the NSW Basic Skills Test, a state-wide assessment for students in Year 3 and Year 5, and to the associated material, *Teaching Strategies Documents*, made available each year to assist teachers in further developing their teaching and learning programs.

The *Writing and Spelling Strategies* handbook will provide teachers with ready information based on current research as well as strategies for effectively teaching writing and spelling to students with additional learning needs.

Section 1

Supporting students experiencing difficulties in writing

Students may experience difficulties in writing for a variety of reasons. These difficulties may vary in cause, nature, intensity and duration.

Students who need additional support in writing often demonstrate significant difficulties planning, writing and revising text. Some students may have difficulty communicating ideas, events and experiences because of a limited repertoire of spoken and written English. Others may have difficulties with the 'mechanical' aspects of writing, such as handwriting, punctuation and spelling.

Meeting the needs of different learners through effective teaching

There should be a whole-school approach to meeting the needs of different learners. Teachers should maintain high expectations of all students and ensure that writing is equally visible and valued across the full range of purposes, context and learning areas.

The aim of teaching writing is to equip students with the knowledge and skills to write effectively for a range of purposes and in a variety of contexts. For students needing additional support with writing, it is the quality of teaching and assessment that makes the most difference to their achievement.

NSW Quality Teaching Model

The NSW Quality Teaching Model comprises three dimensions that represent classroom and assessment practices that have been linked to improved student learning outcomes.

Intellectual quality

This refers to pedagogy focused on producing deep understanding of important substantive concepts, skills and ideas. Such pedagogy treats knowledge as something that requires active construction and requires students to engage in higher-order thinking and to communicate substantively about what they are learning.

Suggestions:

- Choose authentic texts to deliver key concepts, skills and ideas.
- Be explicit about the purpose and audience for the writing and how language works at the whole text level, sentence level and word level.
- Deconstruct samples of different types of writing.

- Teach students the effects of manipulating knowledge and language for different types of writing.
- Have students engage with, and reflect on, how writing changes and operates in different cultural, social and political contexts and over time.
- Plan for sufficient time for writing to be sustained and substantial.
- Have students talk about and evaluate their writing with peers, teachers and parents.
- Explicitly discuss the way language works to make meaning in the students' writing.

Significance

This refers to teaching that generates significance by connecting students with the intellectual demands of their work. Such pedagogy helps make learning more meaningful and important to students and draws clear connections with students' prior knowledge and identities, with contexts outside the classroom, and with multiple ways of knowing or cultural perspectives.

Suggestions:

- Build writing by starting with students' background knowledge and prior school knowledge; for example, brainstorming, mind mapping.
- Recognise and value the cultural knowledge and practices of diverse social groups. Where appropriate, include members of the community from diverse cultural backgrounds as a resource for writing.
- Give students opportunities for their writing to influence an audience beyond the school. (*Ask them:* Who might need to know this? Why are we writing this? Who might be an appropriate audience for our work?)
- Recognise and use multiple stories (for example, biographies, documentaries, personal accounts) to enrich student understanding of the key concepts to be addressed in their writing.
- When possible, select topics for writing that connect with contexts outside the school.
- Use identified prior school knowledge, out-of-school knowledge and cultural knowledge of the groups represented in the class as content for writing.

Quality learning environment

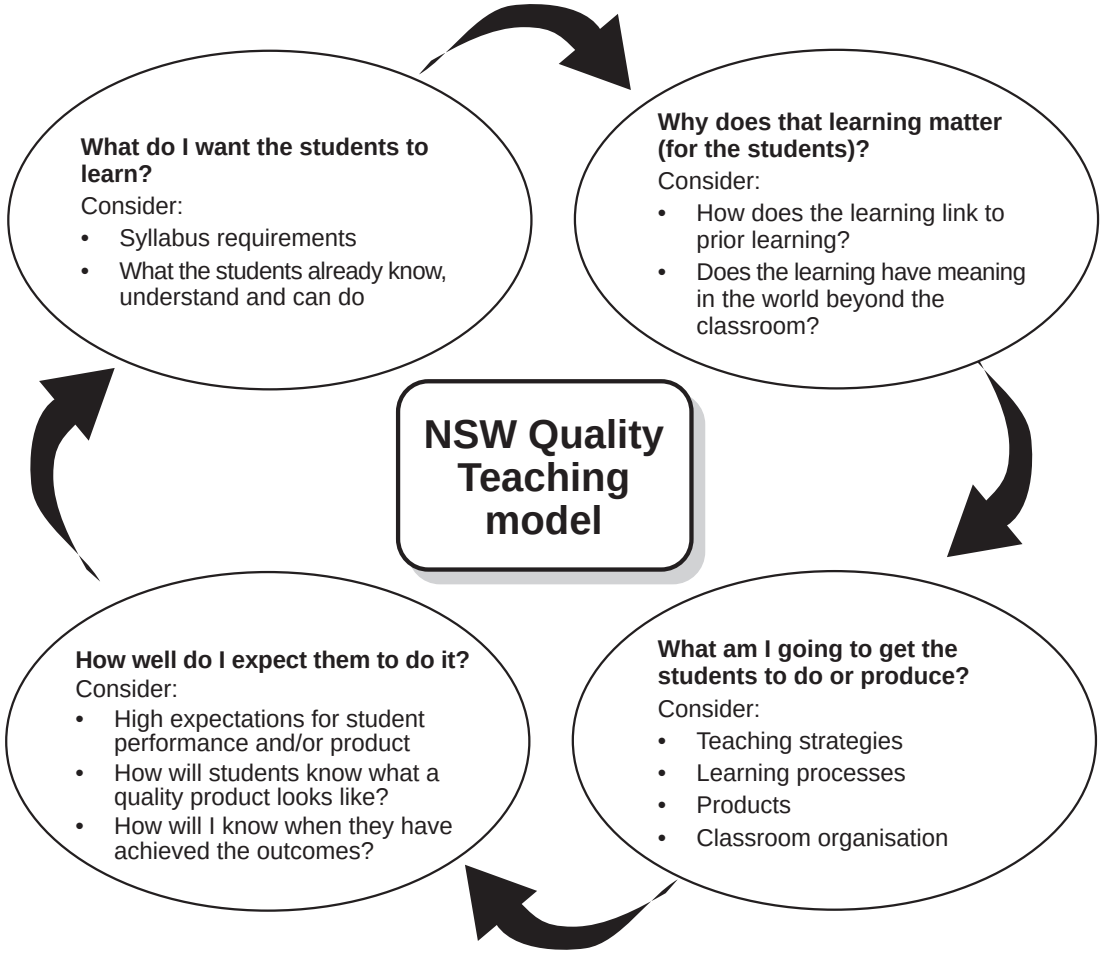
This refers to pedagogy that creates classrooms where students and teachers work productively in an environment clearly focused on learning. Such pedagogy sets high and explicit expectations and develops positive relationships between teachers and students and among students. Progress for all students relies on a positive and stimulating environment where the writing tasks are seen as real and purposeful and the teacher provides support through explicit teaching.

Suggestions:

- Refer students regularly to the stage-appropriate outcomes they are working towards.
- Ensure activities are purposeful and interesting with clear goals that students perceive to be worthwhile.
- Respect every learner's personal best.
- Have high expectations for all students, but set realistic outcomes which individuals can achieve.
- Make explicit to students what a quality performance or product looks like.
- Encourage students to reflect on and modify their writing using criteria consistent with the type of text they are constructing.
- Be clear about what you want the students to do or produce and how well you expect them to do it.
- Use exemplars and work samples that illustrate high quality student performance based on explicit criteria.
- Identify the prior learning of students and monitor their progress to support the development of appropriately challenging work for all students.
- Celebrate successes in appropriate ways.
- Recognise and value diverse cultures in meaningful ways; for example, many students from different language backgrounds will need carefully structured talking and listening activities as an important bridge to the successful use of written language at school.
- Establish time for daily writing.
- Use processes such as joint construction to allow all students to contribute to and collaborate on a piece of writing.
- Develop links between home and school so that writing is shared and valued.

Planning to teach

When planning for the effective teaching of writing for students who need additional support, it is useful to consider the following:



Barriers to writing

Students may experience frustration when attempting to write because of difficulties with spelling, punctuation, and handwriting. Teachers may need to plan to overcome difficulties with these 'mechanical' aspects of writing. The table below provides a comparison of methods to overcome such barriers to writing. Research indicates, for example, that dictating to a scribe can eliminate some difficulties such as spelling or illegibility, and result in a longer, higher-quality written composition (De La Paz & Graham, 1997). While students must eventually learn to do their own writing, these findings suggest possible bridges to higher performance.

Comparison of methods to overcome some barriers to writing			
	Evaluative questions		
Method	***First draft: Does it enable the writer to focus on ideas? (Author role)***	***Final Draft: Does it improve readability? (Secretary role)***	***Notes***
Have the student dictate while the teacher scribes.	**Yes** Can significantly increase the length and quality of the compositions by students who need a high level of support.	**Yes** Improves the readability of the message because the teacher writes the dictated text or assists the student with spelling and punctuation as the student writes.	Major disadvantage is the student's dependence on the teacher in the writing process. Can be an effective bridge in early writing development with students who cannot translate their thoughts into a written form.
Prompt by supplying the spelling of important words before the students write. Spellings can be written on: • prompt cards • charts • chalkboards.	**Slightly** It enables students to focus attention on ideas, although somewhat inconsistently.	**Slightly** Does influence readability of the message. Number of misspellings slightly decreased (words suggested by the students for the list tended to be content words). However students with spelling difficulties frequently misspell function words such as *every, again, which*.	Effects not significantly different from other methods. Because content words convey more meaning in a text than do function words, being able to correctly spell the content words improves the readability of the text.
Teach a strategy for using a personal word book to look up the spelling of unknown words.	**No** Does not always enable students to focus on ideas. Can be a distraction. Fluency decreased. A few students with learning problems used it to good advantage.	**Yes** Word books or spelling dictionaries do improve the readability of the text. However, personal word books contain a limited set of frequently used words and are helpful only if students realise that they need to check a word.	Use for final draft only. *Note:* Having the student look up a word in the dictionary is seldom an effective strategy, because knowing how to spell the word is necessary in order to find it.

Comparison of methods to overcome some barriers to writing			
	Evaluative questions		
Method	***First draft: Does it enable the writer to focus on ideas? (Author role)***	***Final Draft: Does it improve readability? (Secretary role)***	***Notes***
Have the student ask the teacher. In this commonly used strategy, the student raises his or her hand when he or she cannot spell a word, and the teacher comes and spells the word as the student writes it down.	**Inconsistently** Asking the teacher does not always enable student attention to focus on ideas. For students who wrote fewer than 50 words at baseline, teacher assistance seemed to increase fluency during intervention.	**Inconsistently** Does improve the readability of the message somewhat but asking the teacher for spelling assistance is related to the students' awareness that they might not know how to spell particular words.	Depends on student's willingness to ask for assistance and awareness of misspelt words. Waiting can detract from writing time and flow of ideas.
Encourage invented spelling for first draft.	**Yes** Invented spelling seems to effectively enable attention to focus on ideas. Fluency increased.	**No** Led to an increase in the proportion of words that were misspelt.	Supplement with a strong spelling program. Invented spelling was useful during first draft but not when completing final draft. May be detrimental to subsequent spelling performance.
Promote peer collaboration.	**Potentially** Peer collaboration combined with strategy instruction may enable attention to focus on ideas in a way that improves quality of writing if students are prepared to work with each other in mutually supportive ways.	**Potentially** Peer collaboration and strategy instruction had a beneficial effect on the readability of second draft compositions.	Depends on how well students are prepared to work with each other combined with strategy training, e.g. teaching of an editing strategy.

Comparison of methods to overcome some barriers to writing			
	Evaluative questions		
Method	***First draft: Does it enable the writer to focus on ideas? (Author role)***	***Final Draft: Does it improve readability? (Secretary role)***	***Notes***
Teach a self-checking strategy.	**Not intended for first draft**	**Yes** The teacher should teach a self-checking strategy that the student can use to edit his or her own work.	Editing must be separated from drafting. When editing, the student needs to suspect that a word is misspelt or a punctuation error has been made.
Have students use technology.	**Inconsistently** Ease of revision provided by the word processor creates the potential for students to focus on ideas and edit for spelling or punctuation at a later time.	**Partially** Success would depend on whether students take advantage of the computer for revising, spell-checking etc. and on their fluency with editing, keyboarding and use of keyboard commands.	Improves appearance but not necessarily the quality of writing; strong motivational appeal.

Adapted from: Isaacson & Gleason (1997).

Building confidence

For students who have experienced difficulties learning to write it is important that teachers focus on removing anxiety and building confidence in students that they will be successful as writers. Teachers should plan for students to experience success with writing by providing clear models and scaffolds, explicit feedback and guidance and many opportunities for success.

Group activities for writing can help remove anxiety and build confidence, and will benefit the student who needs additional support when writing.

In groups students can:

- share knowledge about the topic; brainstorm ideas
- discuss vocabulary choices, sentences and paragraph structures
- participate in a joint construction of a particular type of text
- share editing and proofreading tasks.

It is important that students know how to participate effectively in a group. (See page 54 'Cooperative learning and its essential elements'.)

Effective writing instruction

Graham, Harris and Larsen (2001) concluded that 'there is little doubt that children's success as writers is ultimately tied to the quality of instruction'. Other researchers have identified factors in effective classroom writing instruction that apply across the range of learners and the range of classroom contexts. Steps in delivering effective instruction were outlined by Rosenshine and Stevens (1986).

1. Review previously taught skills

Review previously taught skills to ensure that students have learned and remembered them. This gives students more practice and allows the teacher to check whether they are having any problems.

The teacher can correct any errors immediately and show or model again how the task is done correctly. Skills can be retaught and different strategies may need to be used.

2. Present the new writing task

A short statement of the specific nature of the writing task, its purpose or expectations, occurs first.

The teacher models the skills or concepts to be taught using the 'think aloud' strategy, see page 33. Students experiencing difficulties will often learn more easily if the writing task is presented in small manageable steps. Step by step instruction may need to be given. A combination of scaffolded instruction – individual, content, material and task – as determined by the needs of the students can best support these students during the critical stage of initial learning, see pages 83–89.

Frequent checking of students' understanding is necessary and a lively pace will maintain students' interest.

3. Provide guided practice

In guided practice the teacher guides or leads students through some examples of the skill or concept modelled. A common language is used to provide continuous feedback about the effectiveness, meaning, and accuracy of students' writing. This ongoing monitoring is important to ensure that students avoid practising errors and can demonstrate success.

4. Provide independent practice

In independent practice students learn to use the new skills or information with a minimum of direct assistance from the teacher until new information is merged with what is already known.

Homework activities can be used for independent practice of skills. To avoid frustration, material set for homework needs to be set at an independent level. Teachers need to provide a range of contexts so that students can generalise skills.

5. Provide cumulative review activities

Skills and knowledge will not be retained by most students experiencing difficulties if taught only once or twice and practised for a brief time. Cumulative review means that students are given a task in which examples of the most recently introduced skills are integrated with examples of skills previously taught.

Fun formats, such as games and puzzles, can make the review pleasant. Tests, quick quizzes and oral questions can also be used for review.

Cumulative review is a critical part of instructional design. Material not learned or remembered may need a different presentation and more practice.

Pages 83–89 describe four dimensions of scaffolded instruction – individual, content, material and task – and how they are applied to provide levels of prompting to optimise the students' learning.

Section 2

Assessing students' writing achievements

What is assessment?

Assessing is the process of collecting, analysing and recording information about student progress towards achievement of syllabus outcomes. An important purpose of assessment is to design appropriate learning programs for all students. The principles below underpin effective assessment.

- Assessment is integral to teaching and learning. It should be based on learning outcomes that specify what students know, understand and are able to do with language.
- A variety of assessment strategies and contexts should be used to give students opportunities to demonstrate, in an authentic manner, what they know and understand about language as well as what they can do.
- Assessment procedures should relate to the knowledge and skills that are taught within the school program, and to the syllabus outcomes.

English K–6 Syllabus

The *English K–6 Syllabus*, pages 86–89, and *Focus on literacy: Writing*, pages 39–41, contain information on assessing students' writing achievements.

The main purpose of assessment is to enhance teaching and learning. When analysing assessment information in order to plan teaching and learning experiences for students who are experiencing difficulties with writing, the teacher should ask such questions as:

Has there been enough assessment information gathered from a variety of sources to make my programming effective?

Where is the student now in the teaching and learning cycle?

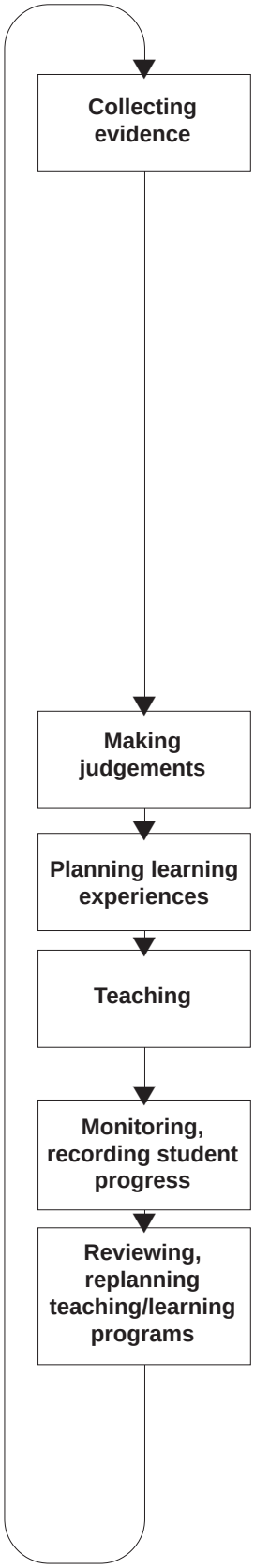
What are the priority syllabus outcomes to be achieved for this student?

What are the student's strengths?

Has the student's assessment included an informal survey of the student's topic interests and feelings about writing?

Should a more comprehensive assessment of motor skills or language involving outside specialist support be considered?

A process for assessing writing achievement



Within a planned whole-school approach, teachers gather assessment information based on contributions from a variety of sources by, for example:

- collecting samples of students' writing, carefully selected over time, to provide evidence of progress; criteria for assessing writing need to cover the whole text, sentence level and word-level aspects of the text
- observing students' behaviour and interacting with them as they engage in the processes of writing during modelled, guided and independent writing.
- analysing the student's Basic Skills Test (BST) results
- using student self-assessment recorded on self-editing checklists, self-monitoring sheets and questionnaires
- conducting three-way conferences where the teacher, parent and student meet to discuss the outcomes achieved and address relevant issues
- discussing student progress with teaching staff (including ESL teachers, community language teachers and support staff)
- consulting with outside specialists; for example, speech pathologist.

Teachers analyse the evidence collected to identify what students know and can do, and match this against the *K-6 English Syllabus* outcomes. Priorities for teaching are established.

Teachers plan ways to meet students' needs through grouping for whole class, small group and individualised instruction. Modelled, guided and independent teaching strategies are used to support students.

Teachers use teaching and learning experiences that develop the skills, knowledge and understandings needed to achieve the writing outcomes towards which students are moving. Principles of effective instruction are adhered to.

Teachers monitor and record students' evidence of progress. Written records may include logs and diaries, observation sheets, submissions or records of meetings, questionnaires.

Teachers constantly review, adjust and re-plan teaching and learning activities to support the individual writing needs of all students. Students experiencing difficulties need to be identified and supported as early as possible.

Adapted from *Teaching reading: A K–6 Framework* (1997), p. 24.

Monitoring progress: Some examples of ways to monitor students' writing

Writing	*Collecting evidence*
Composing an exposition	Evaluation questions – have the typical features been included? See page 31
Constructing a flow chart	Questions to evaluate the clarity and effectiveness of the flow chart, see page 43
Composing a narrative	Prompted editing and proofreading checklist to check completeness, organisation and mechanics, see page 87
Self-monitoring decisions	Self-evaluation checklist recording action and decision making, see page 71
Self-monitoring writing	A graph: setting my goals, showing my progress, see page 91
Composing an explanation	Self-editing 'think sheet' to reflect on the first draft, see page 72
Composing a narrative	Written comments to prompt a conference, see page 53
Writing conferences	Questions that might guide a conference, see page 52
Interpreting graphics, charts, maps and diagrams	Questions to give students greater guidance and help monitor their understanding, see page 63
Constructing a factual paragraph	Conference with a partner or the teacher using a checklist of typical features that should be included, see page 95
Assessing the students' use of the planning strategy POWER	A checklist for evaluating the process, see page 100
Constructing a simple sentence	Using a *Sentence edit checklist*, see page 124
Using the correct punctuation	*Punctuation guide* for students to understand and monitor the correct use of punctuation, see page 143
Editing punctuation	A *Punctuation checklist for my narrative*, see page 144

Spelling	*Collecting evidence*
Gathering information about the student's spelling achievements	Sample of words misspelt taken from the student's journal of writing, first writing drafts and other specifically designed tests, see page 156
Gathering information about the student's spelling achievements	Check the scope and sequence of phonological and graphological skills: spelling, see page 157
Gathering information about how the student spells an unknown word, learns a new word and proofreads	A spelling questionnaire presented orally by the teacher to the student to inform programming, see page 158
Monitoring the student's spelling progress	The student monitors his/her own progress by colouring the grid, see page 159
Spelling in a range of contexts; generalisation of skills taught	Selecting samples of the student's independent writing and activity sheets, see page 160

Using Basic Skills Test (BST) for planning and programming

The BST Writing assessment uses two curriculum-based writing tasks for Year 3 and Year 5 students. It is a criterion-referenced test that shows what students can do and enables standards of performance to be compared from year to year.

The aspects of writing that are assessed include literary and factual writing. The writing tasks are marked centrally although 20% of schools mark the writing scripts of their own students. This is a valuable professional development opportunity for classroom teachers.

The aggregation of student results from the BST provides the school with an overview of current achievements for groups of students and contributes to a more comprehensive understanding of their performance. Along with other forms of assessment, the analysis of aggregated results can be used by the school to assist whole-school planning.

How can teachers use BST to identify the specific needs of their students?

Although teachers of Year 3 and Year 5 only receive the BST results for individual students, information from BST, along with results from other assessment tasks administered in their classrooms throughout the year, can guide teachers K–6 in identifying areas which might need additional teaching support or further consolidation. Careful analysis of BST Writing results can assist schools to identify specific strengths and weaknesses in writing for students in their school. Teachers can use individual BST Writing results and other classroom assessments to determine future programming decisions and to select appropriate strategies for teaching students experiencing difficulties.

Criterion-referenced assessment

In criterion-referenced assessment each piece of writing is assessed against criteria that measure how well the writing achieves the purpose of the task. This kind of assessment indicates what skills students have or have not demonstrated and highlights skills points for further teaching.

Teachers can develop their own criterion-referenced assessment tasks for writing using the English K–6 syllabus as a performance standard. Criterion-referenced assessment can assist teachers to evaluate and diagnose demonstrated student achievement, and develop intervention strategies to target students' strengths and weaknesses.

Sharing a set of assessment criteria with students provides a tool for students to use to assist them to become self-regulating, reflective and independent writers.

The headings below are those found in the annual BST Writing marking manuals. A set of criteria for each writing task is provided for the markers to make judgments against.

Text processes

Does the student –

- write what is asked with a clear understanding of audience and purpose
- stay on the set topic
- choose a structure of text appropriate to the purpose of the writing
- make language choices appropriate to the purpose of the writing
- organise the text appropriate to the task
- write coherently?

Text features

Does the student use –

- paragraphs properly
- titles and headings effectively and appropriately if required
- sentence structures that serve the purpose of the text
- pronouns and conjunctions effectively to keep the text cohesive
- appropriate and consistent tense?

Sentence level

Does the student use –

- correct clauses
- articles and plurals correctly
- prepositions appropriately
- sentence punctuation
- correct subject and verb agreement?

Word level

These criteria examine the grammar at the level of the word choice making up the texts.

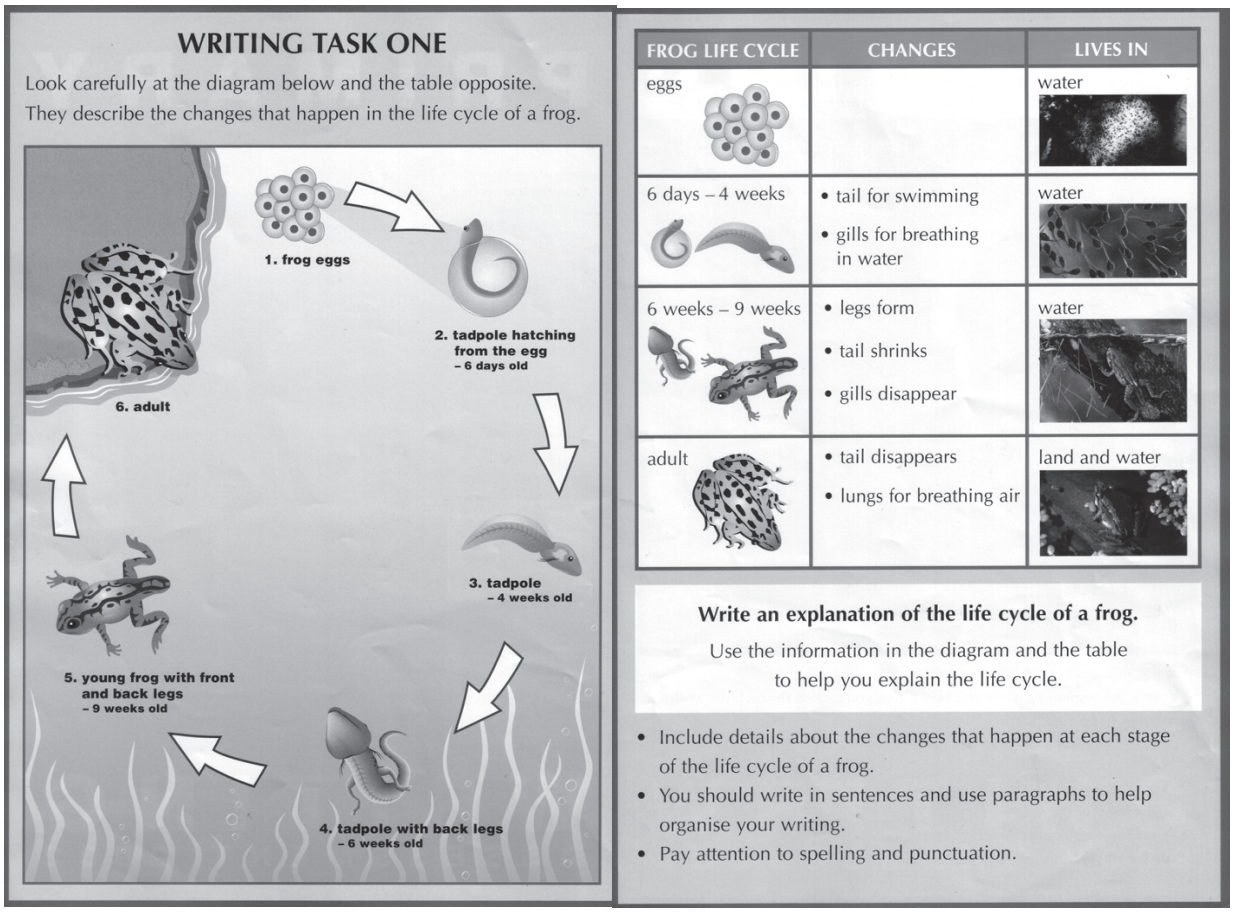
- Is the form of the verb correct?
- Is spelling mostly correct?

The following example, based on a writing task from the Primary Writing Assessment 2002, illustrates how judgements can be made about the needs of individual students from the evidence to be found in their work.

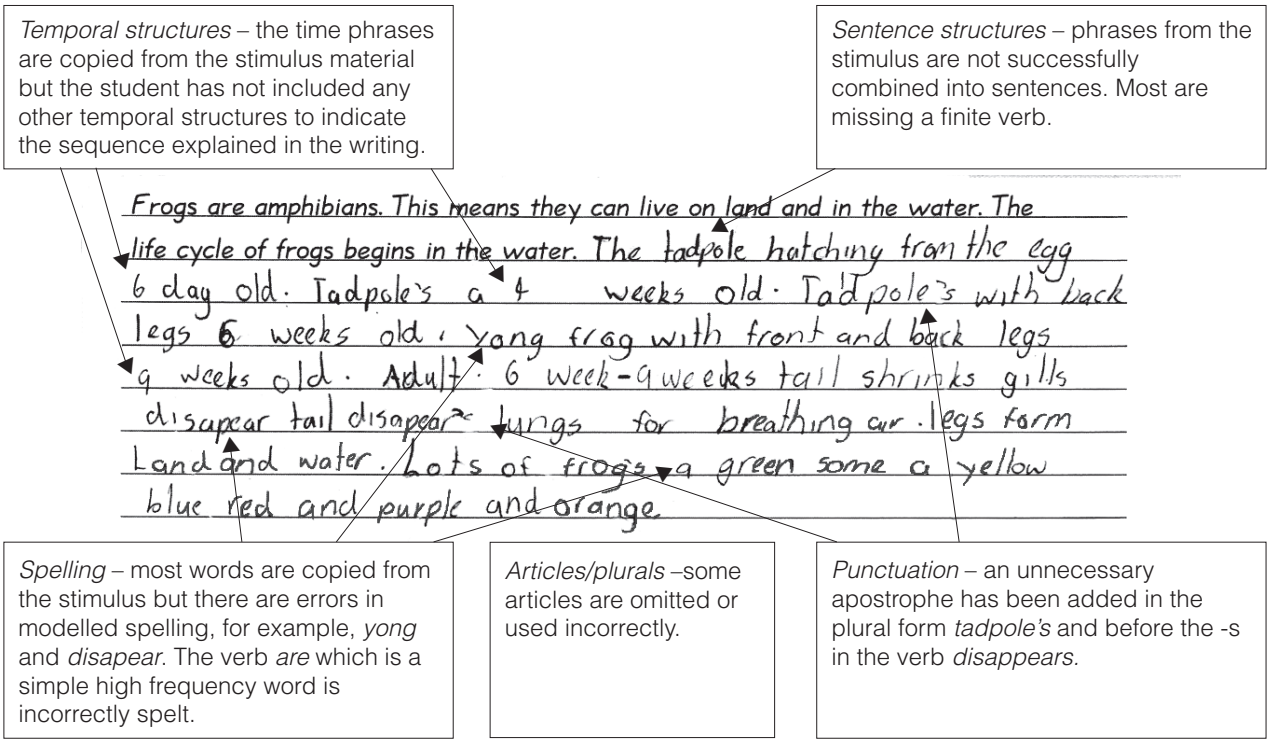
From BST Writing to teacher analysis, planning and programming

Stimulus material: The life cycle of frogs

(From *Primary Writing Assessment* 2002)



Example of the writing of a student in Year 3 who scored in Band 1



Areas for explicit teaching

The student has used phrases from the stimulus material but has not combined them into successful sentences. The last sentence contains an attempt to add original material. The student has not used appropriate prepositions, pronouns or conjunctions to link ideas together. To write cohesively, this student would need to be taught how to construct simple sentences and use a range of temporal structures to correctly sequence separate events.

Leaps and Bounds (2003)

Section 3

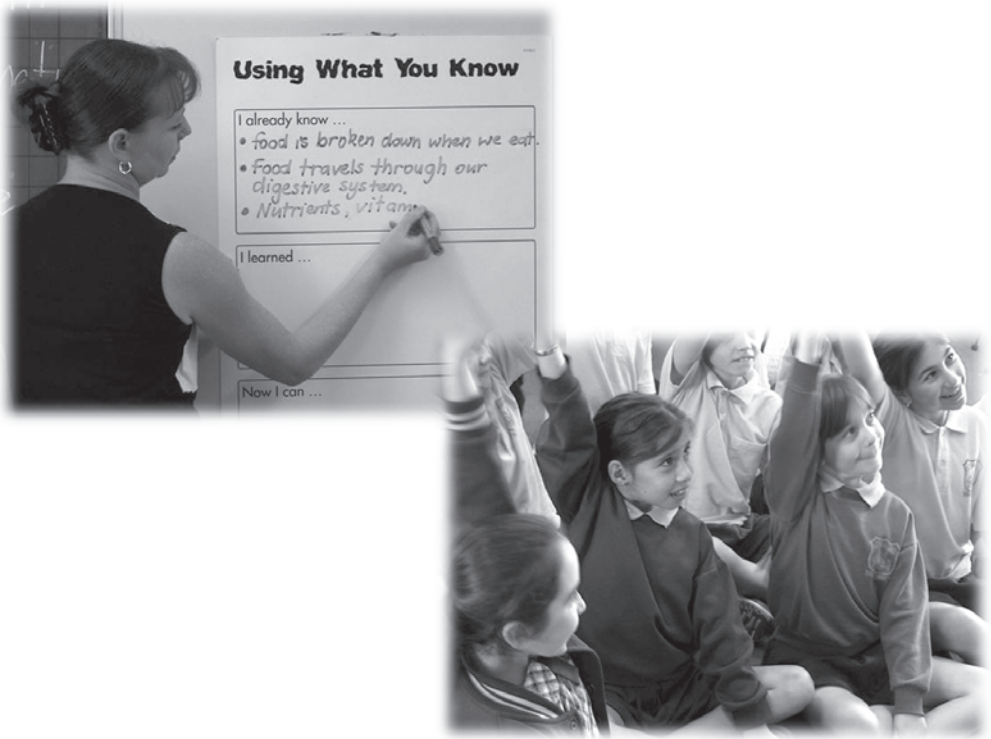
Writing instruction

Features of exemplary writing instruction

When students are engaged in purposeful writing tasks, teachers provide support for them through explicit teaching. Teachers also guide students by demonstrating how to achieve particular purposes, discussing the effectiveness of writers' choices and giving feedback at all stages of writing.

The goal of all teaching is for students to become independent writers. Teachers continue to provide support until students can compose texts for particular purposes independently. However, even when students can write for certain purposes independently, there are always greater writing challenges over the horizon with which they need help. This applies even beyond school. So, even though independence is the goal, explicit teaching and guidance are always needed.

From *Focus on literacy: Writing,* p. 26.



Through their research, Graham, Harris and Larsen (2001) identified the features of exemplary writing instruction:

- a literate classroom environment where students' written work is prominently displayed, the room is packed with writing and reading material and word lists adorn the walls
- daily writing with students on a wide range of writing tasks for multiple audiences, including writing at home
- extensive efforts to make writing motivating by setting an exciting mood, creating a risk free environment, allowing students to select their own writing topics or modify teacher assignments, developing assigned topics compatible with students' interests, reinforcing students' accomplishments, specifying the goal for each lesson, and promoting an 'I can' attitude
- regular teacher/student conferences concerning the writing topic the student is currently working on, including the establishment of goals or criteria to guide the student's writing and revising efforts
- a predictable writing routine where students are encouraged to think, reflect and revise
- overt teacher modelling of the process of writing as well as positive attitudes towards writing
- cooperative arrangements where students help each other plan, draft, edit or publish their written work
- group or individual sharing where students present work in progress or work completed to their peer(s) for feedback
- instruction covering a broad range of skills, knowledge and strategies, including phonological awareness, handwriting and spelling, writing conventions, sentence-level skills, text structure, the functions of writing, and planning and revising
- follow-up instruction to ensure mastery of targeted writing skills, knowledge, and strategies
- integration of writing activities across the curriculum and the use of reading to support writing development
- frequent opportunities for students to self-regulate their behaviour during writing, including working independently, arranging their own space, and seeking help from others
- teacher and student assessment of writing progress, strengths, and needs
- periodic conferences with parents and frequent communications with home about the writing program and students' progress as writers.

Strategies to engage all students in writing

Modelled writing

Purpose

Modelled writing helps students to gain knowledge about language, vocabulary and text structures required to write for a range of purposes. Modelled writing includes explicit teaching about the processes involved in composing text.

Focus on literacy: Writing, p. 29.

Description

Modelled writing means using both models and modelling. Modelled writing refers, on the one hand, to the selection of models to show students how writing works and, on the other hand, to the teacher's practice of modelling or demonstrating writing to students.

The best source of models for writing is the real world, that is, the texts that students read. In modelled writing, teachers provide students with examples of the type of text they will be composing, explanations of how these texts work and structured demonstrations of what efficient writers know and do.

Focus on literacy: Writing, p. 28.

Preparation

- Use the assessment information gathered to determine the skills, knowledge and understandings to be revisited and taught (build on what students already know and can do).
- Identify the *English K–6 Syllabus* outcomes to be achieved and the indicators that might demonstrate movement towards or achievement of the outcomes.
- Identify the context or content area the writing will occur in.
- Collect short but well-written examples of different types of texts that students will be composing. Relate each example to a planned unit of work where that particular type of text will play a role in the student's learning and where the purpose and audience for whom the text is written can be clearly identified.
- Highlight and label the key features of each type of text. Keep these examples in a book or folder with copies of them on overhead transparencies. See an example of an exposition on page 29.
- Provide text scaffolds to support the modelling (composing) of each type of text and include these in the folder as a resource, see page 32. (Samples of a range of text types can be found in *English K-6 Modules*).

  Text scaffolds can also be used in guided and independent writing activities and carefully structured talking and listening activities. For many students from different language backgrounds, carefully structured talking and listening activities will be an important bridge to the successful use of written language.

- Identify the different ways students will build field knowledge prior to the modelled writing session. For example, strategies such as brainstorming what is known about a topic and what we want to find out about it are good starting points for building field knowledge, see page 58. These lead to activities that help students to explore and organise new information appropriate for the type of text to be composed.
- Recognise, value and build on the different cultural understandings, skills and values that students bring to the classroom.

Implementation

- Introduce the type of text by clarifying the purpose and audience for whom the text is written – the social purpose or intention of the text.
- Display the model of writing selected to show students how this particular type of writing works.
- Explore with students the type of texts associated with other key learning areas and state explicitly for students which types of texts are valued in key learning areas. See page 31 for some examples.
- Read together and point out the typical features of the text using the 'think aloud' writing strategy, see page 33.
- List the typical features or on a prepared list tick each typical feature as it is demonstrated. Refer to page 29 for one example of typical features for an exposition.
- Point out to students the type of language used by the author to influence the reader.
- Consider presenting an unsuccessful example of the same type of text. Change the list of typical features into evaluation questions as shown on page 31. Use the questions to demonstrate why the writing may not be as effective when an important feature is missing.
- Cut samples of texts into sections appropriate to the stages of the type of text. Then have the students sequence the sections into an appropriate order. See page 109.
- Use a variety of newspaper and feature articles for students to categorise according to audience and purpose.
- Use different types of text on the same topic to compare the effectiveness of different word and text choices made by the writers.
- Ask questions to keep students' attention and to check their understanding of important points.
- Provide opportunities for students to practise the knowledge, skills and understandings that have been demonstrated in guided and independent writing sessions.

Helpful hints:
Remember to include samples constructed by students.

An example of modelled writing – exposition

The teacher's copy showing some of the typical features of an exposition.

Text Structure	**Cars should be banned in the city**	**Language Features**
A statement of position with some background information	Cars should be banned in the city. As we all know, cars create pollution and cause a lot of road deaths and other accidents. Cars are also noisy.	*Use of modal verb to indicate obligation, e.g. should*
Preview of argument	Firstly, cars contribute to most of the pollution in the world. Cars emit a deadly gas that causes illnesses such as bronchitis and lung cancer. The deadly gas can also trigger asthma. Some of these illnesses are so bad that people can die from them.	*Use of word chains to build topic information e.g. cars, pollution, accidents, road deaths*
Argument 1 Point elaboration		*Use of action verbs e.g. die, wander*
		Linking verb 'causes' used instead of causal conjunction e.g. cars emit… that causes…
Argument 2 Point elaboration	Secondly, the city is very busy. Pedestrians wander everywhere and cars could hit them. This could cause some pedestrians to die. Cars today are the biggest killers on our roads.	*Relating verbs, e.g. 'is', to relate parts of the clause, e.g. the city <u>is</u> very busy*
Argument 3 Point elaboration	Thirdly, cars are very noisy. If you live in the city, you may find it hard to sleep at night, or concentrate on your homework. The noise can make it especially difficult to talk to someone.	*Use of connectives to sequence arguments, e.g. firstly, secondly, thirdly*
Summing up of position	In conclusion, cars should be banned from the city for the reasons listed.	

Adapted from *English K–6 Modules*, p. 254.

Text for modelling structure and grammar features

This can be used as an overhead transparency (OHT) for the teacher to model the text structure and language features, depending on the lesson focus. The teacher writes on the OHT 'thinking aloud'. *See page 33.*

Cars should be banned in the city

Cars should be banned in the city. As we all know, cars create pollution and cause a lot of road deaths and other accidents. Cars are also noisy.

Firstly, cars contribute to most of the pollution in the world. Cars emit a deadly gas that causes illnesses such as bronchitis and lung cancer. The deadly gas can also trigger asthma. Some of these illnesses are so bad that people can die from them.

Secondly, the city is very busy. Pedestrians wander everywhere and cars could hit them. This could cause some pedestrians to die. Cars today are the biggest killers on our roads.

Thirdly, cars are very noisy. If you live in the city, you may find it hard to sleep at night, or concentrate on your homework. The noise can make it especially difficult to talk to someone.

In conclusion, cars should be banned from the city for the reasons listed.

Features of an exposition

Typical features of an exposition

Paragraphs

- States topic and the writer's opinion in the first sentence with a summary of the reasons.
- States argument 1 (usually the strongest argument) with details that support this reason. The writer considers the roles and relationships of those involved to determine the tone of the writing.
- States argument 2 with details that support this reason.
- States other arguments with details to support them.
- A conclusion is written to reinforce the writer's opinion.
- Language features include:
  - simple present tense
  - connectives and conjunctions to link arguments, e.g. *next, therefore, as a result, firstly.*
  - words which qualify arguments, e.g. modal verbs *should, could*, modal adverbs, e.g. *surely, completely,* modal nouns, e.g. *catastrophe, devastation*, modal adjectives, e.g. *urgent, reasonable*.

Evaluation questions for an exposition could be:

- Does the first paragraph state the topic and the writer's opinion with a summary of the reasons?
- Is each argument clearly stated with details to support that argument?
- Is the last paragraph written as a conclusion reinforcing the writer's opinion?
- Are the language features appropriate for this type of text?

Linking texts with other key learning areas

Type of text	*HSIE*	*Science*	*PDHPD*	*Creative Arts*	*Mathematics*
Descriptions	Changes resulting from colonisation	Animals, machines	Healthy lifestyles	Portrait of a person or painting	Describing the passing of time
Reports	Local area, countries	New inventions or the planets	Nutritional foods	Musical instrument	3D shapes
Procedures	Care plan for natural site	Describe an experiment or make a kite	Play a game or how to test lung capacity	Make a puppet	Build a prism
Recounts	Historical events, biography	Record the growth of plants over time	Personal experience, biography	Art gallery excursion	
Explanations	How people grow and change	How a machine works	How muscles make the body move, how food is digested	How an instrument makes a sound	How to solve a problem
Expositions	Children should be able to watch any TV program they like	Should we spend money preserving endangered animals?	There should be no school rules	Modern music is better than classical	No one needs to learn tables
Discussions	Environmental issues	Recycling	Childhood vaccination	Dancing is the best exercise	Using calculators in class

Adapted from *Choosing literacy strategies that work, Stage 2*, p. 199.

Task scaffolding – writing an exposition

This proforma can be used on an OHT. It provides one example of a task scaffold to support the modelling (writing) of an exposition by the teacher. This sample scaffold can also be used to support students during guided or independent writing.

Exposition

Topic .....

Write the topic and your opinion in the first sentence. Give a summary of your reasons.	
Argument 1 with details that support your reason. My first reason/argument/ point ..... To begin with, ...	
Argument 2 with details that support your reason. A second reason ..... Furthermore, ...	
Argument 3 with details that support your reason. My last point ..... Another reason	
Conclusion/reinforcement of your opinion In conclusion ..... Therefore we/I believe ..... Finally, ...	

'Think aloud' writing

Purpose

The purpose of this strategy is to explicitly demonstrate the choices and decisions that writers make as they plan, analyse and edit their own writing.

Description

'Think aloud' is exactly what it means – the process of saying aloud what the writer is thinking while completing a writing task. It can be described as self-narration. By modelling for students the types of behaviours good writers are engaged in as they write, teachers are providing students with the opportunity to become aware of the many strategies writers use to generate and organise ideas. As appropriate, the teacher can encourage students to chime in and help 'think' through the writing task.

It is a strategy that can be used to demonstrate a comprehensive range of skills, knowledge and understandings about writing. For example, it can be a useful strategy when teaching elements of:

- text structure, grammar and punctuation
- spelling
- handwriting
- the process of writing; for example, editing, proofreading.

Students can be encouraged to use 'think aloud' writing as they provide peer support during shared or paired writing.

Implementation

The teacher chooses a writing focus based on the identified needs of the students. For example, the focus could be to teach students specific editing and proofreading skills. The teacher might select a sample of a student's draft writing and use 'think aloud' writing to demonstrate the decisions and reasoning when editing or proofreading the text.

Some examples in this handbook where 'think aloud' writing can be used effectively are:

- during modelled writing where the teacher models each step of the POWER strategy while writing on an overhead transparency, see page 96
- when using collaborative talk while sequencing a scrambled text, see page 108
- when an analogy is used to predict the spelling of an unknown word, see page 169
- self-talk while completing a concept map, see page 77
- when modelling the process for indentifying key words and phrases while note-making, see page 80.

Helpful hints: Keep the sessions fairly short. Don't attempt to verbalise everything as you write.

Focus on only one or two aspects of the text at a time. The same text can and should be revisited time and again to focus on different text features.

Guided writing

Purpose

The purpose of guided writing is to:

- provide students with explicit and systematic teaching of writing to meet their specific needs
- conduct a writing activity that involves the students and the teacher jointly composing a text
- provide opportunities for students to work as a group or in pairs to support each other, with the teacher as a guide.

Description

Guided writing is a key strategy for assisting students who need additional support in writing.

In guided writing students are required to draw on the knowledge, skills and understandings developed during modelled writing sessions, with varying degrees of support from the teacher.

A common guided writing activity involves students and the teacher jointly composing a text.

The guided writing sessions can involve the whole class, small groups or individuals. They can provide a setting for effective team teaching with the support teacher learning assistance (STLA) and other support personnel such as the English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher.

Preparation

- Analyse assessment information gathered to prioritise and identify each student's specific needs, see page 18 'A process for assessing writing achievement'.
- Match identified needs to the outcomes of the *English K–6 Syllabus* and determine the outcomes that students will be working towards or achieving.
- Identify indicators of achievement that students might display as they move towards achievement of the outcomes.
- Identify and plan monitoring procedures, see pages 19, 20.
- Decide on how the writing sessions will be conducted; for example, small groups, individuals, whole class.
- Identify the strategies that will support students in building field knowledge prior to the guided writing session, see page 57.
- Recognise, value and build on the different cultural understandings, skills and values that students bring to the writing classroom.

Guided writing strategies

Using a jigsaw cloze to reconstruct text

A jigsaw cloze is a variation of written cloze in which lines of a poem, sentences of a literary text or stages in a factual text are cut up and jumbled like a jigsaw.

Students can reconstruct the text with teacher direction, using as a guide the stages of the text type, the language features that might give them clues (time connectives, use of pronouns) and their knowledge of order of events. See pages 106–110 for the explicit teaching of a sequencing task related to the reconstuction of an explanation.

Constructing a fact file

Provide students with a proforma for organising their information to construct a fact file for a topic being researched.

Jointly construct a fact file to demonstrate the process.

Encourage and support students to work in pairs to research and construct their own fact file.

Invite students to share their fact file with other students and compare facts researched.

Below is an example of a fact file constructed after researching a favourite Australian author on the internet.

Author: Pamela Allen

Birthdate: 1934

Some personal details: Born in New Zealand, moved with family to Australia. Won numerous book awards

Hobbies and interests: Studied Fine Arts. Loved drawing as a child. Writes and illustrates picture books for the very young

Books include: Who Sank the Boat? My Cat Maisie, Belinda Alexander's Outing

Key

- Award winner
- Film of book
- Fiction
- Picture book

Keeping a learning journal

Students can use a learning journal to help them reflect on what they have learned during the course of a unit and to practise integrating new information into written texts.

Demonstrate to students how to keep a learning journal during the course of a planned unit of work (see the example below). Ask students to turn to the first double page in their folder. Explain that the left hand page can be used for brainstorming things learned each day and the right side for writing a factual paragraph using information from the list or writing about one topic from the list.

Set up two sheets of chart paper side by side (left and right) and jointly construct a text to provide a model for students as they work independently on their own journal pages.

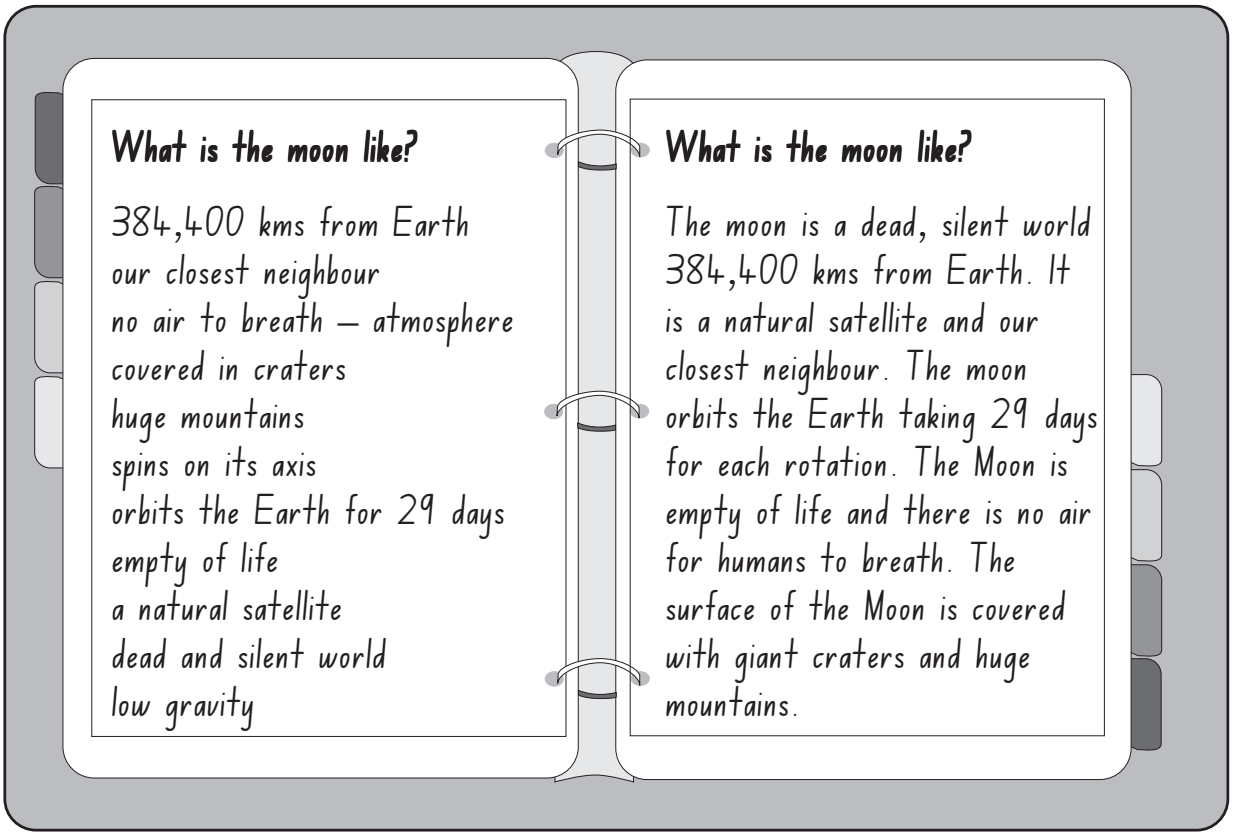
Display and review a list of typical features of a well constructed factual paragraph that students can refer to if a prompt is needed, see page 95.

Assist students to use correct spellings and understand the patterns of grammar for the type of text they are constructing.This could be done by brainstorming and scribing on an overhead transparency appropriate action and relating verbs, nouns groups that describe, and adverbial phrases to give information about what, where and why, see page 37. Students may be prompted to use these language features when constructing their text.

An example of a learning journal kept during the course of a Science unit on space.

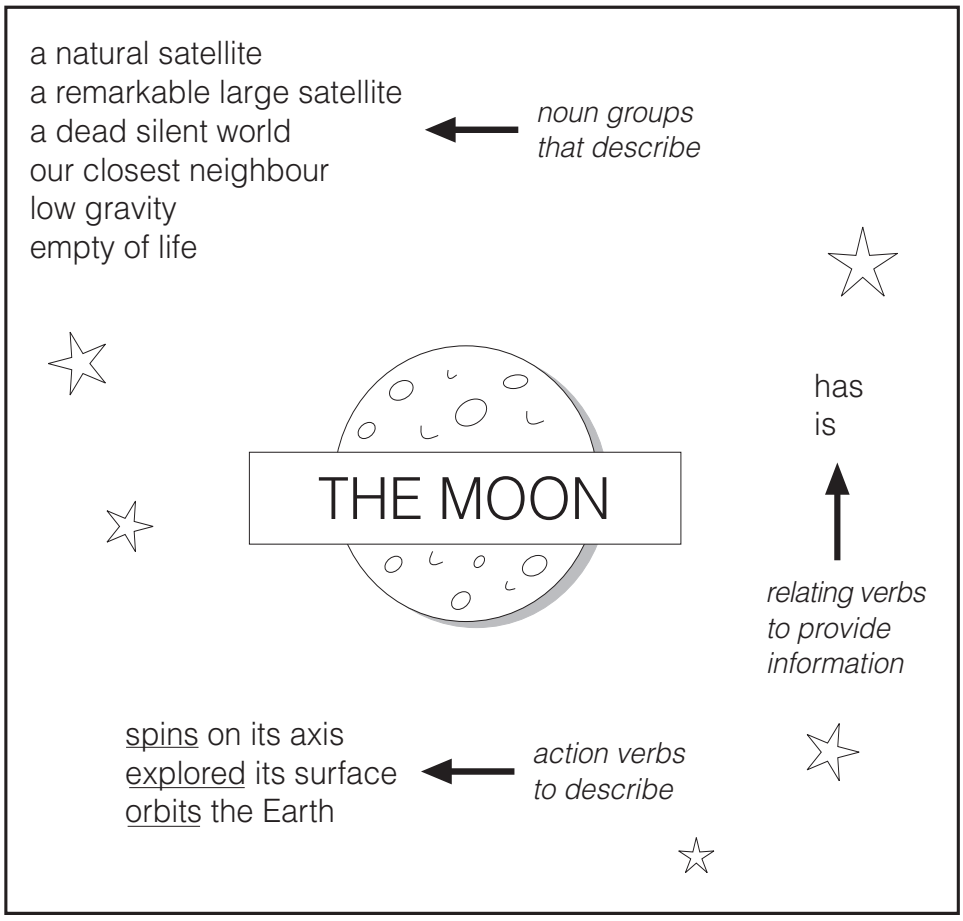
Brainstorming things learned each day on the left hand page.

Constructing a factual paragraph using information from the list on the right hand page.



Identifying grammatical patterns

When brainstorming, group the brainstormed words and phrases. This assists students to understand the patterns of grammar for the type of text they are constructing.



Devising a board game

Work in small groups to devise a board game on a literature theme or other topic being studied.

Examine a variety of board games and discuss the main components. Provide a proforma with leading questions to guide students in devising their own game. See the example below.

After the games have been devised, it is important that each group has the opportunity to display and explain its game to the rest of the class and to play the games created by other groups.

This process allows students to discuss the games, give compliments and share concerns about any potential problems.

Leading questions when devising a board game

Who will be playing this game? *Students in our class*

What will be the purpose of the game? *To learn more about a topic we are researching, to interpret charts, diagrams, a matrix ...; to construct simple sentences: questions, statements, commands.*

How will that purpose be achieved? *Students will be given a 'clue sheet' to use for constructing questions and statements; players will be given a 'clue sheet' to locate the answers.*

What will be the name of the game? *The topic: Earth in Danger!*

How many players will be needed? *Two players.*

What will the board game look like? *It will have numbered squares and the players will race against each other to the finish (see example on page 39).*

How will the players move or win points? *By giving the correct answers.*

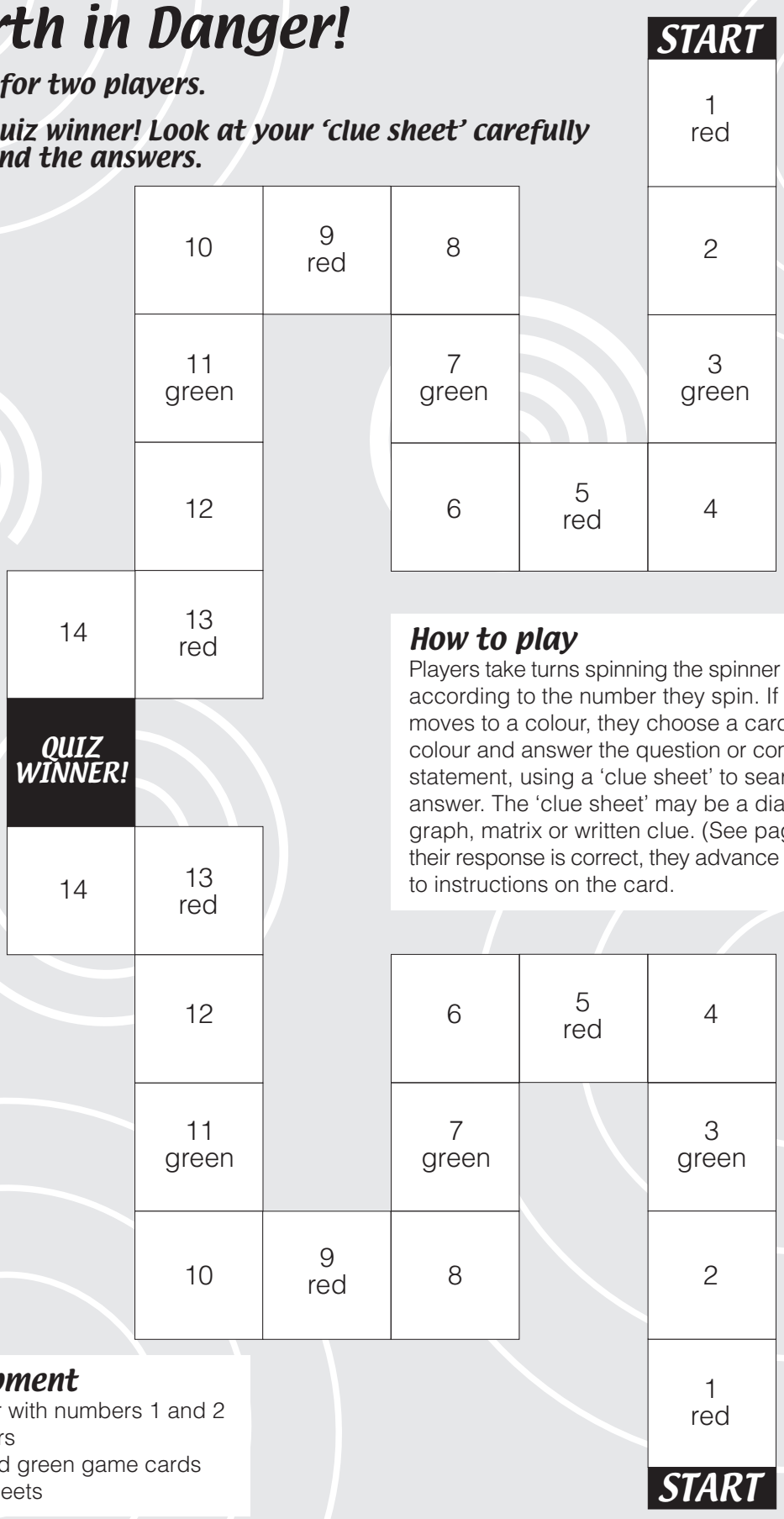
Who will start first? *Students will take turns to start first.*

What will be needed to play this game? *Answer cards, game board, eight question cards, six cloze statements, counters, 'clue sheet', spinner.*

Earth in Danger!

Game for two players.

Be a quiz winner! Look at your 'clue sheet' carefully and find the answers.



How to play

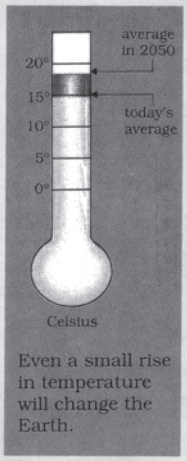
Players take turns spinning the spinner and move according to the number they spin. If a player moves to a colour, they choose a card of that colour and answer the question or complete the statement, using a 'clue sheet' to search for the answer. The 'clue sheet' may be a diagram, graph, matrix or written clue. (See page 40.) If their response is correct, they advance according to instructions on the card.

Equipment

Spinner with numbers 1 and 2
Counters
Red and green game cards
Clue sheets

An example of an information report that could be used as a 'clue sheet'.

EARTH IN DANGER



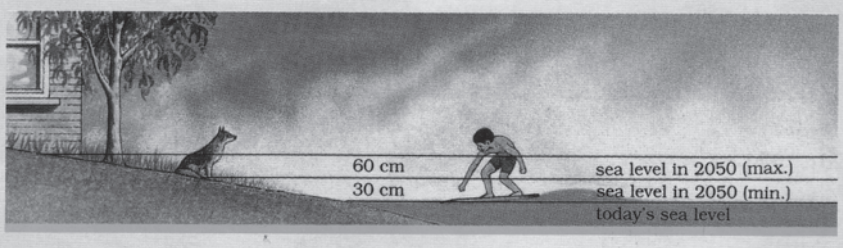
Even a small rise in temperature will change the Earth.

Planet Earth is in danger. The climate is heating up, which may cause seas to rise and flood our coastal cities.

The Earth is heating up

Since 1980 the world's climate has become half a degree warmer. The 1980s was the hottest decade in more than two centuries. The climate is expected to heat up another one to four degrees by the year 2050.

The warmer seas may expand and parts of the world's ice caps and glaciers could melt. As a result, coastal cities could become flooded to a depth of about sixty centimetres.



Our Earth, BST Booklet, Year 3, 1999.

An example of statement and question cards.

Why is planet Earth in danger?

Advance one step.

The Earth is..... up.

Go one step forward.

What does the themometer tell us?

Advance one step.

What can happen when the climate heats up?

Go one step forward.

Organising information to compare and contrast

Provide students with a scaffold for organising information to compare and contrast some aspect of a topic under investigation.

Brainstorm to record information already known on a topic. Suggest categories for comparing and contrasting, and jointly complete the scaffold in preparation for constructing a descriptive report. See one example of a scaffold below.

As a variation, invite students to work with a friend and use the scaffold to organise information about themselves to describe how they are alike and how they are different. Brainstorm suitable categories that students can use for comparing and contrasting their individual characteristics.

Comparison/Contrast Organisation Form

Who/what are being compared/contrasted?

Sue (me) and Alice (my friend)

On what?	Appearance
Alike? Both have black hair and brown eyes.	Different? Sue is tall and thin; Alice is short.

On what?	Food preferences
Alike? Fudge, potato chips, pancakes	Different? Sue likes Hungry Jacks; Alice, McDonalds.

On what?	Hobbies and other interests
Alike? Swimming, netball, going to the movies	Different? Alice plays the flute – Sue plays the drums.

Constructing a flow chart

Discuss the use of flow charts to sequence information about related aspects of a topic.

Explain that a flow chart is a visual text and another way of explaining and recording a chain of events in a sequence. Explanations and information reports are often supported by flow charts to enable a better understanding of the topic. Show examples such as the one below.

We visited an orange orchard and a factory where cordial is made...

Citrus Fruit

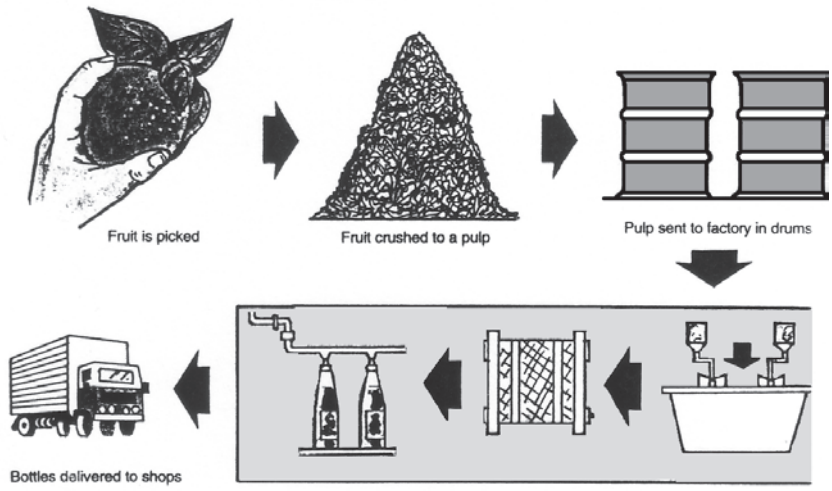
Oranges, lemons, mandarins, grapefruit, kumquats and tangelos are citrus fruit.

Citrus fruit trees grow best in warm climates. In colder lands, they can be grown in greenhouses.

Fruit growers try to make sure their plants produce a high yield. The soil must be fertile, so chemical fertilisers or manure are added. These provide nutrients which help the plants to grow well. Some growers use chemical sprays to stop the fruits from falling from the tree too early, pesticides to combat insects and fungicides to prevent disease. (Because of this, it is important to wash any fruit if the skin is to be eaten.)

New varieties of citrus plants have been created. Some bear larger fruit. Other new plants grow all their fruit the same shape and colour. There are also new plants which resist pests and diseases.

Making Orange Fruit Juice Cordial



At Tinamba Bay Camp, BST Booklet, 1993.

Emphasise that it is very important to study the flow charts carefully (note the direction of the arrows, the sequence of action verbs etc.) to clearly understand the information provided.

Jointly construct a flow chart as a model for students to follow.

Decide on a topic under investigation, consider the audience and layout and determine the main chain of events to be sequenced. Ensure students have sufficient field knowledge and the data readily available to complete the flow chart.

Use questioning techniques and 'think aloud' to assist students to design and interpret the flow chart.

When completed evaluate the clarity and effectiveness of the flow chart.

Evaluating questions may include:

1. Is the topic clear?
2. Are the selected events the most important ones?
3. Is the chain of events in the right sequence?
4. Is there a sequence of action verbs crucial to the explanation?
5. Do the noun or noun groups support the diagrams or pictures?
6. Could a reader not familiar with the topic understand this?

Invite students to work in pairs or small groups to construct their own flow chart.

Helpful hints:
Consider using the flow chart as a clue sheet for constructing questions and locating answers when constructing a board game.

Jointly construct a recount

Jointly construct a recount of a shared experience, for example, a school excursion to the Sydney Royal Easter Show. Use a recount plan to guide organisation in preparation for writing. See the example below.

Determine the purpose and audience.

Consider the context of the recount; for example, if the recount is to be published in the school newsletter the audience is distant and the language choices will be formal. The writer will also need to include more information in the writing because the reader may not have shared the experience.

Decide on the information that will need to be included in the introduction.

Brainstorm the key events. Sequence these key events.

Select four of the key events and model how to elaborate on those key events using phrases. Demonstrate how to use authoritative sources to support the development of elaborations, see page 45 for examples.

Consider the logic that will underpin the organisation of events.

Decide how the recount will end.

Sample of a recount plan to guide organisation, in preparation for writing. The writer selects the events about which he or she will write. These are shaded in the example below.

Background/Orientation When? Who? Where? Why?	Saturday 23rd March Class 5B The Sydney Royal Easter Show – to find out more about the Great Australian Muster, i.e. the time when the country comes to the city.	*Decide on the information that will need to be included in the introduction*
Record of events Order could be, for example: • a time sequence • most educational to the least • most favourite to least • some of the favourites (no particular order)	Events in the Main Arena 09: – NED – the legend of Ned Kelly – The Santa Gertrudis Spectacular – Showtime Freestyle Motor X – RM Williams Stockmen's Ride – Bush poet Guy McLean – Fireworks – Mick Johnson 'Comedy Clown' – Hyundai Precision Driving Team – Horseman from Snowy River	*Select four of the key events.* *Decide how they will be ordered.* *Elaborate on each event.*
Re-orientation (optional) e.g. How did it end? Feelings and thoughts about the events Evaluations Judgements	The day was both educational and entertaining. We now know more about the Great Australian Muster, i.e. the time when the country came to the city.	*Decide how the recount will end.*

Model how to elaborate on these key events using effective phrases gathered from an authoritative source.

Key events	*Elaboration of the event using phrases*
The Santa Gertrudis Spectacular was one of the earliest events we saw.	A special parade in the Main Arena 09 (adjectival) of Santa Gertrudis cattle to mark the 50 years of Santa Gertrudis cattle in Australia (adjectival) was impressive.
Watching *NED – The legend of Ned Kelly* was interesting.	This production presented the 'true and tragic tale' of the famous bushranger (adjectival) brought to life by a cast of 80 actors and crack riders. We were able to see the exhibition of Kelly memorabilia in the Woolworths Fresh Food Dome foyer (adverbial).

Authoritative source: *The Sun-Herald Magazine 2002, Sydney Royal Easter Show.*

Variations:

- Create a class mural to show the sequence of events. Jointly construct labels for the mural that recount main events and highlight elaborations.
- Cut a recount into sections. Separate the topic sentence in each event from its elaboration.

  Have students working in small groups or pairs sequence the recount. Students can refer to the recount plan on page 44 as a prompt, if needed.

  On completion, students report and justify their choices.

Innovating on a text – encouraging confidence and creativity in students' writing

Select a suitable text containing a repetitive structure either throughout the book or in parts of the book and innovate on the text.

Read the text several times with the students.

Discuss the structure, the language features, the pictures, the intended audience and the author's purpose in writing the text.

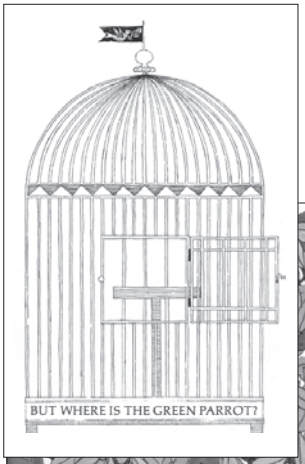
Discuss how some of these aspects might change after innovating on the text.

Model a simple innovation and have students work in small groups to create an innovation of their own.

For example, *But Where is the Green Parrot?* by Thomas and Wanda Zacharias, could become *But Where is the Little Brown Lizard?*

The description of each location along with a sketch of the camouflaged lizard for children to find, supported by the repetitive question *But Where is the Little Brown Lizard?* could become a captivating story, composed by primary aged students for younger students to read.

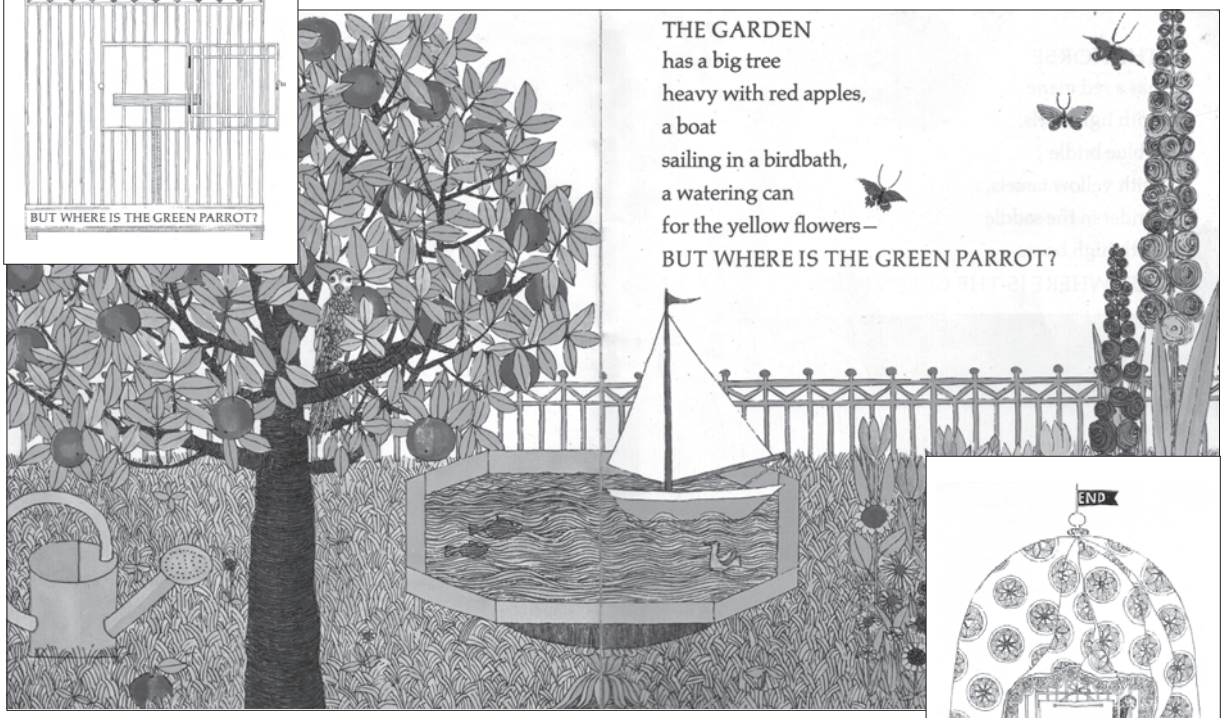
Model a simple innovation and have students work in small groups to create an innovation of their own.

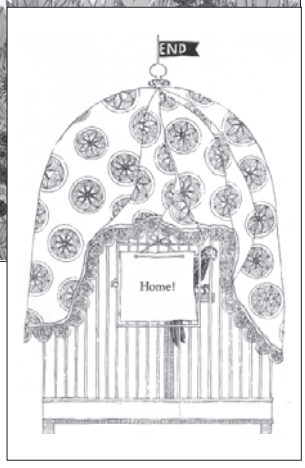


Text: *But Where is the Green Parrot?*

← Start of story

An example of <u>one</u> location.





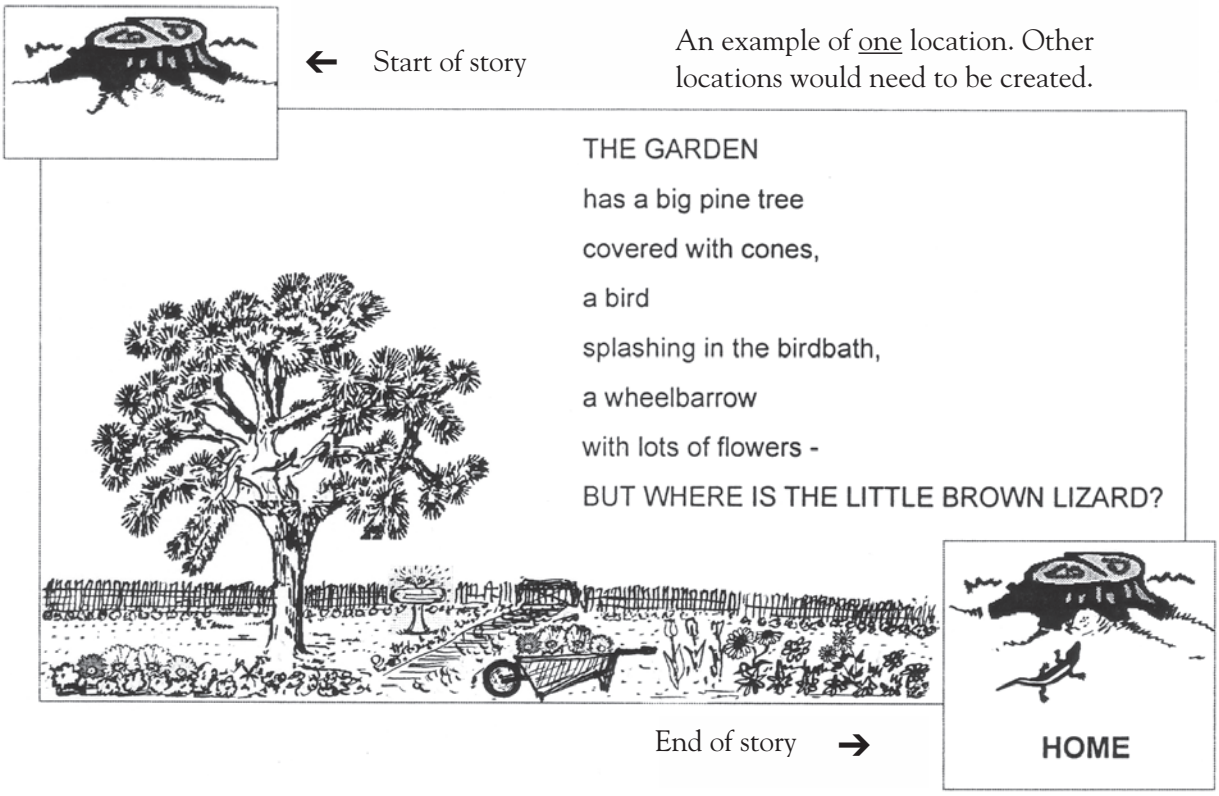
End of story →

See an example of an innovation on the next page.

An example of an innovation on part of the text

But Where is the Green Parrot?

But Where is the Little Brown Lizard?



Variation:

Students could work as a whole class to create a shared big book for Kindergarten, with each group contributing its own innovation (location) as part of the story sequence, using the same repetitive language structure.

An example of an innovation exercise for older students

Select a suitable text that contains examples of the language features to be taught. The text below could be used as a model for students on how a writer can use noun groups and descriptive phrases to effectively build a picture for readers.

Read the text several times with the students, drawing attention to the context, structure, language features, intended audience and the effectiveness of the writer's choices.

Arriving within sight of his old home, he rested on his oars and surveyed the land cautiously. All seemed very peaceful and deserted and quiet. He could see the whole front of Toad Hall glowing in the evening sunshine, the pigeons settling by twos and threes along the straight line of the roof; the garden, a blaze of flowers; the creek that led up to the boat-house, the little wooden bridge that crossed it; all tranquil, uninhabited, apparently waiting for his return. He would try the boat-house first, he thought. Very warily he paddled up to the mouth of the creek and was just passing under the bridge when ... Crash!
(The Wind in the Willows by Kenneth Grahame.)

Plan an innovation with the students. Use questions to guide a brainstorm of phrases that will describe the scene of someone returning to their childhood home after many years away only to find it now empty and deserted. Use the text as a model to develop the noun groups.

Prompt questions	***Brainstorm ideas and phrases***
Arrive in what? How?	Sports car, rests on steering wheel, driving, parking, staring into the darkness
Describe the first scene – what can he see? What is the day like? How might he feel?	• It's quiet and deserted • Front step broken, path overgrown, trees swaying, • It's night time but not dark • The moon is shining • Windows all broken, shattered, the veranda is falling down, weeds are everywhere • Sticky, dusty cobwebs, draping, hanging • Garden neglected, weeds everywhere, ivy covers everything • House lonely, deserted, uninhabited, empty, sad-looking

Jointly construct an innovation as a whole class group before the students work in smaller groups or pairs to develop their own innovations.

He arrived at his childhood home in the evening after many years away. He approached slowly in his red sports car and came to a stop. He rested his hands on the steering wheel and peered through the trees into the darkness. All seemed quiet and deserted. The moon shone down brightly, illuminating the overgrown pathway, littered with leaves and broken branches. The trees swayed in the gentle wind, waving and whispering like long lost aunties welcoming him home.

Independent writing

Purpose

Independent writing provides students with the opportunity to demonstrate their skills in composing a variety of text types.

Description

When writing independently, students should be encouraged to:

- define their purpose
- identify their audience
- engage in further research if necessary
- jot down ideas and notes
- think about how to organise ideas effectively
- write drafts
- share drafts with peers and the teacher
- rework drafts in the light of comments about text organisation, cohesion, grammatical choices, sentence structure, spelling, punctuation and layout
- prepare and edit a final draft
- publish and present their work for further feedback.

Focus on literacy: Writing, pp. 31, 32.

Strategies to support independent writing

Students who need additional support in writing may need to spend more time with the teacher on joint construction experiences before undertaking independent writing.

Strategies to support these students when they have proceeded to independent writing include:

the POWER strategy, see pages 95–101

conferencing with peers, teacher and other support personnel, see pages 51–53

appropriate levels of scaffolding, see pages 83–89

cooperative learning, see pages 54–56

independent use of the Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD), see pages 90–94.

Implementing learning experiences for independent writing

Many of the learning experiences outlined in the guided writing section could be used for independent writing once students have gained the knowledge, skills and understandings to construct the type of text required and can undertake independent research.

Writing conferences

Purpose

Writing conferences allow teachers to:

- monitor and assess student progress
- evaluate and plan effective teaching and learning activities
- establish a supportive framework for problem solving by students and their peers
- provide explicit teaching suited to the individual learning needs of each student
- cater for and support the range of abilities within a classroom
- share information
- provide positive feedback for student success
- give students the tools and the language to reflect on their own and other students' writing.

Description

A writing conference is a discussion between a teacher and a student or between one student and another about a student's writing. It may be a highly structured process in which the student and the teacher keep a written record over time, or it may be an informal process applied incidentally as required. The writing conference may occur before, during or after writing.

Teachers and students involved in a writing conference should focus on the purpose and the intended audience of the text as well as the structure and language features. Later the text should be proofread for such details as spelling and punctuation.

Types of conferences might include:

Individual conference

Individual conferences allow teachers to discuss and negotiate text with each student and to monitor each student's development in writing. A writing conference record can be kept.

Group conference

Group conferences occur when a group has a common need or interest, such as working on the innovation of the same narrative text or writing a procedural text.

Peer conference

Students can conference with each other once the teacher has modelled the procedure.

Whole class conference

Whole class conferences are opportunities for a teacher to model writing strategies and to provide models of written texts.

Board of Studies NSW, *A Resource of Classroom Practices* (1998)

Another type of conference can take place in the assessment and reporting process. This can be known as:

The three-way conference, the student-led conference or the student-centred conference

The teacher, parent and student meet to discuss the outcomes achieved and address any relevant issues. Learning goals, proposed by the student in cooperation with his or her teacher, are agreed upon.

Questions that might guide a conference

What has the writer composed?

- Is the text effective?
- Is the purpose clear?
- Is the text well-developed?
- What type of text is used?

What does the writer know?

- Does the writer know enough about the field or topic?
- Is the writer clear about the intended audience?
- Is the writer clear about the purpose of the writing?
- Is the text type appropriate?
- Has the writer used appropriate language choices?

What does the writer need to know?

Does the writer need to know:

- more about the field or topic?
- what type of text will best reflect the purpose of the writing?
- more about structuring and staging the text?
- more about the language features such as verb types and synonyms?
- how to organise the clauses or sentences so the text is cohesive?
- how to check spelling?
- how to find more appropriate vocabulary?
- how to express shades of meaning?

What can be done to help the writer move on?

- Ensure the writer clarifies the purpose of the text.
- Provide specific support in the area of need.

Choosing literacy strategies that work, Stage 2.

Prompts for peer conferencing

It is important to provide students with suggestions for comments they could use when conferencing.

The example provided below lists comments as strengths and needs and is specifically related to the writing of a narrative.

Useful feedback: Narratives	
Strengths	***Needs***
• It's funny	• More humour
• It's scary	• More suspense
• It's exciting, etc.	• A better beginning
• Great beginning	• A better ending
• Great ending	• More accurate spelling
• Accurate spelling	• Full stops and capital letters
• Easy to read	• Paragraphs
• Punctuation clear	• More interesting title
• I like the part when…	• More descriptive language
• Interesting title	• A better complication
• Some interesting adjectives, e.g. *hairy, enormous, freaky*	• Better sequencing of events
• Interesting complication	
• Good resolution	
• Clear sequence of events	

Cooperative learning

Purpose

Cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximise their own and each other's learning.

Description

Class members are organised into small groups after receiving instruction from the teacher. They then may work through the assignment until all group members successfully understand and can complete the task. Cooperative efforts result in participants striving for mutual benefit so that all group members gain from each other's efforts and have a shared common purpose.

In cooperative learning situations there is a positive interdependence among students' goal attainments; students perceive that they can reach their learning goals if and only if the other students in the learning group also reach their goals. No one group member will possess all of the information, skills, or resources necessary to complete the task.

What it achieves

Cooperative learning has been found to improve academic performance, lead to greater motivation towards learning, increase the time on task, improve self-esteem and lead to more positive social behaviours. Cooperative learning is particularly effective in classrooms that include a range of abilities and achievement levels as well as in those with culturally and linguistically diverse populations.

Cooperative learning fosters the development of higher level reasoning and problem-solving skills and occurs when students work together in small groups to accomplish shared goals. It is not just placing students in a group and telling them to work together, or having the student who finishes first help the slower students to finish. Particular attention needs to be given to the structure of the group and the requirements of the task. Students should have the opportunity to work in a variety of groups.

Five essential elements

Cooperative learning is planned and organised. According to Johnson and Johnson (1989), five basic elements must be included for the lesson to be cooperative.

1. *Positive interdependence:* Each student needs to feel that his or her contribution is important and necessary for the group to succeed. The feeling is that they must sink or swim together. Assigning group roles to students helps in developing a shared contribution.
2. *Face-to-face interaction:* Group members need to encourage, support and assist each other's efforts to learn. It is important for students to learn to explain their reasoning to each other.
3. *Individual and group accountability*: Each student's performance must be assessed regularly and group members need to be aware who needs more help to complete the task. Group members must each agree that they need to work together to complete their task if the group is to be successful.

4. *Social skills must be taught*: Learning groups are not productive unless members are skilled in cooperating with each other. The skills should be taught and then practised by the class and continually monitored and reinforced. Some of the skills that students need to learn are:
   - taking turns speaking
   - listening techniques
   - asking clarifying questions
   - speaking quietly
   - speaking politely and positively to one another.
5. *Evaluation*: This can be achieved by asking two questions:
   - What is something each member did for the group?
   - What is something each member could do to make the group even better?

Roles in cooperative learning groups

When students are involved in cooperative learning, giving each member of the group a specific role can be an effective way of ensuring active participation.

Depending on the size of the group, the task that is set and the outcomes to be achieved, roles of group members could include:

Leader: Leads the group when carrying out the task by saying what the strategy or process will be and the steps involved.

Time keeper: Sets the timer for each activity and lets the group know when it is time to move on.

Reader: Reads the text aloud to the group or leads the group when they are reading along together.

Recorder: Records any ideas or information researched.

Writer or scribe: Writes drafts with input from the group. This may take place during a group conference with revising and editing occurring as a result of discussion.

Illustrator: Creates a visual text, if appropriate.

Runner: Is the only group member to request assistance from the teacher.

Reporter: Reports back to the class the findings or main ideas of the group.

Investigator: Carries out any research.

Clarifier: Makes sure everyone in the group understands; paraphrases if necessary.

Editor and proofreader: Reads and makes suggestions for the final draft.

Publisher: Is responsible for publishing the final draft.

Cooperative learning structures

The following are some of the cooperative learning structures provided in this handbook that assist students to understand and engage in the process of writing:

- Brainstorming and categorising to plan the first draft, see pages 58–60
- Cooperative cloze, see page 121
- Sequencing text (Jigsaw close), see pages 106–109
- Note-making, see pages 61–64
- Constructing a fact file, see page 35
- Devising a board game, see pages 38–40
- Innovation on a text, see pages 46–49
- Writing a recount, see page 44
- Writing conferences, see pages 51–53.

Section 4

Preparing students to write

Students need to learn to write for a wide range of purposes, both community and academic. They need, therefore, to be taught how to handle diverse writing tasks, how to identify the purposes for writing and how to structure texts to achieve those purposes.

To be able to write effectively about a subject, writers need to know and understand the subject matter. They need to learn the specific vocabulary and the text structure and language features that will help them write successfully in that subject area. They also need to be aware of the purpose of their writing. What effects do they, as writers, want to have on the reader? What is their relationship to the reader? For example, when involved in a unit for Human Society and Its Environment, students may be asked to compose information for tourists about a geographic location or argue with a local council for the preservation of a natural resource.

For students who have experienced difficulties writing, it is important that teachers prepare the students well for the writing task. This preparation should include ensuring that students have sufficient background information, that the students know the criteria for successful completion of the particular task and that they are familiar with the strategies or scaffolds that will help them.

The following section provides examples of ways to prepare students for a writing task and includes information on building field knowledge, using graphic organisers and planning sheets and developing word knowledge. Also included are some research-based models for supporting students' writing in the context of the classroom.

Building field knowledge

Field knowledge refers to the student's understanding and experience of the topic or subject, including subject-specific vocabulary. This understanding and experience might be developed through such activities as research, teacher input, presentations, class discussion or first hand experiences such as excursions.

Knowledge of the topic and relevant research skills need to be developed through modelled, guided and independent teaching strategies.

Brainstorming

Purpose

Brainstorming is a technique which:

- provides a starting point for building field knowledge by determining what is known about a topic and what new information needs to be explored and organised in preparation for effective writing
- allows students to hear and share knowledge and ideas.

Description

Brainstorming is a means of activating and recording information about current knowledge, range of vocabulary, questions, known facts, predictions, links and ideas.

Strategies for reading factual texts (1997) p. 12.

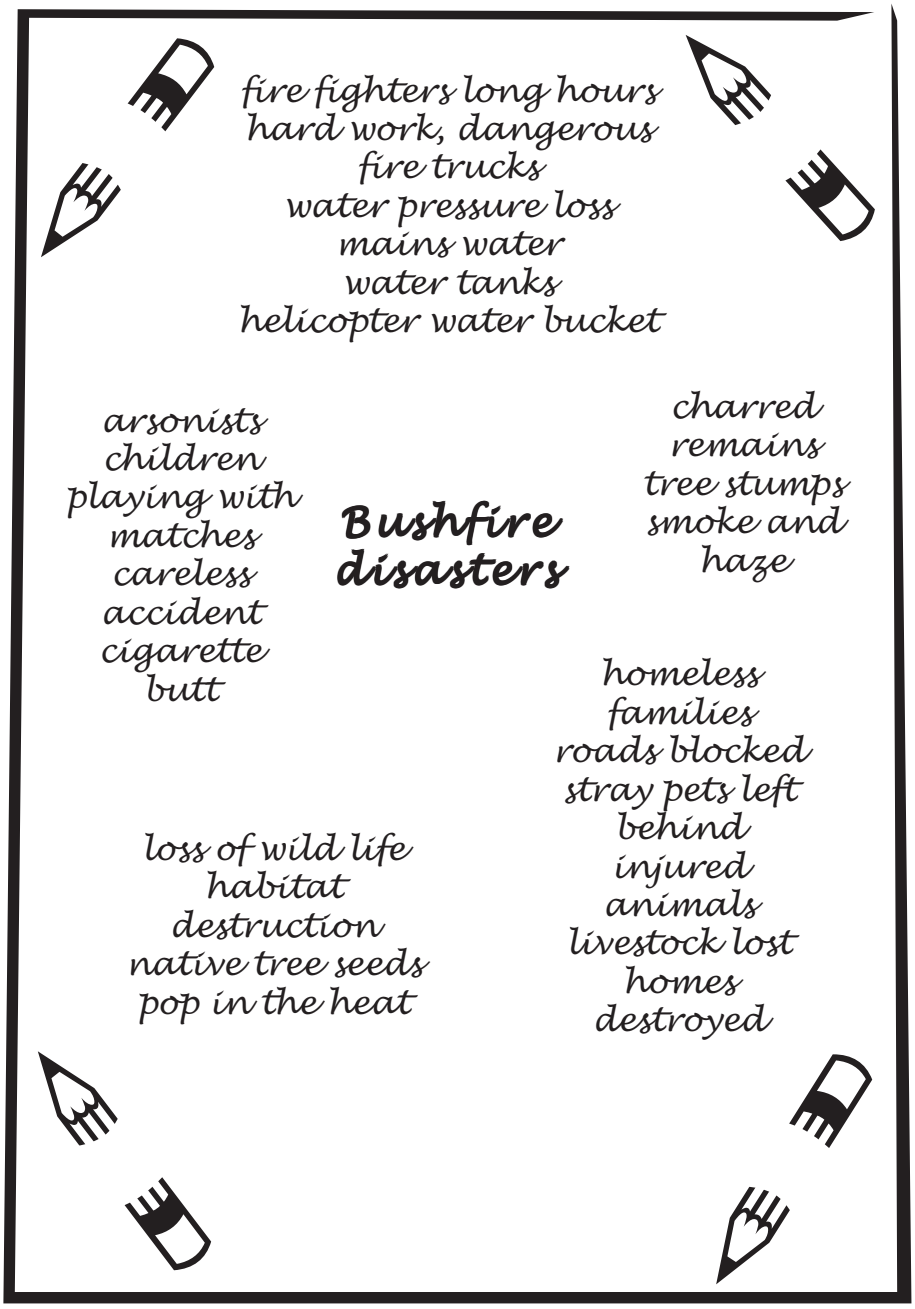
Brainstorming can be done with students individually, in groups or in a whole class situation.

Implementation

- Clearly state the topic, purpose and audience.
- Decide how the information will be recorded. For example, will it be recorded on a chalkboard, overhead transparency, whiteboard, butchers paper, individually on a planning sheet, or 'post-it notes'?
- If brainstorming in a group or whole class situation, consider asking each student to record four or five ideas privately before sharing.
- Set rules: no criticism, all answers are valued.
- Encourage a free flow of ideas and value all contributions.
- Leave explanations until later.

Building field knowledge: Brainstorming

Students brainstorm together to activate and build background knowledge on the topic of bushfires. The teacher records this as a mind map.



Note how the teacher has begun to group some of the ideas the students have brainstormed. Students experiencing difficulties with organising ideas respond well to this way of brainstorming. The next phase might be for the teacher to ask the students to label the groups of ideas. This can assist the students to organise their writing by providing topic vocabulary for paragraphs.

Building field knowledge: Organising information

Another way to support students to organise their ideas when preparing to write is to present headings prior to brainstorming such as the example below. The students in this example were asked to write an exposition about why learning to swim is important. The teacher provided four example headings that could be used to organise the arguments in favour of learning to swim. (The students could have helped the teacher come up with these headings.) The students were then asked to provide ideas under each heading that would support the argument for learning to swim. The headings and supporting ideas could then be further developed in the lead up to a written text.

Why should we learn to swim?			
Fun	***Safety***	***Exercise***	***Sport***
Go to the beach	Safe from drowning	Keep fit and healthy	Be an Olympic swimmer
Go surfing	Play safely in the pool	Strong bones and muscles	Freestyle and butterfly
Cool down on a hot day	Can go to the deep end	Strong heart	Sailing
Play in the pool	Able to go in boats and canoes		Water polo

Note-making

Purpose

Teachers can develop students' note-making skills for the purpose of exploring and organising information in preparation for effective writing.

Description

Note-making involves extracting and recording the main ideas of a written or media text in an organised and systematic way.

Implementation

Teachers can develop students' note-making skills by:

- modelling the process of extracting information and recording ideas in clear and succinct language
- providing opportunities for students to practise skimming, scanning and identifying key words
- providing a scaffold or work sheets for notes
- posing key questions prior to reading and viewing.

When students are experiencing difficulties developing note-making skills the following strategies can be helpful.

Ensure students can recognise the different purposes of skimming and scanning and know how to use these techniques effectively to locate information.

Skimming

When should I skim? When I want a quick idea of what the text is about!

- Skim means to look quickly through the text looking at the headings, diagrams, pictures or words in bold. This will give you a quick idea of what the text may be about.
- Skim can mean to 'skim' through the text reading quickly to get the gist or main idea on the topic.
- Skim can also be to read the first and last paragraphs to get the gist of the topic.

Scanning

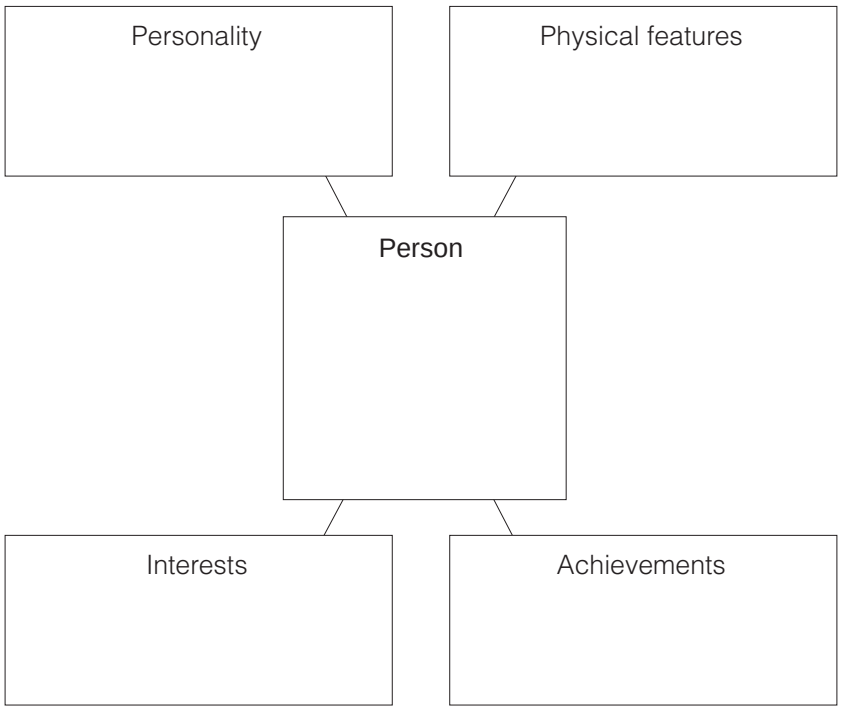
When should I scan? When I want specific information!

- Scan means to look through the text quickly to find specific information, e.g. key words that describe the appearance of an animal for an information report.
- Scan can also mean to look through the text to find the answers to questions, e.g. the key words that give an answer to a question such as *When did Captain Cook first land on Australian soil?* 'When' tells me I need to scan the text for a time, 'Captain Cook' tells me who to look for and 'Australia' is another key word to look for.
- Scan can also mean to look for a particular signal word to find information quickly.

Helpful hint:
Ensure that when students are required to complete the note-making task independently they can read the text at an instructional level with understanding. Before note-making it may be important to read the text together and provide some students with a 'reading buddy'. It is also important to make links to where other support for reading can be found through the use of, for example, talking books and videos.

Discuss the purpose of the notes and how they can best be recorded and organised for the type of text to be constructed. For example, a concept map for building a description of a person or animal, as shown opposite, can provide a focus and useful plan for note-making. Other examples are shown on pages 64 and 78.

Note-making using a concept map



Teach students that good notes are not sentences but include meaning-carrying words and phrases.

The teacher may need to:

- model the process for identifying key words and phrases while thinking aloud
- demonstrate both good and bad examples of note-making
- provide students with guided practice using the strategies modelled
- ask students to demonstrate their understanding of the process by highlighting key words and phrases in colour as they scan the text while responding to a key question.

Ask groups to record ideas both visually and in note form for other groups to construct a particular type of text, e.g. Group A records key words and draws the picture in response to a key question. Group B writes the answer. Groups discuss the effectiveness of the notes made and any difficulties that could be overcome.

Question: .....

Key words or phrases	Diagram

Answer:

Displaying and discussing a glossary of new terms and concepts related to the topic may be necessary to support students to gain the meaning of the text.

Word	Meaning	Picture
Space capsule	a container for astronauts or instruments sent into space	

Assist students to notice and interpret graphics, charts, maps, diagrams etc. and demonstrate that they are there to clarify meaning so it is important not to miss them.

Remove and re-arrange headings, subheadings and captions under graphics from a range of texts. Have students match headings and captions with texts and justify choices.

Questions to give students greater guidance and monitor their understanding:

- What words are in bold? Why?
- What words are in the largest print? Why?
- What is written in italics? Why?
- What do the diagrams and other graphics have to do with the topic? Why have they been included?
- Read the captions under the graphics. What information do they give?
- Write the titles of the subheadings. What is each one about?

Teach students how to work collaboratively in pairs or groups to complete note-making tasks. *See Cooperative learning, page 54.*

Also consider developing a Y chart, a graphic organiser that encourages students to brainstorm ideas around three dimensions: 'looks like', 'sounds like' and 'feels like'.

Y Chart
Topic: Cooperative writing classroom

Looks like

Lots of speaking, questioning and listening, sharing, team work, researching, recording, scribing, drawing, conferencing, editing… Room print, authoritative sources, computer technology…

Feels like

Cheerful, valued, engaged, exciting, motivated

Sounds like

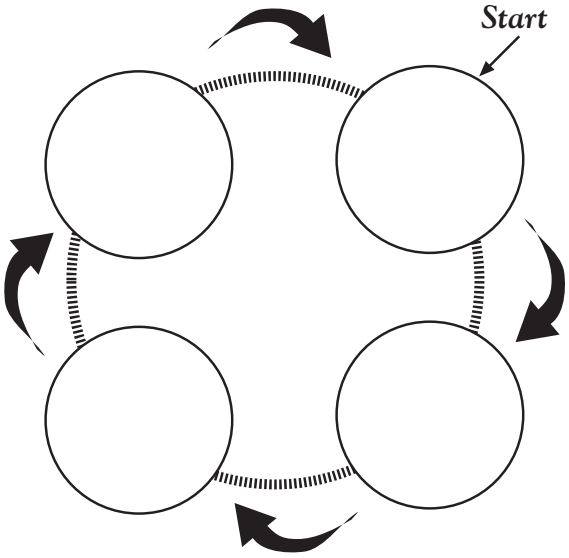
Praise, positive talk encouragement, lots of on-task buzz, humour

Helpful hints: Assist students to develop their own scaffolds or diagrams when note-making. For example, provide a booklet of scaffolds and diagrams that students can select, adapt or modify depending on the audience and purpose for writing.

LIFE CYCLE

This diagram shows the life cycle of a

.....



TOPIC: .....

QUESTION: .....

Short answer	Longer answer: write in a sentence

Planning to write a discussion

Students research information relevant to the issue and make notes using this scaffold.

Purpose: .....

Audience: .....

Issue:

Opinion: .....

Arguments for:	Arguments against:
•	•
•	•
•	•
•	•
Recommendation:	

Sources: .....

Using cued listening to stimulate writing

Purpose

This strategy is a valuable tool for preparing students for writing as well as providing opportunities to practise listening for detail. Students of all ages can practise listening for specific information and then summarising what they have heard using cue cards as a visual prompt.

Implementation

Step 1

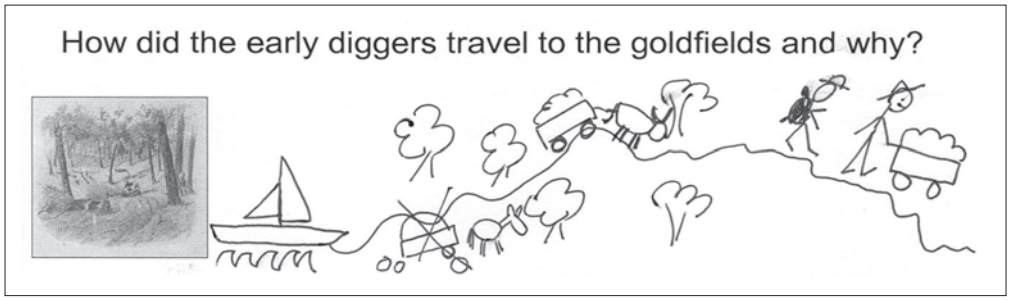
The teacher models how to develop and use the visual prompts as a way to remember key information from a piece of text. Consider the passage below. The teacher reads the passage aloud, using an overhead projector so the students can follow along with the text. While reading, the teacher stops at certain points to draw a picture to help in the recall of a fact from the text.

Transport to the goldfields

Once new settlers arrived, they had to find their way to the goldfields, which were all inland from the ports. The roads to the diggings were in poor condition as they had been carved out of the bush by the volume of traffic rushing to the goldfields rather than built by engineers. Most diggers travelled by foot carrying their belongings in wheelbarrows or on their backs. Horses were very expensive and the tracks were often too poor for horses and carts. Bullocks were used to pull supply wagons. This was slow progress but more reliable than the traditional horse-drawn vehicles. As a goldfield developed, so did the transport. American-made coaches (Cobb and Co) were imported to provide transport. These coaches were sturdier than European coaches, which were unable to survive the harsh conditions.

Source: *Life on the Goldfields*

The teacher draws pictures to help remember important facts from the text.



Step 2

The teacher uses the cue card to retell to the class, in full sentences, the information recorded. For example:

> *The goldfields were a long way inland from the harbours where the boats from overseas arrived. The roads to the diggings were rocky and rough and were forced through the bush by the diggers going to the fields. The diggers travelled mainly on foot with some using wheelbarrows to carry their belongings. Bullock wagons were used to carry supplies but they were very slow. Horse-drawn carriages were not strong enough for the harsh conditions of the Australian bush.*

Step 3

The students practise developing their own visual prompts for selected pieces of information the teacher has decided are important for the students to learn. The teacher provides the students with cue cards with key questions or pictures to help them focus on what is important to remember.

The decision about the information to be learned is usually related to what type of text is being used and what information is most relevant to the key learning outcomes the teacher has planned for.

For example, the focus question or ideas for the cue cards to build field knowledge about life on the goldfields in the 1850s could be:

- Describe the people who came to Australia in the 1850s to find gold.
- How did the early diggers travel to the goldfields and why?
- What kind of food was available and in what condition was it?
- What was the health of the miners like and why?
- What types of shelter were available in the goldfields in the 1850s?

The teacher reads aloud from appropriate texts and the students listen for their piece of information and draw pictures or write brief notes to help them remember the details.

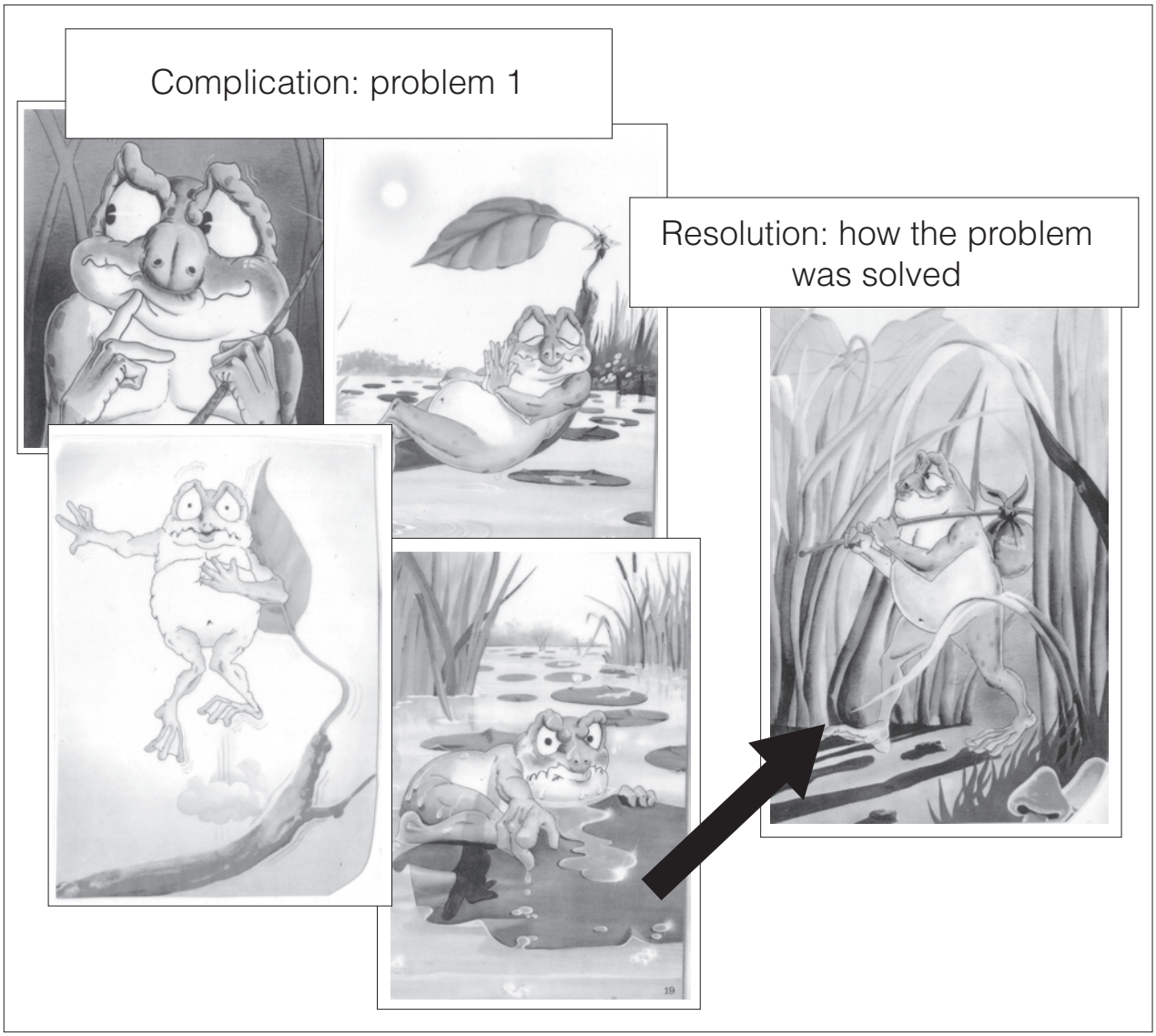
Step 4

The students are encouraged to retell their information to the rest of the class using their visual cue cards. The teacher may need to prompt some students to retell their information in whole sentences 'like a book'. See page 104.

The visual prompts the students develop become a constant source for students to revisit and utilise when jointly or independently constructing oral or written texts on the subject.

Using cue cards

Cue cards can also be useful in assisting students to remember and retell stories. Using pictures from picture books, students can organise the main events of popular or familiar stories under headings such as Orientation, Complication or Resolution. The students can then use the pictures and headings as cues to retell the main events of a story in greater detail.



From *Lester and Clyde* by James Reece

Organising ideas and information: graphic organisers and planning sheets

Purpose

Graphic organisers are diagrammatic or pictorial ways of arranging information and ideas. They can facilitate the understanding and organisation of key concepts and new knowledge in preparation for writing.

Description

The use of graphic organisers is based on research on cognitive processing or how information is stored and retrieved. This research has shown us the importance of helping students develop a well connected body of accessible knowledge. Well connected and elaborate knowledge structures are important because they allow for easier retrieval of previously learned material and they facilitate the understanding and integration of new information.

Implementation

There are three instructional implications that follow from this research:

- the need to help students develop background knowledge
- the importance of student processing
- the importance of helping students to organise their knowledge.

Developing background knowledge

Teachers need to provide opportunities for extensive reading, reviewing of knowledge, practice and discussion of topics. The more students rehearse and review information the stronger the interconnections become.

Student processing

New information is stored in long term memory when processed. The quality of storage depends on the level of processing. Processing new material takes place through a variety of activities such as rehearsal, review, comparing and contrasting and drawing connections. It is important for teachers to initiate activities that require students to process and apply new information. Asking students to organise information, summarise information or compare new material with prior material are all activities that require processing and help students develop and strengthen cognitive structures.

Organising knowledge

If new knowledge is not organised into some form of structure, it tends to be fragmented and not readily available for use. Students frequently lack these knowledge structures when they are learning new material so it is important for teachers to help students organise new material.

One way to do this is to provide students with graphic organisers, useful for factual texts in particular. Some examples are planning sheets, mind maps, concept maps or text outlines. Graphic organisers can help students organise the key elements of new learning. This can facilitate retrieval and so enable the students to free up more working memory to access and understand the new content.

The following pages are just some of the many examples of graphic organisers found throughout this book.

Constructing a class plan for writing

The flow chart below could be completed as a joint construction with both teacher and students working together to make a plan. The plan provides an overview and a reminder of each phase of the writing process for students in the class.

Drafting
- I make notes of ideas
- I plan the text
- I write my first draft

Revising
- I rework the text to improve my ideas or change the content

Conferencing
- I discuss my draft with others
- I might need to revise or edit

Editing
- I change my draft to improve it, e.g. grammar, word order, vocabulary

Proofreading
- I prepare my draft for final presentation
- I fix any problems with grammar, spelling, punctuation or layout

Publishing
- I present my text to the intended audience if I am publishing my work

3–4 B's Writing Plan

Write draft → Check work → Fix draft

Partner conference checklist → Complete editing

Teacher conference → Fix draft

Publish (maybe)

Think and plan guide

Name: ..... Date: .....

TOPIC: .....

WHO: Who am I writing for?

WHY: Why am I writing this?

.....

.....

WHAT: What do I know? (Brainstorm)

1. .....
2. .....
3. .....
4. .....
5. .....
6. .....
7. .....
8. .....

HOW: How can I group my ideas?

.....	.....
.....	.....
.....	.....
.....	.....

How will I organise my ideas?

… Comparison/Contrast … Problem/Solution
… Explanation … Other

Using a student writing plan

The student monitors his or her actions and decisions when writing.

Student writing plan

Author (you!) _____

Title _____

Date begun _____ Date finished _____

Writing plan

1 Write draft ➔ Check work ➔ Fix draft
2 Partner conference ➔ Fix draft + complete editing checklist
3 Teacher conference ➔ Fix draft
4 Publish (maybe).

Check

- ☐ Have I read through my work to make sure it makes sense?
- ☐ Have I made any changes which are needed?
- ☐ Have all spelling guesses been circled?
- ☐ Have I had another go at these?
- ☐ Have I checked punctuation – capital letters, full stops, commas, question marks, exclamation marks and quotation marks?

Conferences

Comments by	Strengths	Needs
Author		
Conference partner (see p.51)		
Teacher		

Publishing decisions

- Will I publish this? ☐ Yes ☐ No If ✔ Yes…
- How will I publish? e.g. book, taped reading, poster, etc? _____
- Will I include
  - ☐ a back cover blurb?
  - ☐ about the author/illustrator blurb?
  - ☐ other? _____
- Think about
  - ☐ font / font size / style of print
  - ☐ placement of print on the page
  - ☐ illustrations (acrylic, watercolour, coloured pencils, ink, etc.)
- Remember:
  - ☐ You must publish at least twice per term

Planning the first draft

Scaffolded materials can provide degrees of prompting to suit the diverse learning needs of students. It is important that the prompts are gradually faded so that students can eventually perform the task independently.

Planning the first draft of a report

Name of writer _____ Date _____

Topic _____

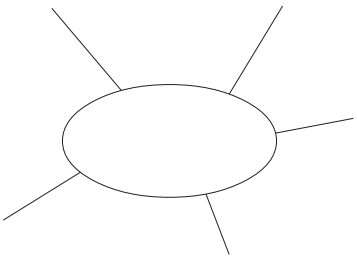
Who will the audience be? _____

What will be the purpose of my writing? _____

_____

Everything I already know about this topic – anything I can think of:

Possible ways to group my ideas:



Planning the first draft:

This scaffolded 'think sheet' can give students a plan for writing an information report. Its effectiveness can be enhanced when it's used in conjunction with other forms of scaffolding such as individual scaffolding, see page 83. This could involve the student conferencing with the teacher or a high-performing peer.

It is important that the student has a good understanding of the topic. See pages 57–67 and page 172 for strategies related to building field knowledge.

Planning the first draft:

This scaffolded 'think sheet' specifically prompts the drafting of one particular type of text structure, an explanation. The use of this plan needs to be first modelled by the teacher while thinking aloud and then followed by a joint construction.

Planning the first draft of an explanation

What is being explained?	
What are the steps?*	First,
	Second,
	Third,
	Then,
	Finally,

Helpful hint:
** Teachers should encourage students to use a range of connectives and conjunctions in sequencing text. See* English K-6 Modules.

Planning to write an exposition – brainstorm ideas then sort and group.

Planning to write an exposition

Purpose: To convince children they need to learn to swim.

Topic: *Why children should learn to swim.*

Opinion: *Definitely think all children should learn to swim.*

Reasons: (brainstorm)

- *will help prevent drowning* ②
- *safety in the water* ②
- *lots of fun ~~on a hot day~~* ①
- ~~*a good way of getting exercise*~~
- *helps make you fit* ③
- *helps asthmatics* ③
- *go in races* ①
- *can swim if ~~ferry~~ boat sinks* ②
- *will become stronger* ③
- *play water polo* ①
- ~~*safer to go fishing*~~
- *play with friends* ①

Cross out ideas you don't want. ✔

Group ideas that go together. ✔

Number ideas in the order you want to write them. (Usually the best arguments come first.) ✔

Do you need to do more research on the topic? No.

Organise ideas into arguments to develop the exposition.

My topic: Why children should learn to swim

My purpose for writing: To convince children they need to learn to swim.

My first paragraph

My topic sentence with my opinion: *I definitely think that all children in Australia should learn to swim at a young age.*

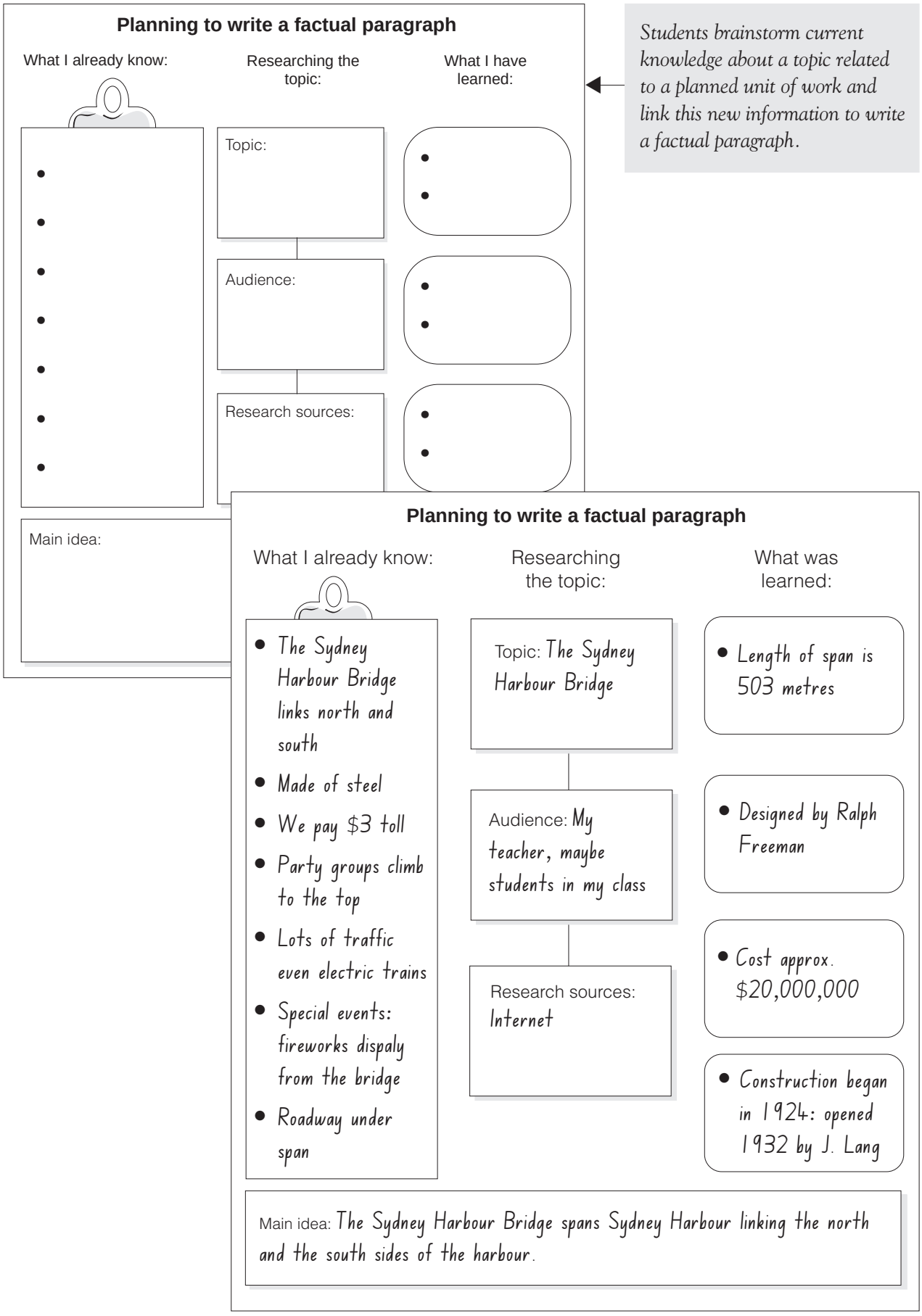
Summary of reasons: (I may need to write these after I have planned my arguments). *Swimming is fun, good for safety and helps fitness.*

Argument 1: *Swimming is fun.*	***Argument 2:*** *Good for safety.*	***Argument 3:*** *Helps build up fitness levels.*
Details to support my argument: *Play with friends at the beach. Fun to learn. Go in races, water polo, triathlons.*	***Details to support my argument:*** *Boat sinks but you can swim to safety. Won't drown.*	***Details to support my argument:*** *To become stronger and more flexible. Feel healthier. Helps if you are an asthmatic.*

My last paragraph

My ending to strengthen my opinion:

The above reasons are why I think every child in the country should learn to swim for safety, fitness, but mainly for fun and enjoyment.



Students brainstorm current knowledge about a topic related to a planned unit of work and link this new information to write a factual paragraph.

Planning to write a report

Topic: Red Kangaroo

Students brainstorm information about a topic under investigation (recorded in the right hand column) and organise this information to construct a report (in the left hand column).

General classification: What group of animals does it belong to?	• feeds on grasses and leaves • is a pouched animal called a marsupial • can travel fast at speeds of up to 65 km/h
Description: appearance What does it look like?	• life span 12–18 years • found in the interior of Australia • only male has red-tinged coat
Description: habitat Where does it live?	• has very few natural enemies • pouch provides protection and nourishment for the joey • highly social, lives in family groups usually of 7–10
Description: feeding habits What does it eat?	• active at night when the temperatures are low • after birth the young kangaroo (less than 1 g and 4 cm long) finds its way into the pouch
Description: movement How does it move?	• mates all the year round depending on the food and water • largest of many species of marsupial
Description: reproduction How does it reproduce?	• may fight to establish dominance using sharp claws of the front feet, powerful hind legs • is one of the most numerous of kangaroo species.

Adapted from *Choosing literacy strategies that work, Stage 2*, p. 201.

Before and after charts

Before and after charts

Topic: .....

Purpose: .....

What we know	What we found

Questions we still need to answer:

Where will this information be found?

- Internet .....
- Resources .....
- Research in the library .....
- Other .....

Before and after charts

Topic: *Recycling*

Purpose: *to gather information to develop an argument about the importance of recycling*

What we know	What we found
Recycling saves space	*Less land will be used for garbage dumps*
Protects the environment	*Landfill leaves poisons in the soil*
Conserves raw materials	*Fewer trees will be needed for paper*
At school we put paper in a special bin	*Food can be composted. Composting enriches the soil*
At home we separate glass, plastic and paper for collection	*Plastics and aluminium can be reused*

Questions we still need to answer:

Does recycling save energy?

Students brainstorm using current knowledge about a topic related to a planned unit of work. They link this with new information from their research to complete the writing task.

Developing word knowledge

Constructing concept maps

Purpose

This technique helps students to:

- build field knowledge in preparation for writing. The students could, for example, be preparing to write an information report or a factual paragraph
- use several strategies to develop and refine their knowledge of word meanings.

Description

A concept map is used to visually display the relationships in a definition, as outlined below. The numbers refer to parts of the diagram, as demonstrated on the following page.

The concept or word. (1)

The class to which the concept belongs – What is it? (2)

The properties that distinguish it from other members of the classification – What is it like? (3)

Some examples of the concept. (4)

Boundary comparisons – similar examples to the concept, showing the dissimilarities that exclude the example from the category. (5)

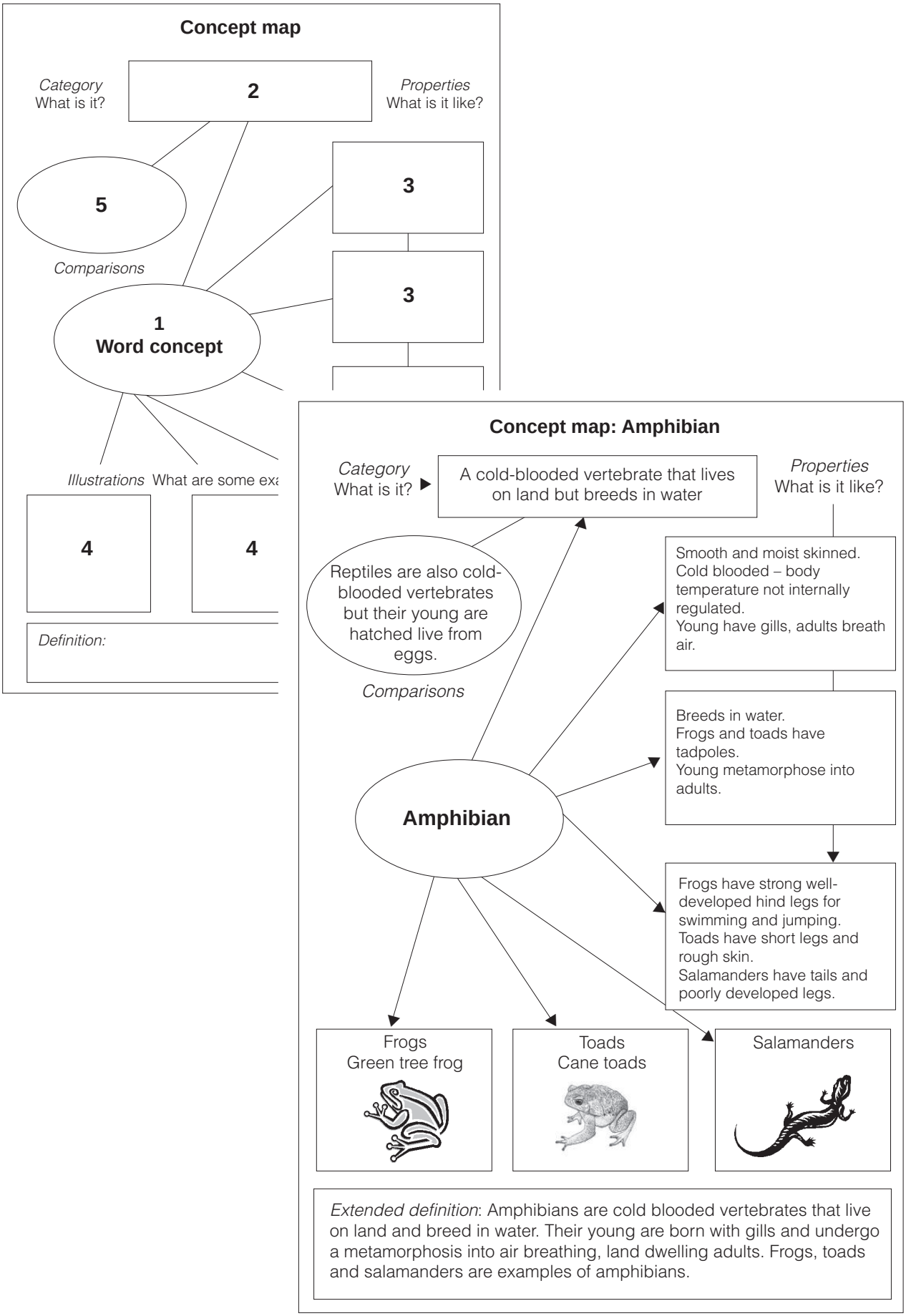
Implementation

1. Explain the purpose of the concept map.
2. Model the process of constructing such a map. Select a word concept from a current unit of work and use it to demonstrate the construction of a concept map. Ensure the students have enough knowledge and understanding of the concept. This may be gained by discussion, research and collecting examples for examination.

   Provide explicit step by step instruction, thinking aloud and questioning.
3. Use the completed example to compile an unsorted list of the information compiled on the word or concept. Have students transfer the information to a blank concept map, reconstructing what was previously modelled. This could be completed as a whole class, small group, paired or individual activity with the class teacher guiding the process.
4. Select another concept word related to the current unit of work and repeat steps 1 to 3.
5. When the students have demonstrated an understanding of the strategy, provide them with the opportunity to construct a word or concept map independently or in a small group.
6. Invite students to share their word map with other members of the class.

Adapted from *Programming and Strategies Handbook*: pp. 123-124.

Helpful hints:
Keep examples of concept maps in plastic sleeves for independent practice and have available additional copies of blank maps for student use.


Concept map
Category
What is it?
2
Properties
What is it like?
5
3
Comparisons
3
1
Word concept
Illustrations
What are some exa
4
4
Definition:
Concept map: Amphibian
Category
What is it?
A cold-blooded vertebrate that lives on land but breeds in water
Properties
What is it like?
Reptiles are also cold-blooded vertebrates but their young are hatched live from eggs.
Comparisons
Smooth and moist skinned.
Cold blooded – body temperature not internally regulated.
Young have gills, adults breath air.
Breeds in water.
Frogs and toads have tadpoles.
Young metamorphose into adults.
Amphibian
Frogs have strong well-developed hind legs for swimming and jumping.
Toads have short legs and rough skin.
Salamanders have tails and poorly developed legs.
Frogs
Green tree frog
Toads
Cane toads
Salamanders
Extended definition: Amphibians are cold blooded vertebrates that live on land and breed in water. Their young are born with gills and undergo a metamorphosis into air breathing, land dwelling adults. Frogs, toads and salamanders are examples of amphibians.

Word meaning checklist

Purpose

The purpose of this strategy is to help students become aware of when they do and do not understand the meaning of words or word groups.

This strategy can also build students' field knowledge in preparation for writing.

Description

Students rate their understanding of a list of key words related to a topic they need to investigate.

Preparation

Write a list of key words that are probably unfamiliar to many of the students.

List authoritative sources for researching the topic.

Implementation

Explain how to rate words by modelling an example.

Provide a list for each student and a copy of the strategies they could use to explore the meaning.

Ask students to rate the words by ticking in the appropriate column or by using a set of symbols.

Work with students to decide which words will need special attention and what will be the appropriate strategies to gain meaning.

Word meaning checklist

Topic: Global Warming Name: .....

Read the words. Put a tick in the column that states how well you know the word or word group.

WORD	I know it well. I use it.	I know it a bit.	I've seen it or heard of it.	I've never heard of it.	Examples of strategies
global warming					Shared reading of a text related to the topic supported by diagrams and pictures. Discussion Research: *Macquarie Study Dictionary*, 1998. Internet, CD-ROMs, video. Other: ....
'greenhouse effect'					
Earth's surface					
atmosphere					
radiates					
sun's energy					

Understanding key words

Purpose

Students need to understand the importance of key words in conveying meaning. Key words carry much more weight than others and failure to understand their significance may hinder a student's understanding of a text or concept.

Description

Key words should be explored in context in meaningful text. Students should be encouraged to understand not just the dictionary meaning of the word, but the concept it conveys within the text.

Key words may include terms specific to the topic. They may also include grammatical features which are important in making links between ideas. Students need to be familiar with the signals in order to understand and construct written text; for example, 'Later on…', when writing a recount; 'On the other hand…', when writing a discussion; 'Furthermore…', when constructing an exposition.

Implementation

For the purpose of building field knowledge in preparation for writing, key words may be introduced in the following ways. Students may work together to:

- identify unfamiliar words by brainstorming, skimming and scanning, discussion and viewing, see pages 58, 61. These words can then be discussed for meaning and used in context in the student's writing; a word list may also be constructed and displayed for reference and correct spellings. See examples on pages 171, 173
- discuss unfamiliar words and complete cloze activities which provide opportunities to place key words in context, see page 81
- match key words to given definitions and visual images, if appropriate, see page 81
- predict the meaning of new or unfamiliar words when researching a topic and attempt to clarify their meaning from the surrounding text. Students can then seek dictionary help if needed. See proforma below.

Some activities to reinforce the concept of key words

Predicting meaning

Word	Page or context	What I think the word might mean	Dictionary help (if needed)	Retell in my own words or draw a picture to show the meaning

Discuss unfamiliar words and complete cloze activities which provide opportunities to place key words in context

Unfamiliar words:

icecaps, glaciers, coastal cities, decade, degrees, centuries, expand

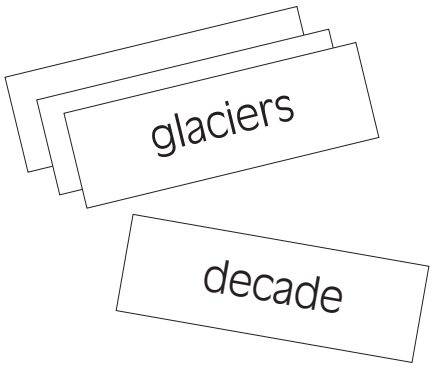
THE EARTH IS HEATING UP

Since 1980 the world's climate has become half a degree warmer. The 1980s was the hottest _____ in more than two _____. The climate is expected to heat up another one to four _____ by the year 2050.

The warmer seas may _____ and parts of the world's _____ and _____ could melt. As a result _____ could become flooded to a depth of about sixty centimetres.

Text from *Our Earth*, 1999, Year 3, Basic Skills Booklet, p. 6.

Match key words to given definitions



A period of ten years

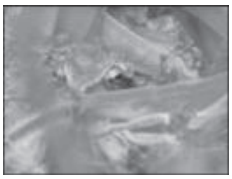
A large mass of ice formed from snow falling and building up over the years, which moves slowly down a valley or outwards from its centre.

Students will be more prepared and motivated to write their own report on the topic when the meaning of the words is understood.

Matching key words to pictures

Key words or phrases important for a topic for writing are identified by the teacher and written on cards. The teacher gathers pictures or uses illustrations from texts that identify key words or concepts.

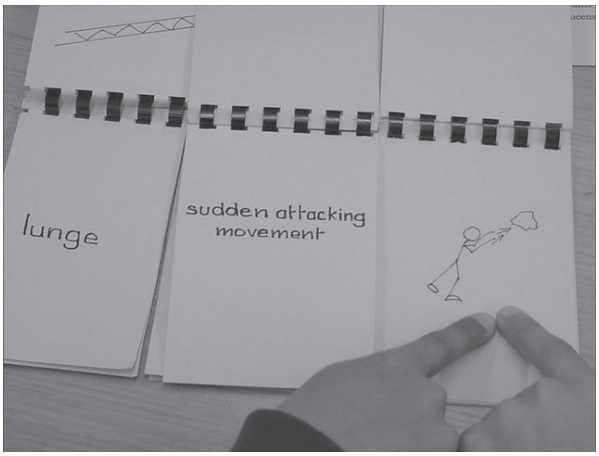
The students match the words or phrases to an illustration, justifying their choice to other students in the class or group.





long sticky tongue	camouflage	webbed	
suction pads	croak	predator	lunge
bulging eyes	cling	limbs	
habitat	prey	leap	under belly

The students may then develop a picture dictionary that is added to as further vocabulary for the topic is identified and used in the students' writing.



Some research-based models for classroom practice

Scaffolded instruction

The purpose of scaffolded instruction is to support students through phases of learning to ensure they are successful in applying skills and strategies independently.

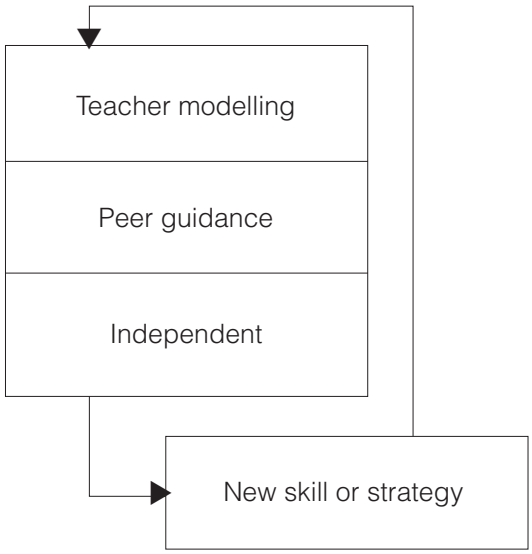
Scaffolded instruction is 'the systematic sequencing of prompted content, materials, tasks, and teacher and peer support to optimise learning' (Dickson et al. 1993, p.12).

In a paper that described an integrated reading and writing curriculum, Dickson, Chard and Simmons (1993) extended scaffolding to four dimensions: individual, content, material and task.

These dimensions can be combined as determined by the need of the students. Scaffolding supports students most extensively during initial learning, a critical period for students who may be experiencing difficulties.

Individual scaffolding

Individual scaffolding refers to support provided by another individual (teacher or peer) to link the learner with new information and tasks. This assistance is withdrawn gradually and systematically, passing responsibility to the individual learner.



Application

- First the teacher models each new skill or strategy.
- Next, students work in teacher-assigned student pairs, with the high-performing peer guiding the application of new skills or strategies.
- Finally, students independently apply what they have learned.
- The sequence is initiated each time new content, skills, strategies or tasks are introduced.

Guidelines for designing and implementing individual scaffolding

- Provide individual scaffolding each time you introduce new content, strategies or tasks.
- Include a sequence of teacher modelling and peer support before students work independently.
- Select peer partners to include one student in a pair with better writing skills.
- Reduce the amount of scaffolding to match increasing student proficiency.

Content scaffolding

Scaffolding of content is another type of instructional support teachers can use to assist students to learn. The purpose of content scaffolding is to select and sequence content to enable students to learn and be successful. Careful attention needs to be given to the order in which content is presented. For example, if the goal is to identify typical stages of a narrative text in preparation for writing, initially the stories selected are shorter and less complex allowing students to focus on these stages. It is important, however, to emphasise that the stories are still age and stage appropriate. Story length and complexity increase as students become more proficient at identifying the narrative stages.

Guidelines for designing and implementing content scaffolding

- Sequence content to reflect the complexity of what students are learning, the amount of individual scaffolding available, the demands of the task, and the increasing proficiency of the students.
- Present less complex content when the new strategies or concepts being introduced are difficult.

  Examples in this handbook where the texts selected are shorter and less complex to allow the student to focus on the purpose of the task include:

  the text used to model a simple innovation on pages 46–49

  the text used to demonstrate the use of phrases on page 136

  the text on page 115 used to illustrate a 'pronoun map' to enable students to see noun and pronoun links and how they contribute to producing cohesive texts. This is followed by a text of medium complexity on page 116.

Material scaffolding

Material scaffolding is the process whereby the teacher structures materials to support students as they learn and apply concepts, facts or strategies.

Teachers might utilise written prompts, colour coded prompts, visual or iconographic prompts to support students through the writing process. Student materials contain detailed prompting which fade as proficiency increases.

Guidelines for designing and implementing material scaffolding

- Start with prompts that provide salient information, i.e. typical features of the text type.
- Reduce prompts as students develop proficiency.
- Make a range of materials available to students, depending on their individual learning needs and where they are in the teaching and learning cycle. This makes material scaffolding particularly attractive when meeting the needs of different learners in the classroom.

Following are two models of student materials that can be used to scaffold a writing task: a POWER card and 'think sheets'.

POWER card

The POWER card provides an overview and reminder of each phase of the writing process. It also lists the typical features or stages of the text being composed, see example below.

The process of writing an exposition

Prepare	Pick a topic.
	Think about the purpose and audience for writing.
	Know where to find out more about your topic if you need to do this.
	Use the planning sheet to write down your ideas, see page 73.
	Write the topic sentence with your opinion. Think of any arguments with details to support each argument.
Organise	Cross out ideas you won't use.
	Group ideas that go together.
	Number ideas in the order you want to write them.
Write	Write your exposition.
	Use paragraph form.
Edit	Use the edit sheet (see page 87) and think about how your exposition will sound to the person reading it.
Rewrite	Write your final draft.
	Check your sentences, capitals, punctuation and spelling.

Adapted from Isaacson (2000)

'Think sheets' for planning a narrative

'Think sheets' help students learn the writing strategy. Scaffolded 'think sheets' can include colour codes and degrees of prompting. Examples of levels of prompting on a 'think sheet' for the composing of a narrative are demonstrated below.

Highly prompted planning sheet for a narrative

Setting – where and when the story takes place
Main characters – the person or persons whom this problem/conflict revolves around
Character clues – appearance, actions, dialogue, comments of others, thoughts
Problem/conflicts
Attempts – how the characters try to solve the problem
Resolution – how the problem gets solved or does not get solved

When students first plan, organise, write, edit and revise, the materials are highly prompted.

The highly prompted planning sheet not only identifies key text structures but further defines and explains their meaning.

Lower level prompted planning sheet for a narrative

Setting Main character Character clues	Problem Attempts Resolution	Conclusion Theme (optional)
.....		
.....		
.....		
.....		

The level of prompting is not as high.

The prompt sheet contains a list of narrative features to remind students to concentrate on ideas without over-emphasising spelling, grammar or punctuation.

Prompted editing and proofreading checklist

When a narrative has been written, editing and proofreading checklists prompt writers to check texts for text features, organisation, grammar, spelling and punctuation.

Prompted editing and proofreading checklist

✔ Check 1: Are the major IDEAS included in my writing?

	✔ Check box if OK Self check	Partner check
1. Setting	☐	☐
2. Main characters	☐	☐
3. Character clues	☐	☐
4. Problem/conflict	☐	☐
5. Attempts	☐	☐
6. Resolution	☐	☐
7. Conclusion	☐	☐
8. Theme (optional)	☐	☐

✔ Check 2: Order/organisation
Does order make sense?

✔ Check box if OK
Self check ☐ Partner check ☐

If order or organisation is not OK use question marks (?) on the draft to highlight where.

✔ Check 3: Grammar, punctuation spelling, appropriate language

✔ Check box if OK
Self check ☐ Partner check ☐

If not OK, circle parts in the draft that you need to change.

Edit sheet: *Exposition*

Read your first draft to yourself.

Does my first paragraph tell the topic and my opinion with a summary of my reasons?	Yes	No
Is each argument clearly written with details to support that argument?	Yes	No
Do I have a good ending to strengthen my opinion?	Yes	No

What do you think the person reading it will say you did well? tick ✔

- Good opening sentence
- Strong arguments
- Stayed on the topic
- Good use of words, correcting words, strong words to persuade
- Wrote in sentences easy to understand
- Good ending
- Tried hard with spelling and punctuation
-

Adapted from Dickson et al. (1993)

Self-editing 'think sheet': *Explanation*

Name _____ Date _____

Read to check your information. *(Reread my explanation.)*

What do I like best? *(Put a ☆ by the parts I like best.)*

What parts are not clear? *(Put a ? by unclear parts.)*

Question yourself to check organisation. Did I:

tell what was being explained?	YES	sort of	NO
tell what things you need (if anything)?	YES	sort of	NO
make the steps clear?	YES	sort of	NO
use the keywords (I began by; then)?	YES	sort of	NO
make it interesting?	YES	sort of	NO

Plan revision. *(Look back.)*

What parts do I want to change?

1. _____

2. _____

Write two or more questions for my editor.

1. _____

2. _____

Task scaffolding

This involves the overall sequence of tasks a teacher may plan to use in order to teach a new skill or strategy to students. The teacher organises the tasks to gradually increase in difficulty. In the example provided the teacher plans to teach the students how to analyse and write an effective narrative. The tasks are organised in sequence to gradually increase in difficulty, beginning with identifying narrative elements, proceeding to writing story summaries, generating stories from pictures and topic prompts, and finally generating compositions from novels.

Guidelines for designing and implementing task scaffolding

- Sequence tasks to achieve the intended outcome; for example, writing independent stories.
- Sequence tasks to focus on only one new skill or strategy.
- Review previously learned skills in the task sequence.
- Sequence tasks to ensure success and errorless learning.

An example of a sequence of tasks to learn about narratives

Note taking to identify narrative elements	• *Short stories provide initial content for writing.*
Writing summaries	• *Students use narrative elements identified as content to write story summaries.*
Writing from picture prompts	• *Teacher uses a selection of picture prompts to generate ideas for stories.*
Writing stories from topic prompts	• *As students become proficient at generating complete stories, text difficulty increases and students write from topic prompts.*
Compositions with higher-order thinking	• *Students apply the strategies learnt to texts that require higher order evaluation and to writing from other perspectives.*

Adapted from Dickson et al. (1993)

Sequence of tasks to learn about sentences

Constructing a simple sentence: statement, page 123	• *The sequence of tasks focuses on only one new skill.*
Identifying and constructing simple sentences: a statement, a question, a command, an exclamation, page 125	• *The previously learned skill, i.e. constructing a simple sentence, is reviewed in the task sequence.*
Identifying and constructing compound sentences, page 129	
Identifying and constructing complex sentences, page 131	
Identifying and constructing a variety of sentence structures, page 132	

Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD): every child can write

The purpose of this strategy is to:

- promote students' development of positive attitudes about writing and themselves as writers
- teach students powerful skills and strategies involved in the writing process, including planning, writing, revising and editing
- support students in the ongoing development of the abilities needed to monitor and manage their own writing. (Harris et al. 1998)

Researchers and practitioners have increasingly demonstrated that neither whole language nor process approaches to writing are uniformly effective for all children (Graham & Harris, 1994). Immersion in reading and writing, informal methods of instruction and 'teachable moments' do not provide all children with the level of explicit instruction, practice and feedback they need to master critical skills and strategies. Students who struggle with reading and writing and those with pronounced learning difficulties often require more extensive, structured and explicit instruction in the skills and strategies critical to literacy.

Teachers and researchers have argued that explicitness and structure should not be equated with decontextualised learning of meaningless skills, passive learning or the teaching of gradually accruing basic skills before moving to higher-order thinking, problem-solving and conceptual learning. SRSD depends upon teachers engaging students as active collaborators in their own learning and development; modelling, dialogue, sharing and scaffolding are critical.

Implementation

Self-**R**egulated **S**trategy **D**evelopment (SRSD) is an instructional approach that started with the premise that all students (especially those who face significant difficulties) would benefit from an integrated instructional approach that directly addressed their affective, behavioural and cognitive characteristics, strengths and needs.

SRSD can be conducted with individual students, small groups or entire classes.

Six stages in the SRSD model are listed. They are:

1. Develop background knowledge
2. Discuss It
3. Model It
4. Memorise It
5. Support It
6. Independent performance

'It' refers to the writing process using both self-regulation and specific writing strategies.

These stages can be recorded, combined, revisited, modified or deleted to meet the student and teacher needs.

The following case study is adapted from the article by Harris, Schmidt and Graham (1998) and is used to illustrate some aspects of the six stages in the SRSD process.

The students involved in the case study were a group of fifth and sixth grade students who were taught a strategy for writing an exposition. They were involved in SRSD instruction because they experienced difficulties with writing, displayed a low level of motivation and had beliefs about the causes of success and failure in their writing which were hindering their progress.

The SRSD strategy was implemented by the teacher in the following seven stages.

1. Develop background knowledge

In this stage the teacher:

- began the lesson by leading discussion to determine what students already knew about an exposition (referred to by the authors as an opinion essay)
- read with her students and discussed several good examples of a written exposition identifying the typical features, then
- jointly worked with them to identify examples of these typical features in texts written by other students.

2. Discuss It

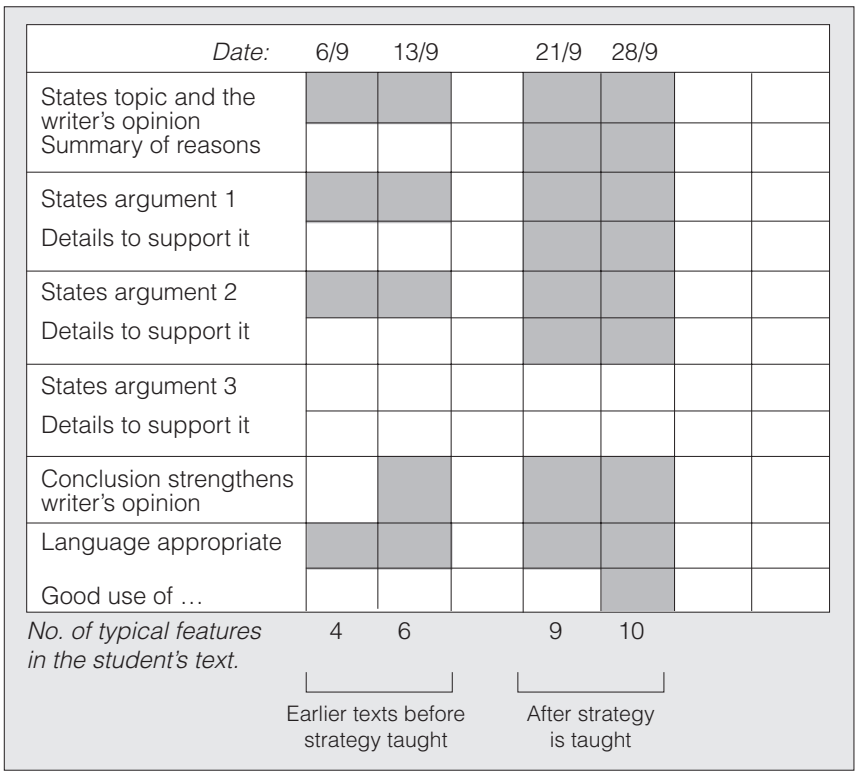
Following the initial lesson the teacher held an individual conference with each student to:

- examine previous expositions the student had written and assess which typical features he or she had included and the quality of those features
- talk with the student about any strategies or self-statements that he or she currently used when writing.

During individual conferences the teacher introduced the strategy of self-monitoring, explaining that self-assessment and self-recording would allow the student to monitor the components in his or her written text and the benefits of learning the new writing strategy.

Together they graphed the number of typical features included in the student's earlier compositions. One example of this graphing for writing an exposition could be as follows:

Goal setting and self-assessment
Student graph for writing an exposition



After each student had participated in an individual conference, the teacher and the students resumed their group discussion of the writing strategy they were to learn during the next lesson. Each student was given a chart listing the steps in the strategy:

Steps to effective writing

1. Think, who will read this, and why am I writing it?

2. Plan what to say using TREE
(**T**opic sentence, **R**easons, **E**xamine, **E**nding).

3. Write and say more.

*Note: the acronym **TREE** was used to help them remember the steps for developing an outline of an exposition. Another teacher, teaching the same strategy, used the acronym **SPACE**, **S**etting, **P**urpose, **A**ction, **C**onclusion, and **E**motions to help his students remember parts of a good narrative.*

The first step in the strategy involved identifying the intended audience and purpose for writing the text. During the second step, each student developed an outline for his or her exposition. This included establishing the arguments for the exposition, generating ideas to support the arguments, evaluating readers' reaction to each idea (and eliminating unsound ideas), noting a conclusion for the exposition, and determining how the argument would be structured or sequenced. The third step was a reminder to continue revising and improving the outline while writing.

The teacher asked the students what they thought the reason for each step might be, and the group discussed how and when to use the strategy (for example, whenever you are asked, or want, to give your opinion or tell what you believe). To help the students remember the steps in developing an outline (TREE), they were given various verbal prompts to visualise a tree:

*The trunk is like your **T**opic sentence or opening statement. How are the trunk of a tree and your topic sentence similar? [Everything is connected to each of them.]*

*The roots are like your **R**easons. How are the roots of a tree like the reasons that support your topic sentence? [They support the trunk – just like reasons support the topic sentence.]*

*It is also important to **E**xamine the roots – just like you examine reasons. [If they are strong, the trunk and the whole tree will be strong.]*

3. Model It

During the third lesson the teacher modelled how to use the writing strategy, 'think aloud', as she worked. The students participated during modelling by helping the teacher as she planned, made notes and wrote the first draft. Together they jointly constructed the text, rejecting and accepting possible ideas to support her arguments. A variety of self-instructions were used by the teacher to help her manage the strategy, the writing process, and her behaviour. These included:

- self-statements involving problem definition (e.g. 'What do I need to do?')
- planning (e.g. 'OK, first I need…')
- self-evaluation (e.g. 'Did I say what I really believe?')
- self-reinforcement (e.g. 'Great, this is a good reason!').

The self-statements the teacher used included: 'If I work hard and follow the steps of the strategy, I'll write a good exposition'.

4. Discuss It (revisited)

After the teacher modelled how to use the writing strategy, she and her students discussed the importance of what we say to ourselves while we work. After discussing how these self-statements were helpful, each student generated and recorded, on a small chart, self-statements he or she would use.

Self-statements

Work hard and follow the steps of the strategy.
Slow down and take my time.
What do I need to do first?
Have I included all my ideas?

5. Memorise It

During the fourth lesson the students worked on memorising the strategy, the acronym (**TREE**), and several self-statements they planned to use. The teacher felt this stage was important to include because several of the students experienced memory problems. Students practised memorising this information in pairs, typically by quizzing each other.

6. Support It

In subsequent lessons, students received assistance from the teacher and each other. This was gradually reduced as each student became increasingly adept at using the procedures.

References to the strategy chart and self-statement lists used as prompts or reminders were faded. Students were encouraged to use the self-statements 'in their heads'. Goal setting and self-assessment continued, using the graphs on pages 91 and 94.

7. Independent performance

After writing three or four expositions, the students were able to use the writing strategy and the accompanying self-regulation strategy procedures without teacher support. At this point the students planned and wrote independently.

Formal evaluation of the research project indicated that instruction changed both how and what students wrote before SRSD instruction. Following instruction, the students typically planned in advance and the quality of texts composed improved. The written texts became longer, the number of reasons supporting the student's opinion increased, text was coherently ordered, and all the typical features of a good exposition were present.

The students were more confident about their ability to write a good exposition and more positive about the role of effort and strategy use in writing.

For a more detailed account of the SRSD instruction, refer to the article by Karen R. Harris, Tanya Schmidt and Steve Graham, University of Maryland, *Strategies for Composition and Self-Regulation in the Writing Process* (1997). Available at http://www.ldonline.org/ld_indepth/writing/harris_writing.html

Self-monitoring: planning, editing and monitoring the writing of an exposition

Setting my goals – showing my progress

Paragraphs

I have written	*Date:*						
My topic and opinion							
My short reasons (summary)							
My first argument (the best)							
Details to support it							
My second argument							
Details to support it							
My ending to strengthen my opinion							
My sentences are easy to understand (ask someone else) I have used good words*							
No. of typical text features I have used							

Prompts

* Good words or phrases could be:

- connectives to sequence arguments, e.g. *My first argument, the second reason, furthermore*
- word chains to build topic information, e.g. *wood chipping, pulp, paper, forest*
- action verbs, e.g. *we must save*
- use of modality, e.g. *must, should, probably*
- evaluative language, e.g. *the importance of a significant event, the evidence is weak.*

The POWER strategy

The purpose of teaching this process is to provide explicit instruction to students on how to write, in this example, an effective factual paragraph, keeping in mind the characteristics of students with writing difficulties and the principles of effective instruction.

The writing process will be taught using the acronym **POWER:**

- **P**repare
- **O**rganise
- **W**rite
- **E**dit
- **R**ewrite.

The sequence of lessons provided in this document teaches the writing of factual paragraphs using the POWER strategy and is adapted from the paper, *Teaching Writing Skills to Students with Learning Problems*, presented by Steve Isaacson, Portland State University, at a workshop in Sydney in 2000.

Please note: The lesson sequence described here is only one example of how a teacher could structure a series of lessons to develop students' skills in planning, writing and editing a paragraph. The sequence should be adjusted where necessary to suit specific student needs.

Implementation

Lesson 1: Examining a well written factual paragraph

- Introduce the factual paragraph by clarifying its purpose and intended audience; for example, 'to explain something to others with facts'.
- Present a short but well written example. Read it together and point out the typical features. List the typical features.

Typical features of a factual paragraph

The factual paragraph includes the most relevant information about the topic.
A factual paragraph often has more than one sentence.
The first sentence tells the topic and outlines the main idea.
All the other sentences are about the topic.
The sentences tell facts, not opinions.
The sentences provide details, examples or arguments that support the main idea.*
Some paragraphs have a conclusion sentence that summarises the main idea. It may also lead the reader to the topic of the next paragraph.*

Helpful hint:

Depending at which stage the students are, you may decide not to list all the typical features. The features with an asterisk (*) may be left for another lesson.

- If time permits, present another well written example. Turn the typical features into typical questions like the ones below.

Typical questions about a factual paragraph
Does it have more than one sentence?
Does the first sentence tell the topic?
Are other sentences about the topic?
Do the sentences tell about facts, not opinions?
Does it have the most important information?

- Present an example of a less effective factual paragraph and use the questions to point out why it is not as well written.

Lesson 2: Explanation of the POWER process

- Review typical features of the factual paragraph listed above.
- Define the process the students will use to write by using the acronym **POWER**.

  Briefly discuss each step, see page 99.
- Model the **PO** of the process using the 'think sheet' while students observe.

Prepare	• Pick a topic related to a planned unit of work. (Ensure the students have the field knowledge.) • Use the 'think sheet' to write down your ideas. • Write the main idea.
Organise	• Cross ideas you won't use. • Group ideas that go together. • Number ideas in the order you want to write about them.

- Model the writing of the first draft (W) from 'think sheet' ideas.

Write	• Write your facts as sentences. • Use paragraph form.

Helpful hints:
When modelling remember to:
- *use an overhead projector or large chart paper, so the students can see you write*
- *model each step of the strategy*
- *think aloud*
- *use a common language and keep it simple*
- *ask questions to keep students' attention:*
  - *let students offer their ideas; compare ideas*
  - *check their understanding of important points.*

(Example: 'What does the P stand for in POWER?' 'I did three things during Prepare. What was the first thing I did?' 'What was the second?' etc.)

Lesson 3: Prompting students to plan and write a first draft

- Review typical features of a factual paragraph.
- Choose a topic related to a planned unit of work. Ensure the students have the topic knowledge or resource materials available to use for reference. Brainstorm content ideas with students.
- *Prompt* students as they (together) plan a group factual paragraph. Record their ideas on an overhead 'think sheet' as they write them on their own 'think sheets'.
- Ask students to write their own first draft from their own 'think sheets'.
- Guide the students as they write.

Lesson 4: Introducing editing

- Model how to edit the factual paragraph using a checklist of typical features or editing 'think sheet' shown on this page.

Edit

- Use the edit sheet and think about how your paragraph will sound to your partner.
- Make changes to your first draft.

Factual paragraph edit sheet

Read your first draft to yourself.

What will your partner say?

More than one sentence?	Y	N
First sentence tells the topic?	Y	N
All the other sentences are about the topic?	Y	N
Tells about facts, not opinions?	Y	N
Tells the most important information?	Y	N

Now show your draft to an editing partner.

What do you think your partner will say you did well in?

- ☐ Good opening sentence.
- ☐ Interesting facts.
- ☐ Interesting describing words.
- ☐ Easy to understand.
- ☐ Good ending sentence.

What will your partner suggest to make it clear or more interesting?

- Teach rules for working with a partner. The rules could be:
  - Wait for your turn
  - Speak with soft voices
  - Listen while your partner is talking and reading
  - Say something good about what your partner has done
  - Ask questions or make suggestions, but no 'put-downs'.
- Prompt students as they work in pairs to edit each other's work.

Lesson 5: Writing the final draft

- Model how to use peer suggestions to make content changes on the first draft.
- Have students make changes on their first drafts using feedback from their own and their partner's editing.

Rewrite	• Write your final draft. • Check your sentences, capitals, punctuation and spelling.

- Have students write their final draft.
- Model a strategy for proofing the final draft and correcting mechanical errors (word order, spelling, capitalisation and punctuation). Use an overhead of a final draft with a variety of errors to model with.

Lesson 6: Students select their own topics

- Review the typical features of a Factual Paragraph.
- Review strategy steps.
- Assist students as they plan, organise and write first drafts on individually selected topics.

Lesson 7: Editing and rewriting paragraphs on individually selected topics

- Assist students as they edit, partner edit, revise and rewrite their paragraphs.
- Give students an opportunity to publish or share their compositions.

Lessons 8, 9, 10, etc.

Fade prompts as students (individually or with partners) plan, draft and edit other compositions. One day will be spent on the first three steps of the strategy (POW). The next day will be spent on editing and rewriting the composition (ER).

Final Lesson

Assess the students' use of the strategy where the students are required to independently plan, draft, edit and rewrite a factual paragraph.

A checklist for students to use to evaluate their understanding of the planning and editing process is presented on page 100.

Steps in the POWER writing process

Prepare	Pick a topic. Use the think sheet to write down your ideas. Think about whether you need more information. If so, find out more. Write the main idea.
Organise	Cross out ideas you won't use. Group ideas that go together. Number ideas in the order you want to write them.
Write	Write the facts as sentences. Use paragraph form.
Edit	Use the edit sheet and think about how your paragraph will sound to your partner. Edit with a partner.
Rewrite	Write your final draft. Check your sentences, capitals, punctuation and spelling.

Helpful hint:

The learning journal on page 36 provides a useful example of how the modelled, guided and independent writing of a factual paragraph, related to the planned unit of work, Outer Space, can play an important role in the student's learning.

POWER: Evaluating my writing process

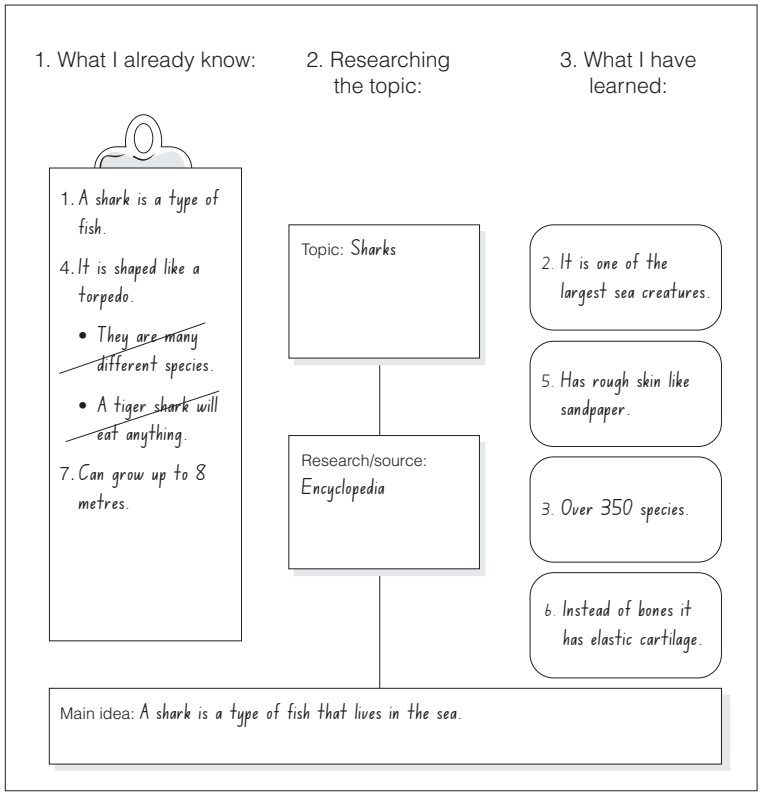
Looking at how I write

My comments			Teacher comments
	Yes	*No*	
Plan			
I chose a good topic	☐	☐	
I read about my topic	☐	☐	
I thought about what the readers will want to know	☐	☐	
I wrote down all my ideas on the 'think sheet'	☐	☐	
Organise			
I put similar ideas together	☐	☐	
I chose the best ideas for my composition	☐	☐	
I numbered my ideas in a logical order	☐	☐	
Write			
I wrote down my ideas in sentences	☐	☐	
When I needed help, I…			
did the best I could Y/N			
looked in a book Y/N			
asked my partner Y/N			
asked the teacher Y/N			
Edit			
I read my first draft to myself	☐	☐	
I marked the parts I liked	☐	☐	
I marked the parts I might want to change	☐	☐	
I read my first draft to my partner	☐	☐	
I listened to my partner's suggestions	☐	☐	
Rewrite			
I made changes to my composition	☐	☐	
I edited for correctness	☐	☐	
I wrote the final draft in my best writing/used the computer	☐	☐	

Steve Isaacson (2000)

Planning to write a factual paragraph

Students brainstorm current knowledge about a topic related to a planned unit of work and link this with new information for the purpose of writing a factual paragraph.



Pick a topic.

Use the 'think sheet' to write down your ideas.

Write the main idea.

Cross out ideas you won't use.

Group ideas that go together.

Number ideas in the order you want to write them.

An example of a factual paragraph

Shark report

A shark is a type of fish that lives in the sea. It is one of the largest sea creatures. There are over 350 species of shark. A shark is shaped like a torpedo and has rough skin like sandpaper. Instead of bones it has elastic cartilage which helps it move easily. Sharks can grow up to 8 metres in length.

- A factual paragraph has more than one sentence. ✔
- The first sentence tells the topic. ✔
- All the other sentences are about the topic. ✔
- The sentences tell facts, not opinions. ✔
- It includes important information. ✔

Section 5

Text structure and grammar

Grammar is a way of describing how a language works to make meaning within a particular culture (Derewianka, 1998). Students need to learn about grammar and sentence structure to be able to reflect on how the English language works, to have a shared metalanguage for talking about the main features of English and to be able to make choices in order to use language more effectively and appropriately.

Knowledge of grammar helps students to critically evaluate their own texts and those of others by identifying the grammatical choices authors have made and how appropriate they are for the purpose and audience of the text. Students use this knowledge to identify points of view, identify how language is used to manipulate for certain effects and how language is used to position the reader in a particular way.

Students experiencing difficulties need to be taught explicitly how to use both oral and written language effectively. Some students experiencing difficulties with learning often use vague language with basic, simple sentence patterns. In everyday oral language interactions, most of us join actions with simple connectives like 'and then'. Students who rely only on the patterns of their oral language for their writing tend to write run-on sentences as they are unaware of the clause structures that are marked in written language as sentences. Successful students develop their writing by reading and by interacting with speakers who use the complex structures most often found in writing.

Emphasis in teaching text connectives and other advanced sentence structures occurs in classrooms mostly within the context of written texts. Students can, however, acquire accurate and fluent skills in writing more complex sentence structures when these are taught in isolation through oral rehearsal.

Emphasis for this approach should be on an appropriate and functional context. For example, a complex sentence pattern for a written description of a character could be developed through modelled reading and guided writing. A word bank could be developed from the text during modelled reading and the complex pattern jointly constructed; for example:

Cinderella, who… [What was she like? What did she do?]

Students could then be asked to use the information to practise the pattern orally by using the word bank and pattern.

Cinderella, who was sad, had no dress to wear to the ball.
Cinderella, who was kind, helped her stepsisters get dressed.
Cinderella, who was happy, married the prince.

To be able to use these patterns of language successfully, all students need to practise them orally and they need to have the patterns taught explicitly. The preceding example shows the use of an adjectival clause following a noun. This is a very simple way of showing students how to develop a complex sentence. If this pattern is addressed in context – for instance, as the grammatical focus of work on a narrative in an English Unit like 'Fairy Tales' – students will be provided with many opportunities to read, write and speak the pattern.

Establishing a 'book talk' framework

Purpose

The purpose of establishing 'book talk' is to provide a scaffold for oral rehearsal of complex sentence structures.

Description

While teachers can encourage the appropriate oral rehearsal of simple sentences and phrases within some contexts, students can be provided with a scaffold (plan) for practicing more complex book-like language structures. Students may need the framework of a strategy such as 'book talk'. Within this framework, students are required to practise 'talking like a book' where they use more formal language. This practice can provide them with the skills necessary for writing more complex sentences.

For example, when responding to a teacher's question 'Why does the coastal taipan live near the water?' the student's answer 'Because it eats frogs' could be modified with a prompt to use 'book talk'. The student then practises 'The coastal taipan lives near water because it eats frogs, which are its main source of food'.

Implementation

To establish a 'book talk' framework the teacher provides examples of informal and formal language and explicitly identifies which type of language is being used. Written examples and audio or visual examples should be used; for example, a news reader on TV or radio, or dialogue from *Home and Away*.

Once the different types of language have been identified the teacher assists students to group the characteristics of formal and informal language using a chart such as the one below.

Language characteristics	
informal – like conversation	***formal – talking like a book***
• short sentences and phrases • use of non-specific words like *thing, stuff, that one, over there* • use of general words and colloquial terms, e.g. *big* instead of *large, huge, giant; sad* instead of *unhappy, despondent, depressed* • use of gestures • use of fillers like 'um'	• use of technical language and terms • use of specific vocabulary • use of longer sentences and specific text-appropriate connectors • use of an appropriate text structure for the text's purpose, e.g. retelling structure including an orientation, sequence of events and comment

The characteristics of both types of language can be written as a wall chart. This chart provides an explicit model and visual prompt for the students to assist them to practise more complex spoken sentence structures. Constant prompting and over-practice are essential for students experiencing difficulties learning to more readily use more complex sentences structures.

The chart can also be referred to in other curriculum areas and provide the opportunity for language skills to be practised and generalised across all subject areas.

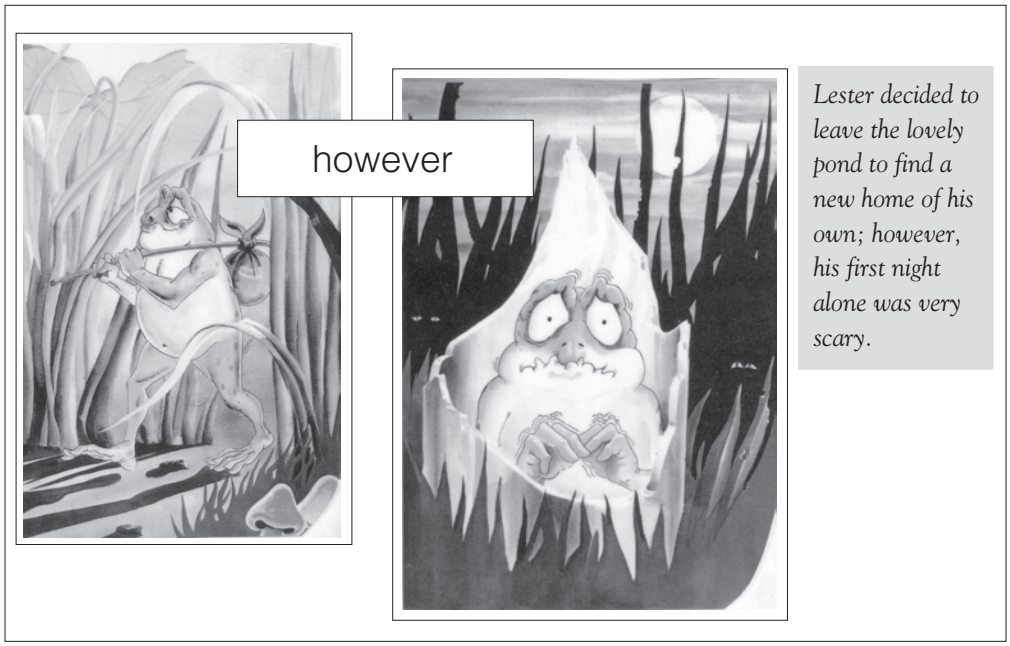
Specific lessons focusing on the development of a range of sentence structures should be introduced at an early stage and incorporated within units of work. (Refer to 'Cued listening to stimulate writing', page 65.)

If students experience considerable difficulties using more complex sentences, teachers can provide additional support.

- Ask students a question to extend their thoughts. The teacher then uses the 'think aloud' strategy by verbalising their own thoughts about how to combine two answers into one sentence. Alternatively, the teacher can model how to combine two comments that have been made by one or more students.

  Student 1: It's yellow and brown.
  Student 2: It lives in the desert.
  Teacher: The taipan is a yellow and brown snake that lives mainly in the desert.

- Provide a sentence starter that has a more complex structure and ask the student to use it to complete the sentence. For example, 'Start your sentence with "The snake hissed because…"'
- Use cards with connector words printed on them to act as visual prompts to encourage students. For example, when retelling a story the students are shown how to connect two simple sentences using a connective to create a more complex sentence.



Sequencing information

Purpose

The purpose of this strategy is to:

- develop in students an understanding of the typical features of a text
- enable students to talk about the structure and language features of the text
- provide teachers with a valuable opportunity for assessing language and literacy development when students work collaboratively to sequence a scrambled text.
- provide a starting point for further activity; for example, writing a narrative.

Description

- Sequencing tasks where the text is cut into chunks and re-assembled can be used during modelled, guided and independent reading and writing.
- A scrambled text can be sequenced by groups of students as a collaborative activity and then compared with the original text. It can also be used by the teacher for demonstrating the typical features of a text.

Preparation

- Define the context and select the text related to a planned unit of work. For example, the text may be a recount of a shared experience such as an excursion, a recorded procedure from a class experiment or an explanation related to a topic that has been researched, such as *Woodchipping*, see page 109.
- Determine the learning focus or purpose of the sequencing activity. Page 107 provides examples of a learning focus for sequencing an explanation.
- Prepare the sequencing activity. This may involve cutting the original text into paragraphs/sentences or a mix up of paragraphs/sentences on a piece of paper to be numbered in order, see page 109.
- Decide how students will be grouped – pairs, small groups, mixed ability groups.
- Prepare a list of the typical features of this type of text on a prompt card or wall chart, see page 108.

Implementation

- State the purpose of the planned activity. Share with students the specific nature of the task, the reason for doing it and its value to their learning.
- Revisit the typical features of a sequential explanation. See page 108 for some examples.
- Invite students to work in groups or pairs to complete the sequence.

- Encourage collaborative talk about the structure and language features of the text. Refer to the list of typical features to prompt language talk. Encourage the response to questions such as:

  What is the purpose of this text?
  Where would we find this text?
  Have we read or written texts like this before?
  What part of the text would come first? Why?
  Are there any clues from the language of the text?
  What might come next?

- When the task is completed consider providing an opportunity for a group member to share with the rest of the class the decisions that challenged the group.
- Compare the completed sequence with the original text.
- Consider how this activity supported the students' learning.

An example of a learning focus related to a sequential explanation

The learning focus could include one or more of the following:

- *text structure of a sequential explanation*
- *use of connectives and conjunctions to sequence the events*
- *the pattern of action verbs*
- *the importance of every key event in the sequence being included*
- *the importance of researching the topic through reading, viewing and discussion .*

Some strategies to develop an understanding of sequence in text

An example of a typical features chart that can be used to prompt and encourage collaborative talk about the structure and language features of the text

Typical features of a sequential explanation

- The first stage states the topic.
- The second stage may provide some background information (optional).
- The third stage explains the sequence where key events are written in a logical order. Each event is linked to the other.
- Time words are used to sequence events, e.g. *after that, next, and then, at this stage, finally*.
- There is a pattern of action verbs.

Possible collaborative talk using the text on page 109, *Woodchipping*.

'Let's be sure about the purpose of this text before we start. Do we have enough information about the topic?'

'The first part needs to tell us about the topic. Here it is… *Woodchipping is…'*

'This might be the part we need next. It has background information.'

'Let's find the parts that will explain how the woodchipping is done.'

'Some of the time words should give us a clue. Let's look for the time words and underline them.'

'Here's two, *begin* and *finally*. That part must come first and the other part last.'

'Read this. Does it make sense? Is each event linked to the other?'

'The pattern of action verbs could also help.' See page 110.

Explanation sequence: *Woodchipping*

This text is separated for the purpose of sequencing.

Woodchipping is a process used to obtain pulp and paper products from the forest.	☐
About 10 percent of Australia's state owned forest land, and large areas of privately owned forest, are involved in woodchip projects.	☐
The woodchipping process begins when the trees are cut down in a selected area of the forest called a coupe.	☐
After that, the tops and branches are cut off and then the logs are dragged to a log landing where they are loaded onto a truck.	☐
Next the bark of the logs is removed and the logs are then taken to a chipper which cuts them into small pieces called woodchips.	☐
The woodchips are then screened to remove dirt and other impurities.	☐
At this stage the woodchips are either exported to Japan in this form or converted into pulp by chemicals, heat and pressure.	☐
The pulp is then bleached and the water content removed.	☐
Finally it is rolled out to make paper.	☐

From *English K–6, Teaching About Texts*, p.138.

The following table shows the ordering of events and could also be used to prompt the sequencing of the text.

A sequential explanation

What	***Actions***
trees	*cut down*
tops and branches	*cut off*
logs	*dragged*
bark of logs	*removed*
(logs)	*taken*
woodchips	*screened*
(woodchips)	*exported or converted*
pulp	*bleached*
water content	*(is) removed*
pulp	*rolled out*

Variation:

Teachers and students work collaboratively to carry out a class experiment. They jointly construct and write the text for each step on a card.

Following the experiment the students recall the steps taken and select the appropriate text card for each step.

The class read the experiment to determine if it is correct.

Helpful hints:

- *Students can write a text such as a procedure and make it into a sequencing activity for others to complete.*
- *Sequencing can be a useful activity for group work in learning centres.*
- *Sequencing can be used in a barrier game.*
- *Newspaper cuttings and magazine articles can provide examples for sequencing.*

Text cohesion

Text cohesion refers to the way text is held or 'glued' together.

Students should be taught the organising principles and structures of language and how they contribute to meaning and effect. This includes such things as: the rules and conventions which govern how words are combined into phrases, clauses and sentences; how pronouns contribute to textual cohesion; and how the meaning or effect of a sentence is affected by changes made to the word order. Students also need to be taught techniques to apply this knowledge in their own writing.

In particular, in the early phases of learning to write, students will use connectives (including conjunctions and connecting adverbs), pronouns and consistency in tense to produce a piece of coherent writing that is 'joined up' effectively. These devices can be identified in the text below.

> Young Max enjoyed exploring. This sense of adventure, however, often got him into trouble so his mother locked the garden gate. For a while, he was content to amuse himself in the backyard but soon he searched out new horizons. First, he climbed the gate and then, at last, the little explorer set off into the wide world.

Other important linking devices include words that show connections (such as synonyms and repeated words) and words that indicate structure in the text (such as *similarly*, *finally*).

Pronouns: understanding pronouns and how they contribute to producing cohesive texts

A pronoun is a word that is used in place of or that refers to a noun. Pronouns contribute to producing cohesive texts by making links between clauses and sentences; for example, *he*, *his*, *him*, *himself* – all these pronouns refer to *young Max* in the text above.

The pronoun may be:

- a personal pronoun, e.g. he, she, we
- a possessive pronoun, e.g. mine, yours, theirs
- a demonstrative pronoun, e.g. that, this, these
- a relative pronoun, e.g. who, whose, which, that
- an interrogative or questioning pronoun, e.g. who, whose, what.

Other types of pronouns are classified in grammatical descriptions but the above are the most useful terms for writers in the early stages.

Some sample learning to and learning about strategies

1. Prepare and display a list of what students should know and understand about pronouns. See one example on page 114.
2. During modelled or guided reading take the opportunity to focus on aspects of language such as noun-pronoun reference.

Begin with a short passage from a shared book or text on an overhead transparency or white board. Identify and circle the pronouns and ask students to locate who or what the pronouns are referring to. Page 115 provides an example of teaching points using the text from James Reece's *Lester and Clyde*.

3. Construct a semantic map to group the pronoun references and enable students to better understand how the use of pronouns contributes to producing cohesive texts. Refer to pages 115–116 for examples.

   Start by first selecting a suitable text and reading the text together.

   Identify and underline who or what the text is about and find the pronouns that are used to refer to that person, place or thing.

   Invite students to circle the pronouns and draw lines to show the links with the words to which they refer.

   Point out that as pronouns take the place of nouns it is important to ensure that lines of reference do not become confused.

   Trace the links to demonstrate how the use of pronouns contributes to producing a cohesive text.

4. Practice tracking noun-pronoun references through cloze exercises on using different text types.

   Delete a selection of nouns and pronouns from these texts ensuring students are provided with adequate reference points to complete the tasks.

   Complete the cloze activities individually, in groups or as a class. In a group or whole class situation, the cloze passage can be written on butchers paper or a white board. Students can be selected to write the appropriate word and justify their choice.

5. Provide students with a familiar text that has different types of pronouns. Have students locate and underline the pronouns.

   Ask students to try and identify what sort of things the pronouns might be referring to; for example, a person, a thing, a group of people or a group of things.

   Ask students to categorise the pronouns. Depending on the focus, consider starting with two different pronoun types; for example, personal and possessive pronouns.

   Prompt students by referring to the list of reminders on page 114.

Personal	Possessive

6. Investigate what happens when pronouns are not used in a text. The sample below provides one example for investigation. The student was asked to produce a piece of writing that describes William Wild Thing.

> William Wild Thing had horns and a jumper. As well as a curly tail, sharp teeth and scaly skin. Last but not least claws, big eyes, huge nose and a beard. Oh, and big feet!

The teacher could pose such questions as:

Does this text have pronouns?

Are the lines of reference clear?

Does each sentence have a subject?

Are the sentences successful?

Is the description well organised?

Students and teacher could jointly rework the text to make it more successful, thinking aloud as they explore the possible changes.

7. Collect a variety of pictures suitable for teaching noun-pronoun reference. Select one of the pictures and model constructing a short text. On a text card, write the first sentence referring to the noun or noun group by name, followed by second sentence replacing the noun or noun group with a suitable pronoun. For example:

Invite students to choose a picture and work in pairs to write their own text with guided practice from the teacher.

Save the pictures and texts for use as an independent matching activity.

The people are watching a concert.
They are having fun.

8. Prepare several copies of a recount, cut up into pieces. In pairs students reconstruct the recounts. Encourage them to use clues such as a pronoun referring to one or more preceding noun or noun group. This will help make links between sections of the text. Upon completion address such questions as:

Did you look for words that seem to go together?

Did you look for reference links such as pronouns?

Did you look at words to do with time?

What other links did you find?

See page 117.

Where to from here?

- *Ask students to highlight the pronouns in their own writing and draw lines to locate who or what the pronouns are referring to. Perhaps students could construct their own semantic maps.*
- *Conference with students to improve their first drafts. Discuss the effect of overuse of pronouns when the lines of reference are not clear. Rework the text to replace personal pronouns with noun groups when this occurs.*
- *Show students how to edit their text by identifying the correct use of relative pronouns, such as* who, which *and* what, *when they begin an adjectival clause.*
- *Monitor each student's progress and identify specific needs.*

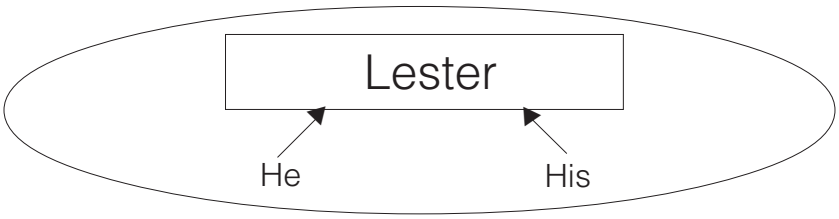
What you should know and understand about a pronoun

- A pronoun is a word that is used in place of a noun so we can avoid repetition or clumsiness.
- It may be a:
  - *personal pronoun:* referring to a person or thing, e.g. *he, she, we, it, they,* as in
    Sue was happy. She laughed.
  - *possessive pronoun:* indicating ownership, e.g. *mine, yours, hers,* as in
    The book is mine; it is not yours.
  - *demonstrative pronoun:* acting like a 'pointer' referring to a particular thing or process, e.g. *that, this, these, those,* as in
    He ate too much. This is what made him sick.
  - *relative pronoun:* introducing relative or adjectival clauses, e.g. *who, which, that,* as in
    He had an apple which was bad.
  - *interrogative pronoun:* signalling the start or focus of a question, e.g. *who, what, which, whose, whom,* as in
    Who are you? Whose daughter are you?
  - *indefinite pronoun:* referring to an unidentified person or thing, e.g. *each, any, some, all, somebody,* as in
    Do you like fruit? Would you like any?
- A pronoun can be used instead of constantly repeating the noun, e.g.
  his *he* *his*
  Ben took Ben's bike when Ben went to visit Ben's friend.
- Pronouns can be used to refer to the reader (you) or the writer (I) in order to create a relationship in the text, e.g. I hope you understand this.

Semantic map to group noun-pronoun reference links

This activity will show students that, by linking pronouns to the nouns they replace, they will better understand how the use of pronouns contributes to more fluent, cohesive texts. The extract is from a literary text, *Lester and Clyde* by James Reece, the story of two frogs.

Noun-pronoun links



Lester gazed at the pond and gulped the fresh air.

He told Clyde that his journey had been a nightmare.

The he asked Clyde, 'Why is it, if frogs really care,

that men pollute ponds and foul up the clean air?

They say that we're no beauties, the poor mixed up lot

What do they know of beauty? What cheek they have got!'

Teaching points in modelled or guided reading

- Who or what is this text about? The answer is Lester (a proper noun).
- The pronouns used to refer to Lester are he and his.
- He is a personal pronoun referring to a person.
- His is a possessive pronoun that shows what belongs to Lester.
- Who or what is this text about? The answer is frogs (a common noun).
- The pronoun used to refer to frogs is we.
- Frogs, as used here, means all frogs at all times.
- The plural first person pronoun we is used here to establish a personal connection between the speaker (Lester) and all other members of his group 'frogs'.
- Who or what is this text about? The answer is men (a common noun).
- The pronoun used to refer to men is they.
- They is a personal pronoun and is referred to as a 'third person' pronoun because it refers to the people being 'spoken about'.

See tables of pronouns, Derewianka (1998) p.48, 49.

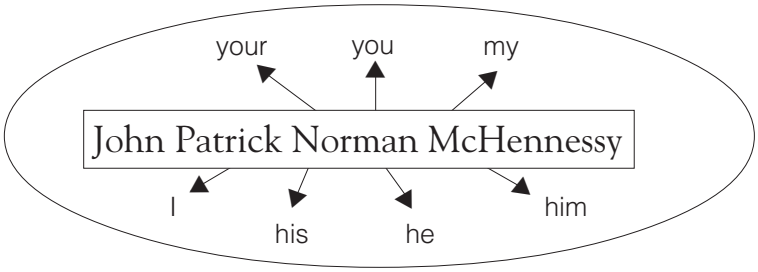
An extension of the discussion the teacher and students could engage in about text cohesion is the importance of clear lines between nouns and noun groups, for example:

'Why is it, if frogs really care, that men pollute ponds and foul up the clean air?

They say we are no beauties, the poor mixed up lot. What do they know of beauty? What a cheek they have got.'

This is a progression to a more **complex semantic map** to group the linking pronouns to the noun John Patrick Norman McHennessy.

More complex noun-pronoun links



John Patrick Norman McHennessy – the boy who was always late

John Patrick Norman McHennessy set off along the road to learn.

On the way a crocodile came out of a drain and got hold of his satchel.

John Patrick Norman McHennessy pulled and pulled but the crocodile would not let go.

He threw a glove into the air and the crocodile snapped at the glove and let go of the satchel.

John Patrick Norman McHennessy hurried along the road to learn but the crocodile had made him late.

"John Patrick Norman McHennessy, you are late and where is your other glove?"

"I am late, Sir, because on the way a crocodile came out of the drain and got hold of my satchel, and would only let go when I threw my glove, which he ate."

Teaching points

- The focus noun is John Patrick Norman McHennessy.
- The linking pronouns are: personal – he, him, I, you; possessive – his, your, my.
- The arrows show how the use of pronouns contributes to providing a cohesive text.

Note: he in the last line does not link to John Patrick Norman McHennessy but refers to the crocodile. It is important to ensure that lines of reference do not become confused.

Adapted from *Choosing Literacy Strategies that Work, Stage 2*, p. 261.

Pronoun hunt

Prepare several copies of a text such as a recount and cut it up into pieces. In pairs students reconstruct the recount focusing on noun-pronoun references. The following is an example of a recount that could be used for such an activity.

The Sydney Royal Easter Show

My family decided to see all the different animals at the Royal Easter Show this year.

It was like visiting a farm

We looked at the huge draught horses in the Clydesdale pavilion.

Dad liked watching the blacksmiths at work there, heating and beating metal into the shape of horseshoes.

When we reached the horses marshalling area we watched some riders practising.

They were waiting to compete in either the Horse Arena or the Main Arena.

After that we walked quickly past the cattle to the farmyard nursery.

Julie fell in love with the baby lambs but Charles really liked the bantam chicks with their long feathers hanging around their feet like fluffy slippers.

We were allowed to touch these silky chickens but not hold them.

The next pavilion had goats, alpacas and pigs. Jason liked these best. Then we looked for eggs in the poultry pavilion but we couldn't find any so we went to the sheep pavilion. While we were there one of the sheep got away and we all crowded around to help herd it back.

That made an exciting end to our tour.

Teaching points

Discuss clues for reconstructing the recount.

- The pronouns we and our take the place of my family and provides a reference point throughout the text.

Other pronoun links to nouns or noun groups to draw attention to are:

- they referring to some riders practising
- it – refers to the whole event of visiting the Easter Show
- it – the one sheep that got away
- them – the silky chickens
- their – the bantam chicks
- these – goats, alpacas and pigs
- any – the eggs.

Time connectives can also be used to assist in reconstructing:

- when, next, while, end, after.

When the students have completed reconstructing the text make sure they re-read it to see if it makes sense. Some reflective questions they could ask might be: Does it make sense? Are the references clear? Are the time connectives where I would expect them to be?

Conjunctions and connectives

Conjunction and connectives are words or group of words that link words and clauses within a sentence or make connections between sentences and ideas within a text.

Conjunctions join words in the same phrase or clause and operate within a sentence:

fish and chips *milk or dark chocolate*
The clothes were old but stylish.

They also link together whole clauses:

There was bread on the table but they could not find any butter.

The major conjunctions are:

and *but* *or* *nor* *yet* (coordinating)
how *when* *where* *why* *since* *as* *before* *after* *because* *if* (subordinating).

Text connectives form links between sentences and other longer stretches of text and provide readers with 'signposts indicating how the text is developing'. While conjunctions are placed at the beginning of a clause, connectives can be used in various places within the sentence. (Derewianka, 1998)

Sarah, however, preferred to walk but, despite this, she was seldom late.

The following is a list of some of the commonly used text connectives:

Clarifying	*Cause/result*	*Indicating time*	*Sequencing ideas*	*Adding information*	*Condition/ concession*
in other words	so	next	firstly	too	in that case
for example	therefore	finally	briefly	as well	if not
in fact	then	earlier	at this point	also	instead
namely	consequently	soon	in short	similarly	despite this
for instance	in that case	before that	for a start	along with	however
or rather	since	when	finally	what's more	otherwise
I mean	because of this	as long as	to begin	moreover	although
instead	as	after a while	after that	again	anyhow

Sample learning to and learning about strategies

1. Introduce the concept of 'joining words'.

   Ask a student to carry out two consecutive actions. Write each action as a complete message on the chalk board or an overhead transparency; for example:

   Tim went to the computer.
   He checked the e-mails.

Ask students to think of a suitable word to join the two sentences; for example:

Tim went to the computer and he checked the e-mails.

Explain that 'and' is a conjunction or 'joining word' because it connects the two sentences. Provide other examples such as:

It was difficult to see. Leo turned on the lights in the classroom.
Leo turned on the lights in the classroom because it was difficult to see.

Ask students to explain any difference in the meaning after the two sentences are joined.

2. Provide students with a text containing a variety of conjunctions. Jointly locate the conjunctions and explain, thinking out loud, how they link ideas or events, see page 120.

   Consider what happens when the conjunctions are taken away.

Is the text easier to read?	Are the ideas or events linked?
Is the text just as interesting to read?	Are there any compound or complex sentences?

   As a variation play the 'Search and Destroy' game. Give students a copy of a particular type of text related to a planned unit of work; for example, the *Explanation sequence: Woodchipping* on page 109. Ask students to work in pairs and cross out all the conjunctions/connecting words they can find. Assist the students to find them all.

   Invite a student to read the text without the connecting words. Ask questions and discuss the changes.

3. Investigate what happens when three or four 'complete messages' are put into one sentence. For example:

   > *We had our swimming carnival and it started to rain and we all had to return to school and we were disappointed.*

   Using the example above, with dot points jointly record the important information (or clauses in the run-on sentence) on the board:

   - *we had our swimming carnival*
   - *it started to rain*
   - *we all had to return to school*
   - *we were disappointed*

   Use a dependent clause at the beginning of the sentence to help the students join the information in an interesting way.

   To model and guide the students to jointly construct some complex sentences, write up a pattern like:

   When _____ , _____ .
   What happened? What did we do? or How did we feel?

   (Extend the pattern with a conjunction like *so* or *because*.)

Using conjunctions to link ideas and events

Jointly locate conjunctions and explain how they link ideas or events.

Our trip to the Reptile Park

We were really excited last Friday <u>because</u> it was the day that we were going to the Reptile Park. We had to arrive at school early <u>so</u> we wouldn't miss the bus. Some of our parents waited until we left <u>so</u> they could say goodbye. We sang songs on the way <u>and</u> the teachers just talked.

At the Reptile Park we were put into groups <u>and</u> we had to stay in those groups all day. We saw lots of different reptiles <u>but</u> my favourite was Eric the crocodile. <u>When</u> I first saw him he did not look real <u>until</u> he started to open his enormous mouth.

We had to leave the Reptile Park early <u>so</u> we could catch our buses back to school. I wish I could visit the Reptile Park every day.

Explain to students that when a sentence gives a reason for an event or action, a **causal conjunction** *such as* **because** *or* **so** *is used.*

Conjunctions giving additional information.

Conjunctions of time are used.

Consider what happens to the meaning of the text when the conjunctions are taken away.

We were really excited last Friday. It was the day that we were going to the Reptile Park. We had to arrive at school early. We wouldn't miss the bus. Some of our parents waited. We left. They said goodbye. We sang songs on the way. The teachers just talked.

At the Reptile Park we were put into groups. We had to stay in those groups all day. We saw lots of different reptiles. My favourite was Eric the crocodile. I saw him. He did not look real. He started to open his enormous mouth.

We had to leave the Reptile Park early. We caught our buses back to school. I wish I could visit the Reptile Park every day.

Consider asking these questions:

Is the text easier to read?

Are the events, ideas or actions linked?

Is the text as interesting to read?

Are there any compound or complex sentences?

Ask students to practise the pattern orally using the dot points recorded on the board.

Examples could be:

When it started to rain, we all had to return to school.

When it started to rain, we were disappointed <u>because</u> we all had to return to school.

When we all had to return to school, we were disappointed.

By practising the pattern together, students can be supported to see how clauses are linked in a sentence. This will help students understand where to use sentence punctuation and they may be able to jointly construct a complex sentence like:

At our swimming carnival, when it started to rain, we were disappointed because we all had to return to school.

4. Use the students' text for guided or independent reading or a sample text constructed by a student to devise a cloze. Delete only the conjunctions.

   Decide on the level of prompting you will give the students to complete the cloze. For example, giving students a copy of the conjunctions deleted, to guide appropriate choices, would be considered as high level prompting.

   Ask students to work in groups or pairs to complete the cloze. Ensure the students have a plan for completing the task. One example is provided below.

Cooperative cloze plan

- Read all the text silently or aloud. Think as you read.
- Read the text to the first deleted word.
- Decide whether it is necessary to read on or go back to work out the missing conjunction.
- Scan for clues to meaning and purpose, e.g. *Do we need a conjunction to indicate reason? Do we need a time conjunction to sequence an event? Do we need a conjunction to indicate place?*
- Suggest possible conjunctions that would make sense in this context.
- Decide on the best possible choice and give reasons for that choice.
- Continue with the cloze until the task is completed.
- Re-read the whole text for meaning and cohesion.

As a variation of the cloze activity provide students with sentence cards where the conjunctions are missing. Invite student to work in pairs to select the most appropriate conjunction card to fill the space. The text used could be taken from a recently constructed recount.

Sentence card

…… we were waiting for the concert to start some members of the orchestra were tuning their instruments.

Conjunction cards

5. Give students a set of pictures that depict a series of events (they could be a set of photos taken on a recent excursion using a digital camera and printed from the computer).

   Ask students to sequence the pictures and then write a caption sentence under each picture reflecting that event.

   Model for students how to connect these sentences using temporal conjunctions, such as *first*, *when*, *before that*, as they work in groups.

   Discuss the purpose of conjunctions i.e. how they provide a cohesive text.

   Discuss the variety of conjunctions in the completed text.

   Write and display these for students to refer to when constructing their own recounts.

6. Consider displaying a variety of conjunctions as room print to encourage effective use and correct spellings. Add other conjunctions as they are discovered and used by students.

Constructing sentences

The simple sentence

Teaching sequence

1. The purpose of this teaching sequence is to provide students with the knowledge and understanding to recognise and construct a simple sentence that is a statement.

   Start by explaining to students why we use sentences. For example,

   'so that writing makes sense and is easy to read and understand'.

   or

   Show and read this together and invite students to comment

   > William was short with a big head. All covered in fur. With sharp horns and teeth. His body was patterned all over. With a swirly curly tail and very strange look. His hands were held up high Trying to scare people out of their skins.

2. Read a brief definition of a sentence:

   A sentence is a group of words that express a complete thought. The statement tells the important who or what, then tells something more about the who or what.

   Mention that simple sentences can also take the form of a question, command or exclamation.

3. Present four or five short but well written examples. These examples could be taken from the student's current text for modelled or guided reading or a sample text constructed by a student. Ensure the sentences include all the typical features of a good sentence. Use vocabulary appropriate to the reading levels of the students you are teaching; for example:

   My mum and dad took us to the beach.

   The weather was fine and sunny.

   Children were playing on the beach.

   Seagulls were swooping to catch fish.

   A dog was barking at a moving crab.

   Read together and point out the typical features.

   Typical features:

   (1) Tells the important who or what.

   (2) Tells something more about the who or what.

   (3) Begins with a capital letter.

   (4) Ends with a full stop.

   (5) Is a group of words which makes sense on its own.

4. Present a few flawed examples to point out the difficulties when a typical feature is missing. Each example should only be flawed in one way to emphasise the typical feature you want to discuss; for example:

   Took us to the beach.
   (This does not tell us the important who or what).

   The weather.
   (This does not tell us something more about the who or what).

   Children were playing on the beach
   (This does not end with a full stop).

   seagulls were swooping to catch fish.
   (This does not start with a capital letter).

   barking at a moving crab.
   (This does not make sense on its own).

5. Change the list of typical features into evaluation questions.

Evaluation questions
Does it tell the important who or what?
Does it tell more about the who or what?
Does the sentence start with a capital letter?
Does it end with a full stop?
Will the person who reads this sentence understand it?

6. Mix good examples and flawed examples to test students' discrimination of good and poor sentences. These could be taken from the example provided on page 123. Use the typical features questions to evaluate each example.

7. Continue by teaching the process of writing a simple sentence as a statement. Model the planning part of the process, thinking aloud while the students observe.

8. Provide guided practice for students. This may involve joint construction. Consider using an edit checklist; for example:

Sentence edit checklist My sentence:		
tells the important who or what	Yes	No
tells more about the who or what	Yes	No
starts with a capital letter	Yes	No
ends with a full stop	Yes	No
will make sense when another person reads it.	Yes	No

9. Provide opportunities for independent practice and generalisation in a range of contexts.

Identifying and writing types of simple sentences

Students need to know that:

- the clause is the basic grammatical unit in any sentence
- a *clause* is a group of words built up around a process; this process can be a process of doing, feeling, thinking, saying or relating or just being or having

  Kim *opened* the door.

  Kim *loved* the outdoors.

  Kim *worried* about the weather.

  My name *is* Kim.

  Kim *has* a sister.

  Kim *is* a kind girl.

- a *clause* which 'stands on its own' is called an independent clause
  Kim opened the door
- a sentence containing one independent clause is called a *simple sentence*.

Preparation

- Select a suitable text for identifying simple sentences. The text could be one used in shared or guided reading. It could also be a well written text composed by a student.
- Prepare and display a list of what students need to know and understand about a simple sentence. One example is shown below. The sample sentences are from the text *John Brown, Rose and the Midnight Cat* by Jenny Wagner.

What you need to know and understand about a simple sentence

A simple sentence:

- is a group of words which makes sense on its own (one independent clause)
- tells us about an action and those involved in the action
- begins with a capital letter and ends with a punctuation mark.

A simple sentence can be:

- a ***statement*** (gives information), e.g. *John Brown went outside.*
- a ***question*** (asks for an answer), e.g. *What's in the garden, John Brown?*
- a ***command*** (tells us to do something), e.g. *Go and give it some milk.*
- an ***exclamation*** (emphasises emotion or feeling), e.g. *Look, John Brown!*

Implementation

1. Explain the purpose of the lesson.
2. Begin by introducing the whole text and reading it. (This may have already been done during the modelled or guided reading session). Attend closely to the correct punctuation and intonation to show the difference between a statement, a question, a command and an exclamation.

Point out that we use sentences so that our writing makes sense, is easy to read and understand, and doesn't look and read like this:

(Show and read the extract from the text together as an example).

> *In summer he sat under the pear tree with her in the winter he watched as she dozed by the fire all year round he kept her company.*

Now read the same text in sentences.

> *In summer he sat under the pear tree with her. In the winter he watched as she dozed by the fire. All year round he kept her company.*

Invite comments from the students.

3. Refer to the list of what students need to know and understand about a simple sentence (page 125). Using a reading text, model for students how to identify a simple sentence, thinking out loud. Ask students to locate the word or word group that tells the action and who or what is involved in the action.
4. Invite students to discuss the structure of each simple sentence identified. Consider how they are alike and how they are different. Talk through the students' responses.

   Points for discussion could include:

   - what each sentence does – make a statement, ask a question, give a command or exclaim
   - the punctuation at the beginning and end of each sentence
   - the types of verbs – action, thinking and so on
   - one message for each sentence.
5. Refer to the whole text again and ask students to find other examples of a simple sentence.

   Note: Students experiencing difficulties may need prompting to encourage them to be actively engaged in the task set and give the correct response. It is important, however, that the prompts are eventually withdrawn so that the student has the opportunity to perform the task independently.

   Consider the benefits of working in pairs or in a small group.

   Prompts may include:
   - giving a clue or hint as to where to find the sentence
   - reminding the students to look for one message
   - rereading the text in meaningful chunks with appropriate intonation to help students know where the message begins and ends
   - locating the appropriate punctuation mark; for example, 'We are looking for a simple sentence that ends with a question mark'
   - supplying the command word to locate a command sentence.

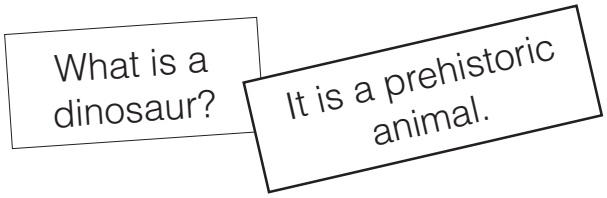
Further activities to provide practice for writing simple sentences

- Brainstorm nouns or noun groups from the text – John Brown, Rose, window, garden, cat, midnight, bowl of milk – and ask students to select three of these to write simple sentences (one noun or noun group to each sentence). Compare sentences. Refer to the example worksheet on page 128.
- Brainstorm action words (verbs) or verb groups from the text – *has lived, died, watched, dozed, was looking, Go, Get* – and write a simple sentence as above. Compare sentences. Refer to the sample worksheet on page 128.
- Provide sentence starters or sentence endings from the text and ask students to complete them to make each one into a simple sentence, such as

  In summer .....

  His name was .....

  The midnight cat .....
- Build a simple sentence game by providing flash cards with verb and verb groups in one colour, nouns in another colour and so on. Students construct sentences using flash cards. Students copy sentences into their books and with appropriate punctuation.
- Make a simple sentence game related to the text used for modelled or guided reading or a planned unit of work. Ask students to construct their own question and answer cards. The answers are statements. For example:



  Invite students to share and respond to the questions by identifying the correct answer card.
- Construct a board game related to a planned unit of work, see page 38.

Where to from here?

- *Help students to identify action words in sentences in their own writing by underlining them. Use these to locate simple sentences.*
- *Ask students to put parallel lines in their writing to show where each sentence (message) ends, e.g. We went to the Royal Easter Show. // (There is one message in this sentence.)*
- *Conference with students to check understanding of concepts taught. Collect anecdotal information and writing samples to show evidence of progress towards achievement of syllabus outcomes.*
- *Provide opportunities to construct simple sentences in other contexts. For example, the writing of a procedural type of text can provide a meaningful purpose for constructing sentences that command.*
- *Prepare students for building on their knowledge about simple sentences to join two or more clauses in a sentence using conjunctions and a variety of clauses.*

An activity to provide practice for writing simple sentences

Name: Date:

Text: *John Brown, Rose and the Midnight Cat*

Start with a NOUN or NOUN GROUP and write a simple sentence

A **noun** is a naming word for people, places, ideas and things, e.g. Rose, John Brown (*proper nouns*), garden, cat (*common nouns*).

A **noun group** is a group of words built around the noun that tells more information about that noun, e.g. the midnight cat.

Find or brainstorm nouns or noun groups from the text:

_____ _____

_____ _____

_____ _____

_____ _____

Now, choose three nouns or noun groups from your list and use each one of them to write a simple sentence. The sentence can be a statement (*gives information*), a question (*asks for an answer*), a command (*tells us to do something*) or an exclamation (*for emphasis*).

Remember a simple sentence makes sense on its own, begins with a capital letter and ends with a punctuation mark. ! ?

1. _____

   _____

2. _____

   _____

3. _____

   _____

Name: Date:

Text: *John Brown, Rose and the Midnight Cat*

Start with a VERB or VERB GROUP and write a simple sentence

A **verb** is a doing word, e.g. pulled (action), thought (thinking), loved (feeling), asked (saying), His name <u>was</u> John Brown (relating).

A **verb group** is a group of words built around the verb, e.g. <u>was</u> not looking, had to make.

Find or brainstorm verbs or verb groups from the text:

_____ _____

_____ _____

_____ _____

_____ _____

Now, choose three verbs or verb groups from your list and use each one of them to write a simple sentence. The sentence can be a statement (*gives information*), a question (*asks for an answer*), a command (*tells us to do something*) or an exclamation (*for emphasis*).

Remember a simple sentence makes sense on its own, begins with a capital letter and ends with a punctuation mark. ! ?

1. _____

   _____

2. _____

   _____

3. _____

   _____

Stowe (1997)

Writing sentences with more than one clause

Constructing compound sentences

- A compound sentence is a sentence which contains more that one independent clause:
  The boy hit the ball and it bounced.
- Clauses are joined by conjunctions, sometimes called 'joining words'.

Some sample learning to and learning about strategies

1. Prepare and display a list of reminders about a compound sentence.

What you should know and understand about a compound sentence
• A compound sentence is a sentence that contains more than one independent clause joined by conjunctions. *We travelled by bus and it was fun.* • Clauses are joined by conjunctions, sometimes called 'joining words'. The particular conjunctions that join independent clauses are: *and but or nor yet*

2. Select a suitable text for revisiting the structure of a simple sentence and introducing or identifying the structure of a compound sentence. The text could be one directly related to a planned unit of work used in modelled or guided reading or a sample text written by a student. See page 130 for one example of a student's written text.
3. Model joining independent clauses using the conjunctions, *and*, *but* and *or* to construct compound sentences.

   I like apples *and* I eat them all the time.

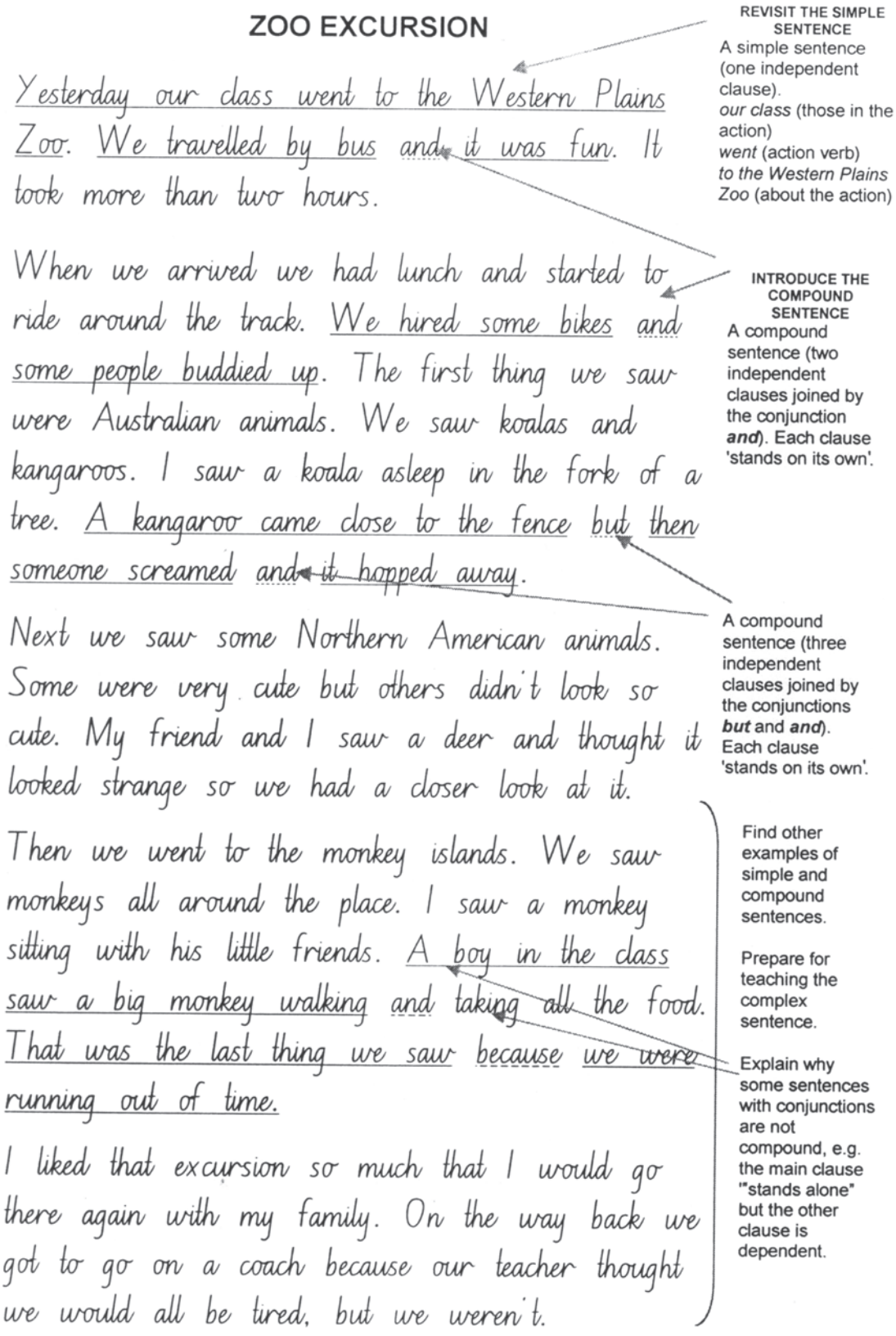
   I like apples *but* I don't like rock melon.

   We could walk home *or* we could catch the bus to town.

   Young students tend to rely more heavily on compound sentences. Recount texts, in particular, typically consist of a string of independent clauses joined by 'then' and 'and'. As students learn to express thoughts with more complex relationships they will need to use complex sentences (Derewianka, 1998). After Kindergarten, students should be taught how to link and order sentences and clauses using words other than 'and' and 'then'.

Identifying simple and compound sentences

Text purpose – to write a recount of the excursion for the school newsletter



ZOO EXCURSION

Yesterday our class went to the Western Plains Zoo. We travelled by bus and it was fun. It took more than two hours.

When we arrived we had lunch and started to ride around the track. We hired some bikes and some people buddied up. The first thing we saw were Australian animals. We saw koalas and kangaroos. I saw a koala asleep in the fork of a tree. A kangaroo came close to the fence but then someone screamed and it hopped away.

Next we saw some Northern American animals. Some were very cute but others didn't look so cute. My friend and I saw a deer and thought it looked strange so we had a closer look at it.

Then we went to the monkey islands. We saw monkeys all around the place. I saw a monkey sitting with his little friends. A boy in the class saw a big monkey walking and taking all the food. That was the last thing we saw because we were running out of time.

I liked that excursion so much that I would go there again with my family. On the way back we got to go on a coach because our teacher thought we would all be tired, but we weren't.

REVISIT THE SIMPLE SENTENCE
A simple sentence (one independent clause).
our class (those in the action)
went (action verb)
to the Western Plains Zoo (about the action)

INTRODUCE THE COMPOUND SENTENCE
A compound sentence (two independent clauses joined by the conjunction ***and***). Each clause 'stands on its own'.

A compound sentence (three independent clauses joined by the conjunctions ***but*** and ***and***). Each clause 'stands on its own'.

Find other examples of simple and compound sentences.

Prepare for teaching the complex sentence.

Explain why some sentences with conjunctions are not compound, e.g. the main clause "stands alone" but the other clause is dependent.

Year 5 Primary Writing Assessment 2001, Sample Text A, page 54.

Constructing complex sentences

A complex sentence is a sentence that contains an independent clause and one or more dependent clauses, typically joined by a conjunction.

- Using conjunctions of place, time, manner, cause or concession creates dependent clauses; for example: We came home because it was getting cold.

  'because it was getting cold' is a dependent clause. It cannot stand alone.

  Such dependent clauses are called adverbial clauses.

- Dependent clauses which are adverbial clauses can be moved from the beginning to the end of a sentence (and vice versa) and the meaning is not usually altered.

  Examples of conjunctions (joining words) typically used are:

Place:	where, wherever
Time:	when, since, before, until
Manner:	by, as though
Cause:	because, so that
Condition:	if, unless
Concession:	although, while

- Dependent clauses can also be introduced by relative pronouns (*who*, *whose*, *whom*, *which*, *that*). These clauses are called relative or adjectival clauses.

  Kim was afraid of dogs that barked loudly.

Helpful hints:

- *Support the students to add a variety of conjunctions to develop compound and complex sentences. Encourage students to manipulate, rearrange and reorder their sentences. Engage the students often in discussion about sentences, word order and the effectiveness of the sentence's message.*
- *Working at the sentence level rather than a whole text level and ensuring students can write a complete complex sentence will ensure students' writing will improve.*

Some sample learning to and learning about strategies

1. Prepare and display a list of what students need to know about a complex sentence.

What you need to know and understand about a complex sentence

- A complex sentence is a sentence that contains an independent clause and one or more dependent clauses, joined by a conjunction.
  When the bell rang, Kim went home.
  Kim went home is the main clause. It is independent. It can 'stand alone'.
  When the bell rang is the dependent clause. It cannot 'stand alone'.
  The conjunction joining the two clauses is *when*.
  When is a conjunction of time.
- A complex sentence can make a text more interesting for the reader.

2. Select suitable texts with a mix of simple, compound and complex sentences. The text could be one directly related to a planned unit of work used in modelled or guided reading or a sample text composed by a student. See page 135 for one example of a text composed by a student.

   Revisit the structures of simple and compound sentences. Introduce and identify the structure of a complex sentence. Refer to the list of what students should know about a complex sentence when modelling the process of identifying a complex sentence. 'Think out aloud'. Ask students to work in pairs to identify and underline dependent clauses in the text provided (see below) and then mark the complex sentences containing the dependent clauses. (Consider prompting students by providing a list of conjunctions that could begin a dependent clause, see examples on page 118).

   The following is an extract from *My Place* by Nadia Wheatley and Donna Rawlins which could be used to identify dependent clauses.

   > 1928
   >
   > This is a map of my place. Last year they put in poles so now our lights are electric! It's really exciting living here because the aerodrome's just nearby, and sometimes aeroplanes fly over. I climb up the tree and wave to the pilots. Mumma says we're lucky here because we've got good neighbours. Miss Miller lets Kath and me play her piano, and if we catch Henry's bus he won't let us play. The Thomsons on the other side have got a wireless! Lorna Thomson's my best friend.

   Talk through the students' responses.

3. Model joining simple sentences by using a conjunction of time, place, manner or cause to create a complex sentence. For example:

   It was hot. We came home.
   becomes
   Because it was hot we came home.

   Ask students to consider texts in which there are too many short sentences and use conjunctions to join some of these together to make the story more interesting.

4. Investigate with students what happens when you use a conjunction of time, cause or concession to begin a clause but do not combine that clause with an independent clause.

   For example:

   Because it is raining .....

   If I get lost .....

   When I go to the beach .....

   Ask students to finish each sentence so the message is complete.

   Practise the task orally before asking students to complete the message as a writing task. This is particularly important for those students experiencing language difficulties.

Introduce the variety of conjunctions or connectives. See page 118 for examples.

Encourage the students to manipulate sentences from their reading texts and from their own writing using a range of sentence structures.

For example, provide the following sentence starter:

The huge powerful golden lion roars angrily in the cold steel cage…

Ask the students to think of a reason why the lion roars and use one of these words to complete the sentence.

because	so	until	but…

Ask the students to rearrange parts of the sentence to develop more interesting sentences.

The huge powerful golden lion roars angrily in the cold steel cage. (Simple sentence)

might become a complex sentence such as

paces
stalks
sits (?)

Roaring angrily the huge powerful lion _____ in the cold steel cage while the tourists take photographs.

or

A huge golden lion that is trapped in the cold steel cage *roars angrily.*
sits sadly.

6. Ask students to complete skeleton writing examples, using dependent clauses. Link the examples to a familiar text and invite students to complete the task orally before they write the dependent clause. Consider using a picture stimulus to support the skeleton sentence, see below.
   a. Before he left, he ..... .
   b. I..... until you stop that.
   c. While you were sleeping, a .....
      .....
      .....
      ..... .

7. Devise a cloze, deleting only the conjunctions, to investigate the ways in which messages in a sentence are linked. Read the cloze passage together and then ask students to complete the cloze by filling in the deleted conjunctions.

> **1928** (see page 132)
>
> We had a party last Saint Patrick's Day. He's the Saint of Ireland, …….. we all wear green for him and sing and dance. Pa got a bit sad …… he was missing home, …….. Mumma invited the Next Doors in to cheer him up.
>
> Missing conjunctions: *because, and, so*

Where to from here?

Conference often with students to improve their own written drafts. Explain that a mix of simple, compound and complex sentences creates variety in a text. By Stage 3, students should be more able to express complex ideas in simple sentences. For instance, this is a simple sentence dealing with complex, abstract ideas: Childhood obesity is an indicator of ill health in adult life.

Understanding sentences: simple, compound, complex

This is a sample text (narrative or story recount) composed by a student in Year 5.

A mix of sentence types – simple, compound and complex – can be identified. Some examples for identification could be:

Simple sentences_____ Compound sentences_ _ _ _ Complex sentences_____

What went wrong!

I must tell you about last Tuesday. It was one of the worst days I'd ever had.

It started when I woke up. I rolled over and hit my nose on the wall. Ouch! I got up and went to get dressed. I'd just finished dressing when my mum called me for breakfast. I ran down and tripped over the cat. I flew through the air and landed at my mum's feet. She thought I was mucking up. Every Tuesday morning we had bacon and eggs. Unfortunately I managed to spill that down my front.

I left the house for school and just before I got to the bus stop the School Bus went past. When I arrived at school one hour later I was put on detention.

At lunchtime it started getting cold. I went to put on my scarf but it was covered in mashed pear. I took out my lunchbox to find out that my drink bottle had leaked on my lunch. It had also leaked on my books. In the swimming carnival I had a false start in every race as well as coming last. I couldn't believe it. I was one of the best swimmers.

For homework we had spelling and had to write an information report. I hated that.

That was one of the worst days I ever had.

That evening I worked out what was wrong. I had worn different coloured socks to bed the night before. Now I am always careful with my socks.

REVISIT THE SIMPLE AND COMPOUND SENTENCE

A simple sentence has one independent clause
A compound sentence has two independent clauses joined by a conjunction. Refer to examples in this text.

INTRODUCE THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

A complex sentence has one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. *When I arrived at school one hour later* (dependent clause) *I was put on detention* (independent clause).

A compound sentence has two independent clauses joined by a conjunction. The conjunction is *but*.

Four simple sentences.

Explain that a mix of simple, compound and complex sentences creates variety in a text.

Complex sentences can make a text more interesting for the reader..

Prepositional phrases

Prepositional phrases are used to enhance descriptive writing. They consist of a preposition followed by a noun, noun phrase or pronoun, as in:

after lunch *after a long journey* *after you*

A preposition is a word that begins an adverbial phrase or adjectival phrase (indicating, for example, time, place, manner, causality).

e.g. *in, on, after, before, by, under, over, of.*

English K–6 Syllabus, p.97.

Some common prepositions we can use are:

at	on	before	in	from	since
for	during	to	until	after	along
by	into	onto	off	out	above
over	under	below	across	down	around
beside	between	without	past	near	through

Sample learning to and learning about strategies

1. Develop a class list of prepositional phrases that students can use when editing. Include specific language features such as prepositions of time and place.
2. Explain to students that a preposition can be used to locate things in time, place or manner.

   Consider reading some familiar texts, such as *Rosie's Walk* by Pat Hutchins, where the prepositional phrases of place or time are clearly supported by illustrations. The prepositions or prepositional phrases such as:

   for a walk
   across the yard
   around the pond
   over the haycock
   past the mill
   through the fence
   in time for dinner

   could be listed as they are identified in the text.

   Consider jointly constructing a text innovation and then asking students to write their own innovation, where, for example, *Rosie's Walk* might become *Count Dracula's night out* or *The Lion's Escape*. See an example on page 141. The above underlined prepositional phrases could be used to prompt the students.
3. Jointly construct a wanted poster using prepositional phrases to enhance the description of the wanted character.

   Following joint construction ask students to work in pairs or independently to create their own wanted poster. Students can create their own character or use a character from a familiar text. See page 140 for an example.

4. Select sentences from a procedural text related to a planned unit of work.

   Ensure the students have field knowledge of the topic.

   Divide each sentence, separating the prepositional phrase or adverbial phrases from the rest of the clause. For example, sentences related to the topic *Making new glass from old* could be separated like this:

   Glass containers are left out | for collection

   on garbage days.

   Glass containers are taken | to a recycling centre.

   The glass is scooped | off the ground.

   Ask students, working in small groups, to identify the prepositional phrases or adverbial phrases.

   Assist students to take turns and reconstruct the sentences. Invite each group to read at least one sentence to check for accuracy.

   Discuss the importance of using prepositional phrases.

5. Construct Bingo cards, with each card consisting of sentences that have missing prepositions.

   Ensure the Bingo card each student receives is at the student's guided or independent reading level.

   Review the important steps when completing a cloze. See page 121 and adapt for the use of prepositional phrases.

   Give the students time to read their Bingo cards before starting the game so that they can work out the prepositions they might need.

   When a suitable preposition is called out, the students write the preposition on a small card and place it in the gap on their Bingo card. The first student to finish is encouraged to read out his or her sentences to check for appropriate meaning.

   Tomorrow we are going by
   train [1.] the city of
   Sydney to see a special
   concert [2.] the Opera
   House

   The Bingo cards could also be used by students for independent practice, with answer cards to check for accuracy.

6. Jointly edit a descriptive text containing repetitive or inappropriate use of prepositions. Encourage the students to justify their responses when making changes to the use of prepositions in the text.

   Examples of inappropriate use of prepositions, taken from students' writing samples in the *Year 3 and Year 5 Primary Writing Assessments*, include:

   We came back at school at 2:55.

   Next off our class teacher told us we were going to the Australian Water Fowl Marsh.

   They did not get to see all for them.

   Then we saw the sheep to get sheared.

   It looks like it's out of Mars.

   Students could examine these and suggest changes.

7. During modelled reading use a shared big book and cover the prepositional phrases with 'post-its'. Model the reading of the text and ask the students to join in and read along together to supply the covered words. Remove the 'post-it' to check the accuracy of the prepositional phrases supplied.

8. Enjoy a game where the teacher provides a starting sentence and invites students to work in pairs to write an event to follow, using a prepositional phrase to enhance description.

   The teacher repeats the starting sentence and the students in turn read what they have written. An example is:

   On the way to school I saw:

   a police car speeding down the road,

   a man walking his dog along the path,

   a cow sitting under a tree,

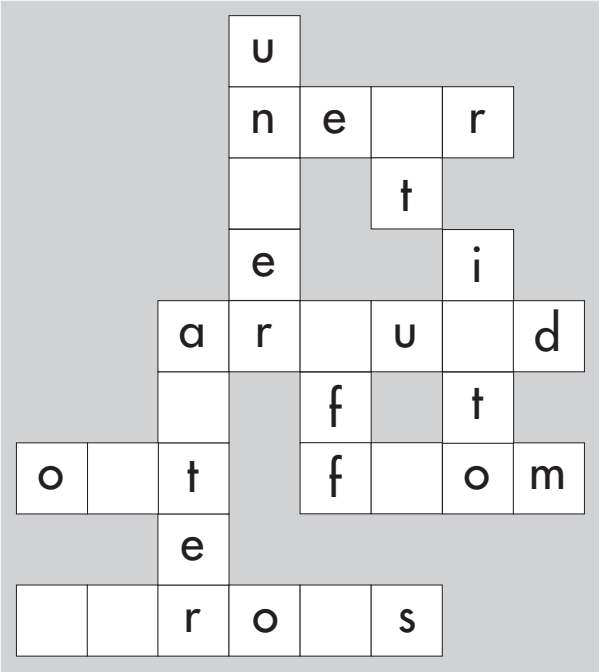
   a bird sitting on the telephone wire,

   etc. …

   This could also be used as a memory game where each event is recalled in sequence by a student before adding another.

9. Provide squared paper and ask students to work in pairs to construct a puzzle using only prepositions. Encourage students to give their puzzle to another pair of students to solve.

   Students can refer to a class list of prepositions if necessary.



Adapted from *Linking Primary Writing Assessment 2001 to the Curriculum*, pp. 24–27.

Using prepositional phrases to enhance description

Jointly construct a wanted poster using prepositional phrases to enhance the description of the wanted character. Following joint construction ask students to create their own wanted poster.

WANTED!

DESCRIPTION

Crime: .Dog. snatcher.....

.....

Name: .Henry. Pepperpot..... Age: 46.....

Appearance: When. last. seen. he. had. dark. bristly hair. on. his. head. rings. through. his. ears. a. chain. around his. neck. and. whiskers. under. his. chin. If. you. look. closely. you. will. notice. a. scar. across. his. forehead. and a. dimple. in. his. chin. ..... Henry. was. cycling. along. the. M4. at. sunset, with a. cycle. pack. on. his. back. and. a. chihuahua..... dog. in. his. carry. basket. .....

Please ring 123456 if you have any information.

REWARD!

$ 200

Adapted from *Choosing literacy strategies that work, Stage 2,* p. 213.

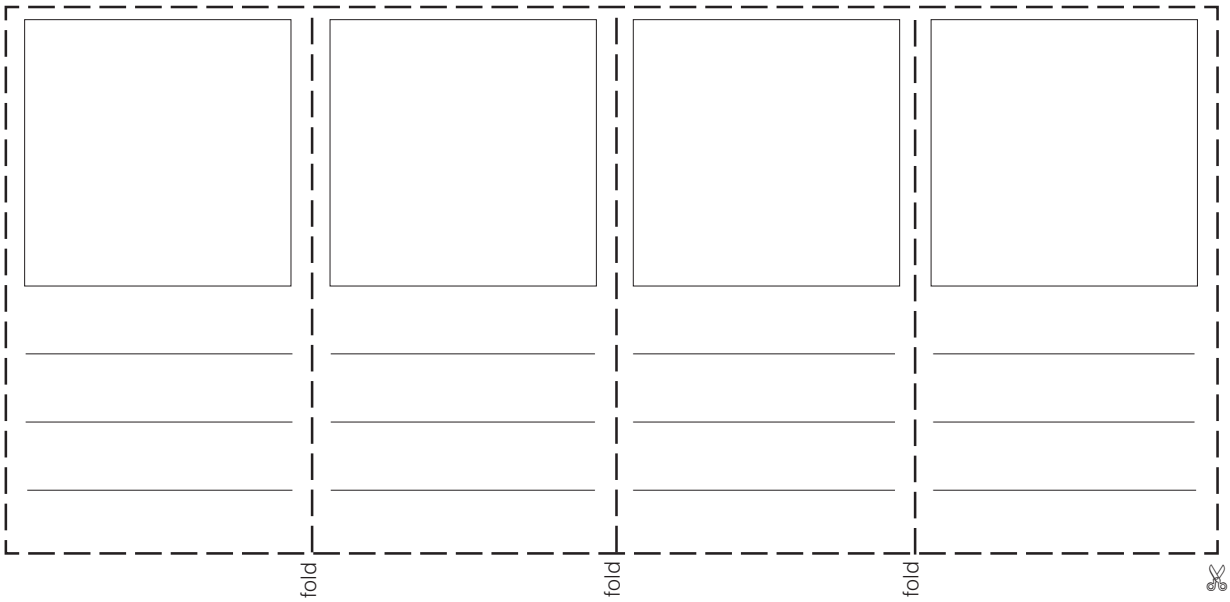
Use prepositional phrases to enhance descriptive writing, e.g.

a scar across the forehead; whiskers under his chin; rings through his ears; dark bristly hair on his head; a chain around his neck; a dimple in his chin; cycling along the M4 freeway; at sunset; with a cycle pack on his back; and a dog in his carry basket.

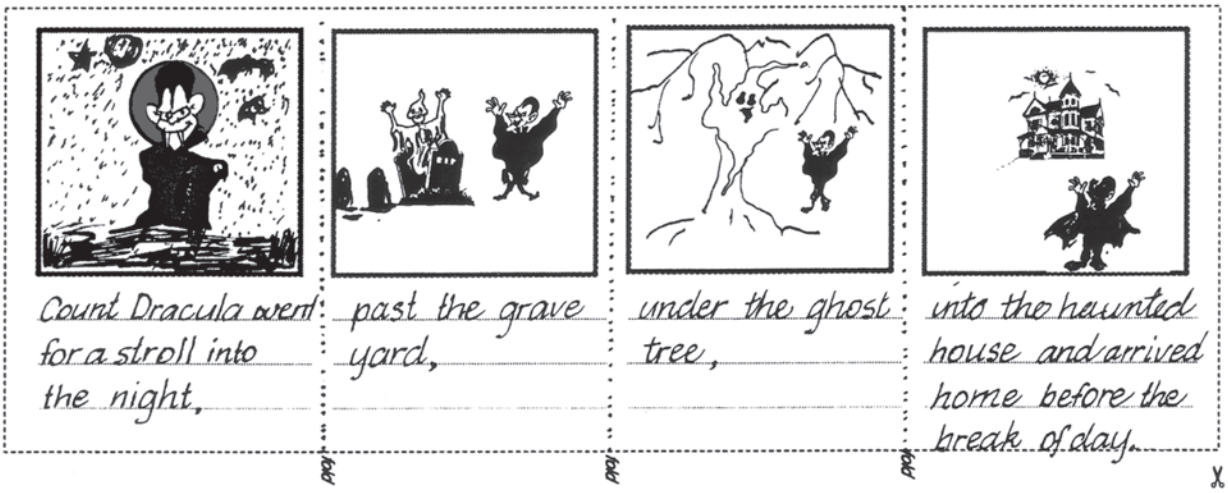
Using prepositional phrases in a text innovation

Consider jointly constructing a text innovation and then asking students to write their own innovation.

Students construct their own text innovation using prepositional phrases following a joint construction.



- Cut this strip of paper to make a folding book. Use both sides of the paper if needed.
- Decide on your character and draw your events in the correct order to construct a story.
- Write prepositional phrases to describe each event or location.
- Share your story with a friend or 'writing buddy'.



Punctuation

Punctuation is the practice or system of marking text to help readers' understanding. The most commonly used marks are full stop, comma, apostrophe, hyphen, colon, semi-colon and quotation marks or inverted commas.

Sample learning about and learning to strategies

1. During shared reading point out the punctuation marks and explain their purpose.

   Consider displaying a punctuation guide and refer to this when explaining the purpose. See an example on page 143. (This can be adapted to suit the specific needs of students.)

2. Read a text with all punctuation removed. Talk about the effect of removing punctuation from the text. Ask questions such as:

   Is the meaning clear?

   Does the text tell the reader where to pause as it is being read?

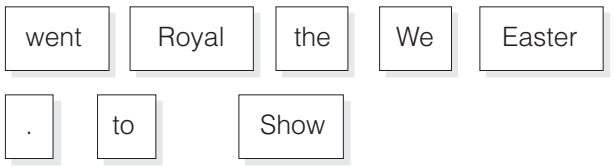
   Does the text help the reader to create the same meaning as the writer intended?

   Ask the students why it is important to have others read what we have written before publishing.

3. Provide a punctuation maze using text at the students' guided or independent instructional reading level. Ask students to work in pairs to identify the most appropriate punctuation mark and justify their choice. Students may use a punctuation guide as a prompt if necessary. For example,
   Anzac Day is observed on 25 April (, . !)

4. Select a suitable sentence from the students' text currently being used for guided or independent reading.

   Write the sentence on cover paper and cut up the sentence so that each word and each punctuation mark is on a separate card. For example,



   Ask students to sequence the cut up sentence.

   After sequencing invite students to read their sentence and justify the position of each card.

   Use this activity to focus on aspects of grammar as well as punctuation.

Punctuation guide

Have students monitor their use of correct punctuation, using a guide or checklist such as the one below.

capital letters	• begin a sentence • are used for the title of something, e.g. Lord of the Rings • are used for the names of special people and places, e.g. Rose, Count Dracula, Sydney, New South Wales • are used for the names of special things, e.g. Opera House, Murray River • begin days and months, e.g. Tuesday, May • are used for initials used in place of a full name, e.g. NSW; J. Smith; P.O. • are used for all the letters in an acronym, where the initials of the words are easily pronounced as a word, e.g. POWER – Prepare, Organise, Write, Edit, Rewrite (used to teach the writing process).
. full stops	• indicate the end of a sentence.
, commas	• separate items in a list • indicate a short pause in a sentence • are always used after *said* when using direct speech.
? question marks	• indicate the end of a question.
‘ apostrophes	• show that a letter or letters have been left out of a word, e.g. *has not* becomes *hasn’t* • show ownership, e.g. Tom’s bike (usual singular form) e.g. birds’ wings (usual plural form).
! exclamation marks	• indicate the end of a command or order • are used at the end of a sentence or exclamation to express such feelings as surprise, amazement and anger, or to deliver a warning or shouted call.
quotation marks	• are used to show direct or quoted speech in writing
(“…”)	• are used to indicate titles of poems, songs, short stories or articles
(‘…’)	• can draw attention to an unusual or particular sense or usage of a word.

Adapted from *Choosing literacy strategies that work, Stage 2*, p. 267

5. Determine the English K–6 Syllabus outcomes the students will be working towards.

   Decide on the type of text the students will be constructing and prepare a checklist to prompt students when they edit for punctuation. For example, if the students are working towards the English K–6 Syllabus outcomes WS2.14, WS2.10, and constructing a narrative, the checklist for editing punctuation could include one or more from the following:

A PUNCTUATION CHECKLIST FOR MY NARRATIVE

- ☐ I have read my text for intended meaning with special attention to my use of commas.
- ☐ I have checked my capital letters and full stops.
- ☐ I have used apostrophes for contractions (where letters have been left out).
- ☐ I have used apostrophes to show ownership.
- ☐ I have used speech marks when my characters have been talking directly.
- ☐ I have used exclamation marks to express such feelings as surprise, amazement and anger.

If the students are constructing a procedure, the focus for correct punctuation could be on the use of commas to separate a list of things needed, as well as the punctuation to write commands, as below.

TO FIND THINGS THAT DISSOLVE IN WATER

Materials

You will need essence, jelly crystals, sand, salt, water, cups and a drink bottle.

Method

1. One at a time, put some of each material in a cup.
2. Add a cup of water.
3. Watch carefully what happens.

Adapted from *English K–6 Modules*, p. 127.

A recount may provide an opportunity to focus on the correct use of capital letters to name special people, special places, special things and days of the week.

Last Sunday, David, Joe and Uncle Harry caught a ferry at Circular Quay to go to Taronga Park Zoo.

6. Examine a shared text to show students how quotation marks are used with direct speech. Discuss their function.

   Have students participate by inviting them to take the role of a character to identify and read any direct speech spoken by that character as it occurs when the teacher is reading the text.

   Display unpunctuated text with direct speech and model for students the use of the punctuation marks.

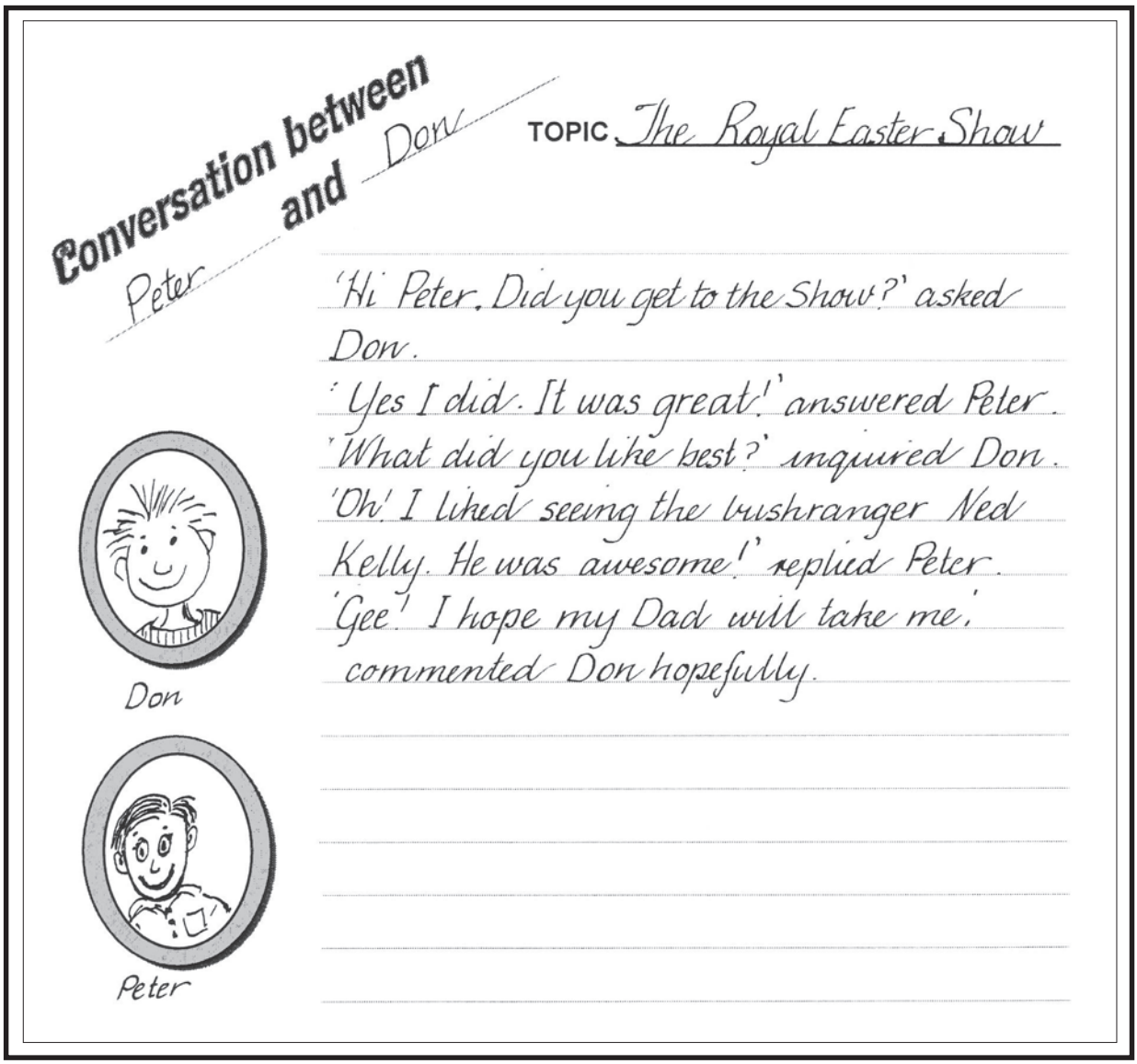
7. Provide opportunities for students to experiment with dialogue by asking them to work in pairs to create a scenario which requires only two people.

   Refer to page 146 for an example with suggestions for planning the dialogue.

Writing dialogue

Examine a text to see how quotation marks are used. Discuss their function. Encourage students to experiment with dialogue.

- Work with coloured pens.
- Each student creates a line or two lines of dialogue.
- This is followed by a reply.



Planning the activity

- Who will be the two characters?
- What will be their topic?
- What will the characters be saying to each other?
- How will we edit our work and use quotation marks correctly?
- What words will we use to replace *said*? Consider *asked*, *answered*, *questioned*, *replied*, *commented*, *pleaded*, *exclaimed*, *complained*, *whispered*, *shouted*, *inquired*…

Adapted from *Choosing literacy strategies that work, Stage 2*, p. 265

1. Explore the use of the apostrophe to indicate ownership.

   Encourage students to correctly identify the possessive form:
   Jack's hat = the hat belonging to Jack
   the man's hat = the hat belonging to the man
   the men's hats = the hats belonging to the men

   Ensure that students understand the difference between expressions such as:
   my parent's car = the car of my parent (there is only one parent)
   my parents' car = the car of my parents (where the parents share the car)
   my son's car = the car of my son
   my sons' car = the car of my sons (where the sons share the car)

   Give students practice in using the regular possessive forms, encouraging them to check their answers against a chart, such as the one on the next page.

   Explore some of the more common problem constructions that students encounter in using the apostrophe of possession:

   - when the 'possessor' is already plural, it takes **'s**
     men's hats *children's clothes*
   - singular words ending in s usually take **'s**
     the boss's office *the actress's dressing room*
   - possessive pronouns – *yours*, *his hers*, *ours*, *theirs*, *its* – are not written with an apostrophe
     This book is mine; hers is one the floor.
   - confusion between the contraction *it's (= it is)* and the pronoun *its (The cat licked its whiskers.)*
   - use of the apostrophe with any nouns that end in s even if they are not possessive:
     I have many book's in my room.
     He works at David Jone's.

2. Make a chart that shows the apostrophes for contractions. Encourage students to refer to this when they are writing. See an example on the next page.

Common contractions

I have	*I've*	*they have*	*they've*
they had	*they'd*	*you are*	*you're*
she is	*she's*	*he is*	*he's*
where is	*where's*	*I will*	*I'll*
she will	*she'll*	*who will*	*who'll*
they will	*they'll*	*is not*	*isn't*
do not	*don't*	*should not*	*shouldn't*
we have	*we've*	*you have*	*you've*
they are	*they're*	*we are*	*we're*
what is	*what's*	*it is*	*it's*
let us	*let's*	*he will*	*he'll*
we will	*we'll*	*you will*	*you'll*

A common error students make is that *would have/could have* is often written as *would of/could of* instead of *would've/could've*. Support the students by displaying this chart which shows how auxiliary or helper verbs work in English.

Auxiliary of helper verbs

<u>To be</u>				
I	was	am	will be	…also would be,
You	were	are	will be	should be
He, she, it	was	is	will be	
We	were	are	will be	
You (plural)	were	are	will be	
They	were	are	will be	…also been, being
<u>To have</u>				
I	had	have	will have	…also would have,
You	had	have	will have	should have
He, she, it	had	has	will have	
We	had	have	will have	
You (plural)	had	have	will have	
They	had	have	will have	…also having

Show examples of the correct use of the apostrophe to indicate possession, e.g.

Correct use of the apostrophe to show ownership or possession

- Add 's to the singular form of the word (even if it already ends in <u>s</u>)
  the bicycle's bell
  the girl's ponytails
  the class's display
  James's hat
- Add ' to plural words that already end in <u>s</u>
  the bicycles' bells
  the girls' ponytails
  my parents' car
- Add 's to plural words that do not end in <u>s</u>
  the children's game
  the mice's nests

  Note: Some words – such as *sheep, fish, deer* – are the same for singular and plural.
- Remember: it's = it is (*It's mine.*)
  its = ownership (*The dog wagged its tail.*)

Conspicuous strategy instruction

Purpose

The purpose of this strategy is to clarify for students some specific steps for successfully using the big ideas in writing, such as the steps in the writing process or text structures.

Description

Conspicuous strategy instruction has been used with promising results to teach all phases of the writing process: planning (Harris & Graham, 1985), text structure (Englert et al., 1991; Graham & Harris, 1989a) and revising (MacArthur, Schwartz & Graham, 1991). The best strategies appear to be those that are not too general and not too narrow. For example, *Think before you write* is a general strategy and a good idea but it is too general to be of much practical value for many learners. On the other hand, a strategy that is too narrow may have little potential for transference.

Some examples of 'conspicuous strategies'

Context: The student is puzzling over the following sentence while attempting to edit and revise a draft:

All of we young people seem to like ice cream.

Is it, the student wonders, *we* or *us* young people? In terms of grammar, for some students, this can be difficult to explain. Yet the problem can be attacked with little effort and complexity, and with relatively high potential for transference. The strategy is to deconstruct or simplify the sentence in question, and then examine the results:

All young people seem to like ice cream.

All of we/us seem to like ice cream.

A native speaker of English who does not have a severe language disorder will instantly recognise *us* as the correct choice in the simpler sentence and realise that it is therefore the choice in the original sentence.

The same general strategy can be applied to far different instances such as:

Pronoun case

John gave Mary and I/me a new book.

Consider:

John gave Mary a new book.

John gave I/me a new book.

Subject–verb agreement

Original sentence:
None of the boys was/were on time

First simplification:
Not one of the boys was/were on time.

Second simplification:
Not one was on time.

Designing conspicuous strategies is challenging. Whenever possible, promising strategies should be field-tested with students.

A primary characteristic of conspicuous strategy instruction is scaffolding and guided practice in various forms. (Pressley et al., 1992; Pressley et al., 1989).

The diagram on the next page demonstrates levels of scaffolding for a sentence-manipulation strategy. There are two aspects of such scaffolding:

1. It is provided on an 'as needed' basis and is gradually diminished over time.
2. It includes not only strategies for accomplishing writing goals but provides for self-regulation; that is, students are taught to regulate their own thinking about the use of composing strategies.

Conspicuous strategy – choosing the correct pronoun form

Level 1: Interactive model/heavy scaffold

Sometimes it is difficult to know when to use words such as *I* and *me* or *she* and *her*. You can usually figure out the right word to use by breaking the sentence into two simpler sentences.

Circle the correct choice in the second simpler sentence. That is the correct choice in the longer sentence.

1. Longer sentence: *The doctor gave Elicia and I/(me) a flu shot.*
   Simpler sentences:
   The doctor gave Elicia a flu shot
   The doctor gave I/(me) a flu shot.

Two simpler sentences are provided

Level 2: Relatively heavy scaffolding

You can usually figure out what word to use by breaking a sentence into two simpler sentences.

For each sentence, one simpler sentence is given for you. First, write the other simple sentence. Then circle the right word in the longer sentence.

1. Longer sentence: (She)/Her and John lived next door to us for four years.
   John lived next door for four years.
   She lived next door for four years.

Student writes one simpler sentence

Level 3: Minor prompting for scaffold

For each sentence, write the two simpler sentences. Then circle the right word in the longer sentence.

1. Before going on our camping trip, Melinda and (I)/me prepared all our supplies.
   Melinda prepared all our supplies.
   I prepared all our supplies.

Student required to write both simpler sentences

Level 4: Only a reminder as a scaffold

Circle the correct word in each sentence. Remember, the word that's right in the simpler sentence is also right in the longer sentence.

1. After the team members left, (they)/them and some other friends went out for burgers.

Only a reminder to think of the strategy

Level 5: Independent – no scaffolding

Circle the correct word in each sentence.

1. *The movie started before Jacques and (I)/me arrived.*

No reminder to use the strategy

Section 6

Spelling

Developing spelling skills

In learning to spell, students progress along a developmental pathway until they can successfully integrate the four forms of spelling knowledge: phonological, visual, morphemic and etymological.

Students who need additional support in spelling should be provided with a program that recognises their current developmental level and builds an understanding of word patterns based on each of the four forms of spelling knowledge.

Systematic teaching of spelling will involve initial teacher modelling of strategies, followed by guided and then independent practice. The teacher's role is to organise the examination of words in such a way that students understand how particular spelling features and patterns operate (Templeton & Morris, 1999).

An explicit and systematic spelling program should:

- focus on teaching appropriate words related to:
  - the students' current levels of performance
  - the class program and student needs
- explicitly teach spelling patterns
- teach in small chunks
- provide opportunity for sufficient practice and feedback
- ensure maintenance of previously learned words
- provide for generalisation of newly acquired spelling skills
- emphasise the importance of correct spelling
- include dictionary skills
- be integrated across all Key Learning Areas.

Developing a teaching plan for spelling

Assessment

Gather and interpret the students' current spelling achievements. For example:

- select and analyse samples of the students' writing to determine which types of spelling knowledge are being applied and what needs to be taught (see pages 156, 157)
- analyse results for spelling in the Basic Skills Test if information is available
- examine performance on specifically designed tests
- use students' self-assessment
- consider the students' responses to a spelling questionnaire (see page 158)
- observe spelling behaviours in modelled, guided and independent reading and writing sessions.

The spelling program

- Using the assessment information gathered, establish priorities for spelling instruction and determine the *English K-6 Syllabus* outcomes to be achieved. (Refer to page 157 for one approach to recording a student's spelling achievements using the scope and sequence of the *English K-6 Syllabus*.)
- In the context of talking, listening, reading and writing decide how you will explicitly teach the phonological, visual, morphemic and etymological knowledge that the students will need to know, relevant to their stage of development (see pages 174–176).
- Refer to *Teaching spelling K-6* for additional strategies.

Teaching spelling – some considerations

- Encourage students to take an active role in the selection of spelling words, particularly by tracking words misspelt during written language activities. Help students to prioritise the words they will need to learn. Teach in the context of modelled, guided and independent writing. Teach in small units. For example, teach three words a day rather than four or five, or fifteen at the beginning of the week.

  Give students opportunities to practise the words each day with feedback. Teach a range of strategies that students can use independently for self-correction and practice (see pages 161–164). Consider training peer tutors or 'spelling buddies' to support students (see pages 165–170 for examples of activities and strategies that may be suitable).
- Consider how students will get additional support and explicit teaching to gain the knowledge, skill and strategies needed in order to become effective spellers. For example, the guided writing session provides the most significant opportunity for classroom teachers to work with students experiencing difficulties, assisted by the support personnel, if available.

- Decide how a student's progress will be monitored regularly to determine the effectiveness of the teaching and learning experiences and intervene early when a student is not making the progress expected. (See pages 159–160 for examples of monitoring.)
- Use the language of instruction. The dialogue between the teacher and the students is considered to be critical to students' success in spelling. Students and teachers need to have a common language to use when reflecting on and discussing understandings about spelling.
- Maintain previously learned words. Maintenance of spelling words requires previously learned words to be frequently reviewed and interspersed with the learning of new words.
- Teach for transfer of learning. (See page 160 for examples of monitoring transfer of learning in a range of contexts.)
- Motivate students to spell correctly. Praise particularly improved performance and good effort. Use games and other fun activities. Select meaningful words and provide examples of their use and the need for correct spelling.
- Include dictionary training and explicit teaching about the use of other authoritative sources for identifying correct spellings and locating the correct definition of words when several are provided.

  Consider how the room print will support the identification of correct spellings. For example, a 'word wall' of high frequency words with cards to match; data banks of sounds and letter combinations; word webs constructed around a morpheme or a root word, showing word origin; a glossary of topic words related to a planned unit of work; alphabet tins. (See pages 171–173.)
- Enable parents or caregivers to help. Develop common understandings about how spelling is taught and what is expected of students to ensure there is consistency between home and school. Assist the parents or caregivers to help with aspects of spelling knowledge about which they feel confident.
- Plan for systematic school-wide tracking of students who may require significant and continual intervention to improve.

Strategies to assess student achievement and needs

The following is a sample of words misspelt. These were taken from the student's journal writing, first writing drafts and other specifically designed tests.

Student: ..... Year : 4 Date: .....

Standard spelling	Student's attempt	Standard spelling	Student's attempt
said	sebe	some	sume
after	ufter	because	beekos
were	woor	about	ubat
they	thay	didn't	dint
would	wob	fight	fite
caught	coot	when	wen
person	poosen	float	flot
people	peper	going	gooing
flower	fooer	through	froow
dirt	bert	pain	pane
spring	sprin	three	thee
have	hav	cream	creem
which	wich	tray	tra
small	snal	photograph	fotoguf

Different ways to encourage students to apply the four forms of spelling knowledge.

Develop visual memory techniques to learn the spelling of many high frequency words. Look for little words in a word, e.g. the *hen* in *when* … the *the* in *they* ….
Use analogy, e.g. *would, could, should…, night, fight, bright…, come, some….*

Use mnemonics for spelling irregular or difficult words, e.g. 'piece of pie'.

Spell words using consonant blends and other letter combinations that have been introduced as a component of the reading program.

Type and pattern of student's misspellings

Consider a strategy for preventing *b/d* reversals.

Focus on the writing of contractions by considering meaning and context and the missing letters indicated by the apostophe (').

Focus on meaning and context and know the differences in spelling when writing hononyms, e.g. *pain, pane.*

Become familiar with the various ways of representing a particular sound in writing and build word families, e.g *tray, train, pane.*

Greek root *photo*, meaning *light*, *ph* makes the sound *f.*

What are some of the student's spelling achievements?

(See page 157 *Scope and Sequence of Phonological and Graphological Skills.*)

Identifying student skills

What are some of the student's spelling achievements?

Student:..... Date:.....

SCOPE AND SEQUENCE OF PHONOLOGICAL AND GRAPHOLOGICAL SKILLS *(English K-6 Syllabus Pages 76-83)*

	EARLY STAGE 1	STAGE 1	STAGE 2	STAGE 3
Spelling	☑ writes own name using correct spelling ☑ copies the sequence of letters from models of high-frequency, topic and personal words ☑ writes high-frequency words independently (eg is, I, am, the) ☑ says and sounds while writing the first sound in a word ☑ says and writes letters for some of the sounds in a word beyond the initial sound, identifying the sounds through stretching the words (initially with teacher support) - student may use letter names for sounds. ☑ Spells unknown words phonetically (as they sound), with most of the letters in the correct sequence	☑ writes cv, vc and cvc words that contain known letter-sound relationships ■ chooses phonetically appropriate letters to represent most of the sounds in unknown words (student may have difficulty with consonant blends) ■ uses rime analogy to spell new words (eg mop, hop) ■ uses knowledge of familiar letter patterns to spell new words, eg -ed, -ing ■ spells words using consonant blends, digraphs and long vowel sounds that have been introduced as a component of the reading program ■ starts to use self-correction strategies such as visual and auditory strategies (eg sounding out, sight words) to spell unknown words in own writing	■ uses an increasing bank of known spelling words written automatically ■ uses known letter patterns and sound sequences, not just individual letters, when spelling unknown words ■ classifies words into groups according to the way in which they are spelt (eg thought, bought, ought) ■ becomes familiar with the various way of representing a particular sound in writing (eg meat, meet, metre) ☐ hypothesises about and learns spelling generalisations (eg i before e except after c; y to i rule for plurals; doubling consonants etc) ■ uses known word parts when spelling unknown words (eg prefixes, suffixes, compound words) ☐ considers meaning and context when spelling words (eg when differentiating between homonyms such as their/ there/ they're) ■ correctly represents consonant blends when spelling unknown words ☐ uses common consonant and vowel digraphs in attempting unknown words ■ uses mnemonics for spelling irregular or difficult words (eg 'piece of pie') ☐ increasingly uses visual and phonetic self-correction strategies in editing own work (words that do not look or sound right) ☐ becomes familiar with various spelling resources, eg spell check, dictionary	(By Stage 3, students should be able to accurately and automatically spell words that are regularly used in the classroom. They should be able to use a wide range of strategies for spelling unknown words and for learning commonly misspelt words.) ☐ uses competent visual and phonological strategies for attempting and checking spelling (does it look and sound right?) ☐ uses known word meanings and base words when spelling unknown words (eg heal, healthy; sign, signature) ☐ develops knowledge of word origins, eg Greek and Latin roots (telephone, aquarium) ☐ consolidates and extends proofreading skills and takes responsibility for editing own work ☐ develops a knowledge of less common letter patterns and spelling generalisation/rules and applies them to new situations ☐ takes responsibility for maintaining a personal spelling notebook ☐ competently uses various spelling resources, eg spell check, dictionary

☐ not yet ■ developing ☑ achieved

Spelling skills assessment: student questionnaire

The following is an example of a spelling questionnaire that could be adapted and used by the teacher with individual students to inform programming.

Possible prompts

- ☐ Stretch out the word and write the letter combinations for the sounds?
- ☐ Think of a word that sounds the same?
- ☐ Use a Have-a-go sheet or write out the word a few times and pick out the one that looks right?
- ☐ Ask someone?
- ☐ Look for the correct spelling? e.g. use room print, personal dictionary, spellchecker…
- ☐ Think of another word to use?

Possible prompts

- ☐ Use look, write, cover, check?
- ☐ Think of other words that look the same? e.g. *night, light*
- ☐ Think of a way of remembering the tricky part? e.g. *piece of pie*, make up a ditty (mnemonic), think of a rule?
- ☐ Write the word many times? Spell the word aloud to someone?
- ☐ Stretch out the word and write the letter combinations for the sounds?
- ☐ Use known word parts, e.g. prefixes, suffixes, compound words, and the rules about adding them?
- ☐ Think about where the word might come from, e.g. *phone* (Greek) meaning sound, *telephone*.

Spelling questionnaire

- What do you do when you are writing and come to a word that you don't know how to spell?

  .....

  .....

- Name someone who is a good speller. Why do you think this?

  .....

  .....

- How do you learn to spell a new word?

  .....

  .....

- How do you go about proofreading your own writing?

  .....

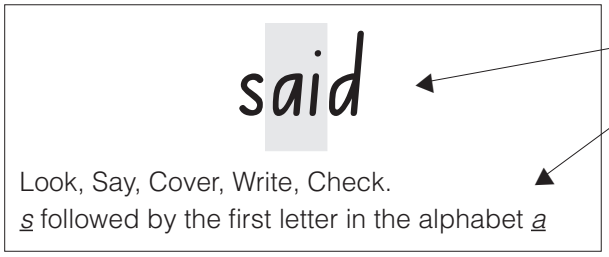
  .....

Possible prompts

- ☐ Read for meaning? Ask *Does it make sense?*
- ☐ Track with a pointer following each word as it is read?
- ☐ Re-read for words misspelt?
- ☐ Underline words for checking?
- ☐ Ask *Does it look right?*
- ☐ Check the letters for all the sounds/syllables that can be heard?
- ☐ Consider if the word might belong to a word family?
- ☐ Consider the origin of the word?
- ☐ Check for the correct spelling?

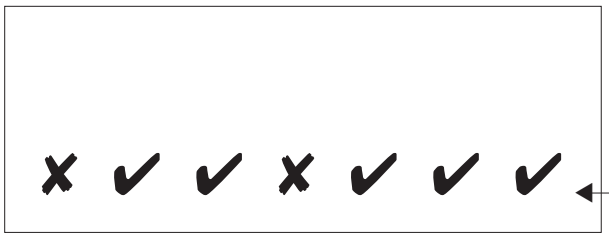
Monitoring students' spelling progress

■ ***Monitoring on a personalised spelling card***



Word with tricky part highlighted.

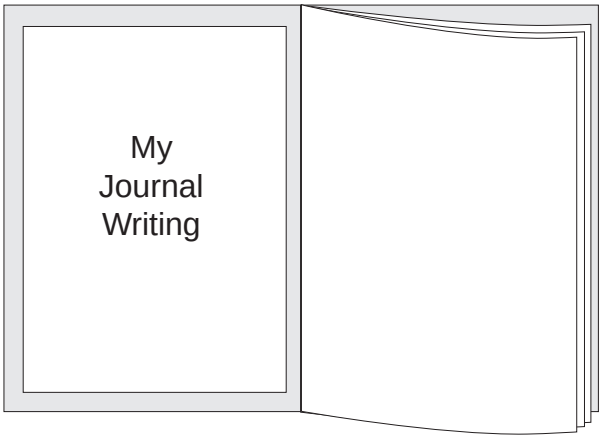
Knowledge and strategy for teaching the spelling of the word. The student is challenged to identify and write which type of knowledge and strategy would be most useful when learning to spell the word accurately: phonological, visual, morphemic or etymological.



Back of the card is used for monitoring progress.

■ ***Monitoring for transfer of learning***

For example, journal writing where the student may engage in quiet, sustained writing (ten minutes a day) recording thoughts, reflections and ideas.



In this context the student's automatic response to the spelling of many high frequency words, previously misspelt and then taught, can be monitored for transfer of learning (generalisation). The student needs to understand the link between the skill of spelling words correctly and its use in writing.

■ ***The student monitors his own progress by colouring the grid***

Previously learned words continue to be monitored while new words are introduced.

Monitoring sheet

Student: Richard Class: Year 4 Beginning date: 30.6.06

Syllabus outcome: WS2.11 Uses knowledge of letter-sound correspondences, common letter patterns and a range of strategies to spell familiar and unfamiliar words.

Indicator of achievement: The student will spell with accuracy for three consecutive days high frequency words misspelt from his journal writing.

Date:

	30/6/06	1/7/06	2/7/06	3/7/06	4/7/06	5/7/06	6/7/06	7/7/06		
going										
would								✗		
because								✗		
said							✗			
they				✗						
some				✗						
after	✗		✗							
were	✗						✗			
when	✗									

Combine graphing with goal setting. Squared paper can be used by students to draw simple graphs.

■ ***Selecting samples of the student's work linked to syllabus outcomes***

This can provide evidence for judgements of student achievement in a range of contexts. These samples can be included in the student's portfolio.

English : Independent writing

TASK: Below is a sample of your child's writing. The children were asked to write a recount of an excursion to a farm for the school newsletter. Photographs were shown to give them ideas. They were reminded to begin their recount with an introduction, include details about what they saw, write in sentences and use paragraphs to organise their writing. They were also asked to pay attention to spelling and punctuation.

Date: .12.11.2005 **Name:** Samuel

Draft copy:

On Monday year3 went to a farm. They saw pigs and more. When they got there they had some food. Two moruthes came Mrs Ellis and mrs crib. They were in gropes. they did not get to see all to them. They were having a look at the sheep. It is time to go hop on the bus.

Samuel's recount writing has improved this term. The above sample shows his writing is consistent with the task. Samuel began his recount with an introduction, nearly all his sentences are correct and many of his high frequency words and spelling patterns are also correct. We will work together on a plan to encourage Samuel to use paragraphs to better organise his writing.

☆ ☆ ✓

Evidence of the student transferring the skill of spelling to writing. Many of the high frequency words and spelling patterns taught are correct in this context.

Student: *Date:*

Text : Carrot cake on Friday

Punctuate:

we came to see you said Wombat

oh said Rabbit I m cleaning the house

Choose the best word to fill the gap

They walked together _____ *threw through* the bush. After a while, they _____ *met meet meat* Possum and Koala.

Wombat licked the Vegemite _____ *of for off* his whiskers and went home _____ *too two to* make himself _____ hot buttered *sum some* toast.

Colour each place where there is a mistake

After Wombat had mad his bed, he set of through the boosh. Befor long he met Bandicoot.
"Hello, Wombat," said Bandicoot.
"Were are you off to?"

The student's text used for guided reading provides a punctuation, cloze and proofreading activity for the student to complete independently. The student checks for accuracy by referring to the original text.

Independent strategies for self-correction and practice

Helpful hint:
Before providing students with examples of independent strategies for self-correction and practice, it is important for the teacher to understand the steps in teaching students the use of these learning strategies.

Seven important steps for teaching students the use of learning strategies

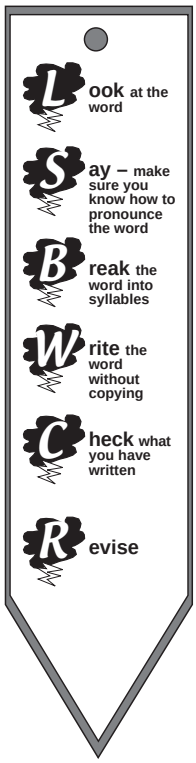
1. The purpose of the strategy needs to be explained; for example, to improve your learning and memory of spelling words.
2. The strategy should be modelled, including thinking aloud to explain each strategy step.
3. The importance of effort combined with strategy use should be stressed.
4. Students should be required to practise naming the strategy steps until automaticity is reached.
5. The teacher should observe students as they use the strategy, providing relevant feedback, as needed.
6. The teacher should instruct students to monitor their strategy use, using checkmarks and a list of steps, if needed.
7. The teacher should emphasise the usefulness of the strategy not only in the classroom but also in other appropriate settings (for example, at home, after school care) to facilitate generalisation.

Fulk & Stormont-Spurgin (1995)

Look, Say, Cover, Write, Check – a strategy to support visual knowledge

Westwood (1994) describes two variations of the Look, Say, Cover , Write, Check method.

Variation 1



Variation 2

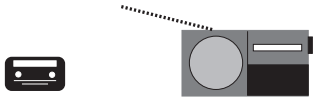
Taped spelling

Select words for review and write them on the activity sheet for practice. The student studies the words, folds them over or covers them so they can't be seen, then listens to the words on tape, writing each word as it is said. The student then checks to see if the words are spelt accurately, circles any incorrect letters for practice and colours the progress chart.

Spelling review

Text: *Student's journal writing (high frequency words misspelt)*

Use the tape.



Read the words and fold them over so you can't see them. Now listen to the tape and write each word. Check the list for accurate spelling. Colour your progress chart.

when				
were				
after				
some	fold	fold	fold	fold
they				
said				
because				
would				
going				

Error correction

Students need to consciously detect and self-correct their spelling errors (Gerber, 1986).

Students first compare their spelling to a model. Accurate spellings are marked accordingly, followed by self-praise (e.g. 'Good on me!')

Misspellings are corrected through the following three steps:

1. The incorrect letters of the word are crossed out, circled or boxed.
2. The correct letters are written in above the incorrect ones.
3. A correct spelling is written again on the line next to the incorrect version.

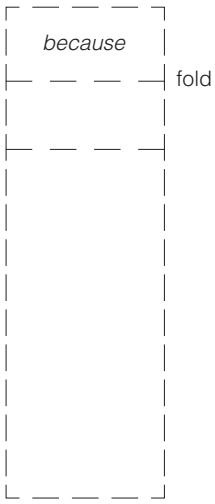
Self-correction procedures, once established, actively involve students in their learning.

Practising that tricky word

Cut strips of paper.

Mnemonic:

Big **E**mus **C**an't **A**dd **U**p **S**ums **E**asily



Look
Say
Cover (fold the paper over)
Write
Check (unfold the paper)

Activities related to a text used for guided and independent reading

Base words

Select a base word to which prefixes and suffixes can be added; for example, *cover*. Students use a list of prefixes and suffixes and the dictionary to generate as many words as possible; for example, *covered, uncover, recover*.

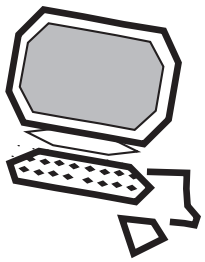
Make jigsaws

Choose words from the students' reading text that can be divided into meaning or syllabic units. Cut to form a word jigsaw. Students can assemble jumbled sections to form a word. This is a self-correcting activity.

Variation:

Choose words from the text but don't cut as a jigsaw and have students make as many words as possible using the base word and the suffixes. They can word search in the text for clues and write the words made.

Computer assisted instruction



Using word processing programs

The student practises typing the words programmed for accurate spelling from a list, enlarging and changing the font to visualise the correct spelling as a means of assisting visual memory.

Computer software programs for spelling improvement

These programs often incorporate procedures which emphasise awareness of word structure and spelling strategies. Some programs also present individualised spelling lists, imitation and modelling feedback, and a performance summary.

Computer assisted instruction has been shown to be effective in motivating and improving the spelling skills of students who need additional support.

Using meaning and visual, phonological and morphemic knowledge to correct spelling

The student uses meaning and visual, phonological and morphemic knowledge to correct the spelling of these words. The student then checks the changes made for accuracy by going to the original text. Levels of prompting need to be considered. For example, a lower level of prompting may require the student to find and circle seven misspelt words, have a go at writing the correct spelling above each word, and then check with the original text.

Text: Crocodile Creek (Zapper)
Written by Wendy Macdonald

Cross out the incorrect letters. Write the correct spelling above the word.

something
Somethink that looked like a log was
calf
drifting towards the carf and, as dad spoke,
great
a grate ugly head surged out of the water
bank
and the crocodile rushed up the dank and
seized
seezed the calf by the nose.
out
The calf let owt a terrified bellow.
disappeared
The calf and the crocodile dissappeared from
view.

Spelling with a peer tutor or 'spelling buddy'

Peer tutoring is a practice technique that has been shown to improve spelling skills in a mainstream spelling class (Greenwood, Delquadri & Maheady, 2002). A trained peer tutor or 'spelling buddy' who is a competent speller can be a viable alternative when the student needs more practice *following modelled or guided spelling by the teacher*. To increase effectiveness, the peer tutor or 'spelling buddy' should be trained to implement the spelling approach most suitable for the student who needs further practice. This includes knowing how to respond appropriately to correct and incorrect responses.

The following activities and strategies may be used with a trained tutor or 'spelling buddy' depending on the demands of the task.

■ ***Computer assisted instruction***

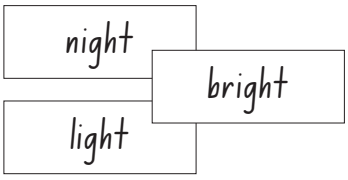
Use spellchecker software with a brief text created by the student. The peer tutor can then assist in:

(a) identifying words which are possible errors
(b) locating and using the spellchecker function
(c) discussing the fact that it offers other possible spellings and does not spell the word for you
(d) discussing types of errors which are not fixed or recognised by a spellchecker, such as errors in choice of homonym (their / there; hear / here).

The peer tutor or 'spelling buddy' may also monitor the student's use of other software programs that are beneficial for providing additional guided spelling practice.

■ ***Word sorts***

Closed word sorts are those where the tutor determines the type of spelling knowledge that will be used; with *open word sorts* the student determines how they will be sorted.



Sort words according to:

- word families
- common morpheme
- etymology
- type of knowledge that may best assist the teaching for spelling accuracy, e.g. phonological, visual.

The cards could also be used to play *Happy Families.*

■ ***Constructing rhyming lists***

See page 173

ake

✓✓ ✓ ✓

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

bake cake fake lake

Remember:

Digraphs and blends

e.g. <u>sh</u>ake

<u>sn</u>ake

■ ***Using personalised spelling cards and monitoring the student's progress***

See page 159

said

Look, Say, Cover, Write, Check.
<u>s</u> followed by the first letter in the alphabet <u>a</u>

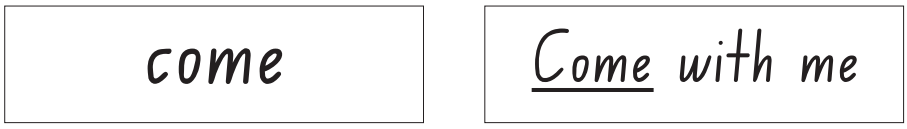
✗✓✓✗✓✓✓

■ *The constant time delay procedure*

The time delay is a method designed to reduce error in instruction and has been effective with students with additional learning needs. The procedure can be applied this way:

- The verbal cue, 'spell_____ (target word),' is immediately followed with a printed model of the target word to be copied by the student.
- After several trials in which there is no time delay between asking a student to spell the word and providing a model of the word, a five-second delay is introduced. This allows the student to write the word, or part of the word, but does not require the student to wait very long if unable to write the word correctly.
- The amount of time between the request to spell the word and the presentation of the model can be increased after several more trials.

The time delay procedure is easy to implement. It is fun for the student because it provides for nearly errorless instruction. The personalised spelling cards as shown on page 159 could be useful for this purpose or larger cards with good visual feedback of the target word and a sentence constructed by the student on the back, see the example below.



■ *Using authoritative sources: dictionary training*

(Helping the student who is experiencing difficulties locating words in the dictionary when the correct spelling is provided.)

If the student is still having difficulty knowing the order of letters in the alphabet, the following activity sheet could provide a prompt when searching for word meanings.

Name: ..... Class: ..... Date: .....

Dictionary skills

Text: .....

Say the alphabet.

Alphabetical order

Aa	Bb	Cc	Dd	Ee	Ff	Gg
Hh	Ii	Jj	Kk	Ll	Mm	Nn
Oo	Pp	Qq	Rr	Ss	Tt	Uu
Vv	Ww	Xx	Yy	Zz		

Write these letters in alphabetical order

1. c b a	2. e f d	3. i g h .....
4. l j k	5. n o m	6. q p r .....
8. t u s	9. w v x	10. z y .....

Write these words in alphabetical order

1.	2.	3.
4.	5.	6.

Look them up in the dictionary and check them with your partner.

■ ***Letter tiles***

Use letter tiles to demonstrate the way in which letter sounds can be exchanged to make new words. This may focus on particular blends and the building of word families.

Prepare tutor cards that give the student explicit instructions.

For example:

Tutor card

The student will need paper and pencil and the letter tiles:

a, *e*, *m*, *s*, *n*, *d*, *c*, *k*

- Make *mend* with your letters.
- Take away *m*.
- Put an *s* in its place.
  What is the new word?
  Write the new word.

send

- Take away the *e*.
- Put an *a* in its place.
  What is the new word?
  Write the new word.

sand

- Take away the *d*.
- Put a *k* in its place.
  What is the new word?
  Write the new word.

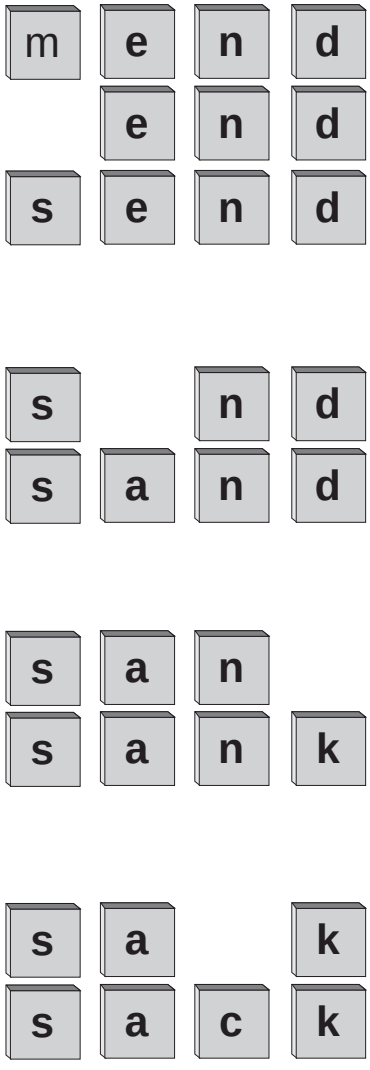
sank

- Take away the *n*.
- Put a *c* in its place.
  What is the new word?
  Write the new word.

sack

The tutor gives instruction one step at a time and waits for the student to respond.

The student listens, manipulates the tiles to make the new word and then writes that word.



Addition or variation

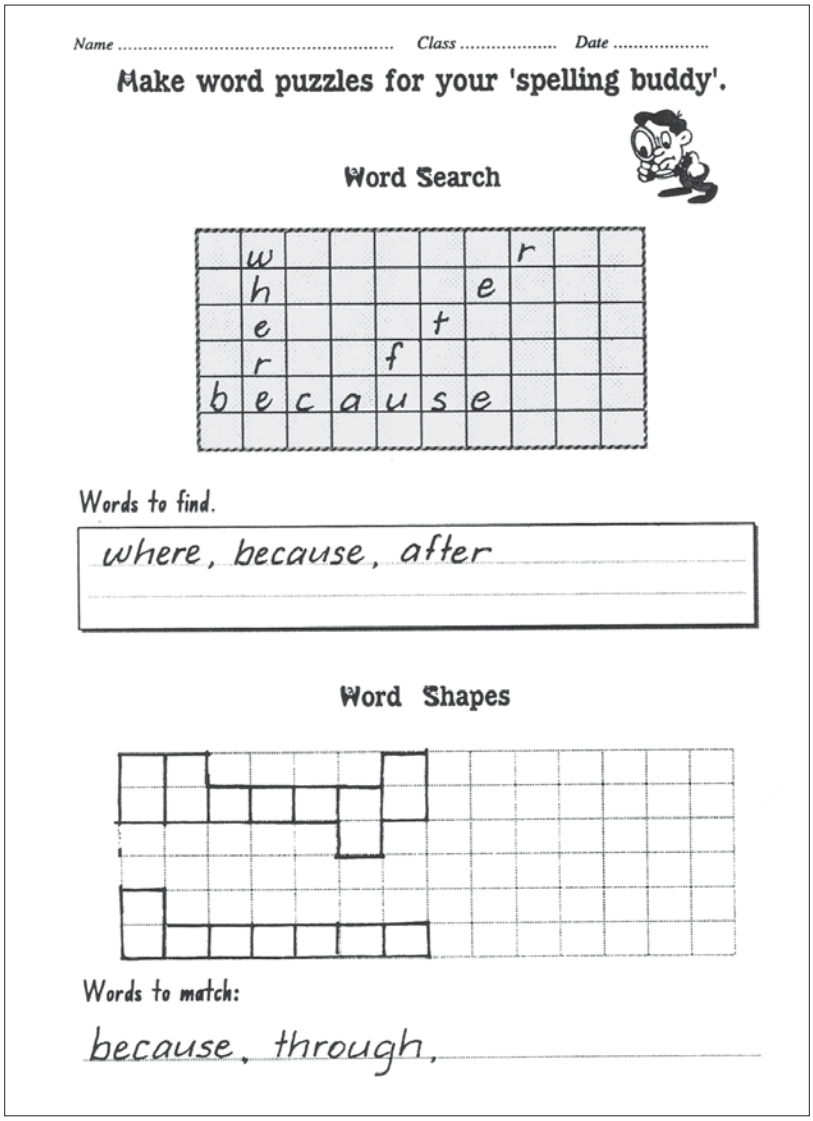
The student could be asked to 'make' new words by introducing and exchanging new letter sounds from a selection of letter tiles provided.

As a follow-up activity to test acquisition, consider asking the student to spell the words made, by writing them correctly in his or her workbook.

- ***Spelling games: making word puzzles for your 'spelling buddy' to complete while having fun and practising your spelling words***

Students start with a common list of spelling words for review and a grid sheet as shown below.

Both student and 'spelling buddy' work independently to print in the grid as many words from the list as they can. The words can be printed horizontally (**left to right**), down or diagonally (**left to right**). The words to find are also written in the space provided. Spaces remaining in the grid can be filled with any letters.



Name ..... Class ..... Date .....

Make word puzzles for your 'spelling buddy'.

Word Search

	w					r		
	h				e			
	e			t				
	r			f				
b	e	c	a	u	s	e		

Words to find.

where, because, after

Word Shapes

Words to match:

because, through,

It is NOT recommended that words be printed RIGHT to LEFT.

Emphasise the importance of the correct spelling when printing the words.

Some students will benefit from participating in learning activities to support the understanding and use of visual strategies to help them identify whether a word 'looks right'.

Student and 'spelling buddy' then select four words for each to use for word shapes and write the words on the line as words to match. They then draw an outline of the shape for each word in the grid attending carefully to show the correct height for each letter.

(Some students may need to check the letter heights on a letter chart or slope card.)

The puzzles are exchanged for each to solve and returned for correction.

■ ***Chaining puzzles***

Chaining puzzles for peer practice can provide interest in word study for the purpose of achieving correct spelling.

Beginning with the correct spelling, students take turns in creating puzzles by interspersing letters with blanks to be filled in by their 'spelling buddy'. Students who create and complete each puzzle should be actively involved in sounding out and checking the accuracy of each chain in a left to right progression.

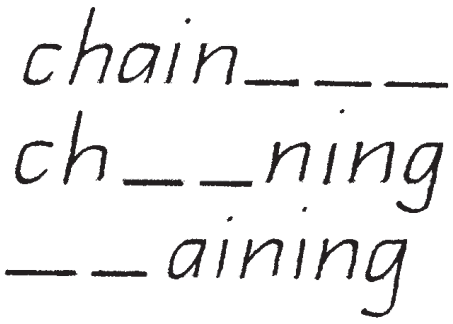
Teachers need to model for students the common letter combinations that they need to know in their spelling by showing these on the model word, as demonstrated below.

model word

chaining

ch
ai
ain
ing

Chaining puzzle for peer practice



This is a sample student-created chaining puzzle.

■ ***Analogy strategy***

The analogy strategy requires the selection of rhyming words for spelling instruction. Then, the following rule is taught:

When two words rhyme the last part of each word is often spelled the same.

Provide *examples* and *non-examples* for guided practice in strategy application.

Next, model application of the strategy by 'thinking aloud'.

'I want to write the word _____ . First, I ask myself if I know any words that rhyme with _____ ?'

Adapted from Fulk (1997)

■ ***Investigative approach to spelling***

After guided reading, ask the student to search for words with a particular pattern; for example, the *ea* pattern. These words could be listed as *head*, *cream*, *ocean*, *sea*, *great*, *dear*, *read*, *breakfast*, *ear*, *clear*, *lean*, *break*. The words are then reorganised according to the sound that *ea* is making in each word; for example:

Words listed according to the sound *ea* makes in each word.				
sea	read	great	ocean	ear
read	breakfast	break		dear
cream	head			clear
lean				

This strategy involves reading, writing, talking and listening. It can be done as a whole class, small group, partner or individual activity.

■ ***Proofreading for spelling errors***

The process of proofreading requires the reader to move away from the powerful influence of meaning to allow careful attention to actual letters and words on the page.

The key strategy for teaching students to proofread is the teacher's modelling of how to go about the process itself – explicit and direct instruction.

Show the students how to:

- use a ruler or slip of paper to cover all but the line they are checking
- experiment with starting at the bottom of the page and working up
- read slowly word by word
- underline or highlight any word that needs to be checked
- write two or more versions of the word and try to decide which looks right
- work with a partner, exchanging writing for proofreading purposes
- use some of the typical symbols used by editors
- use dictionaries, a thesaurus, electronic Wordmasters (word finder software) or spellcheckers
- use prompt charts and 'essential' word lists.

Room print

Independence in reading and writing can depend on appropriate reference materials such as a selection of dictionaries, alphabet friezes and thesauruses.

Room print is one way of providing easy access to correct spellings and the types of spelling knowledge being applied, especially for those students who need additional support in spelling. The following are some examples.

A Word Wall of tricky spelling words

One example of a Word Wall

said	you	was	because
after	when	hour our	they
come	of	● were	which
one	● eight	● what	● through

Tricky spelling words

● Focus on words for the week which are also in text students use for modelled or guided reading. Students are expected to read and spell these words with speed and accuracy for at least three consecutive days. Review.

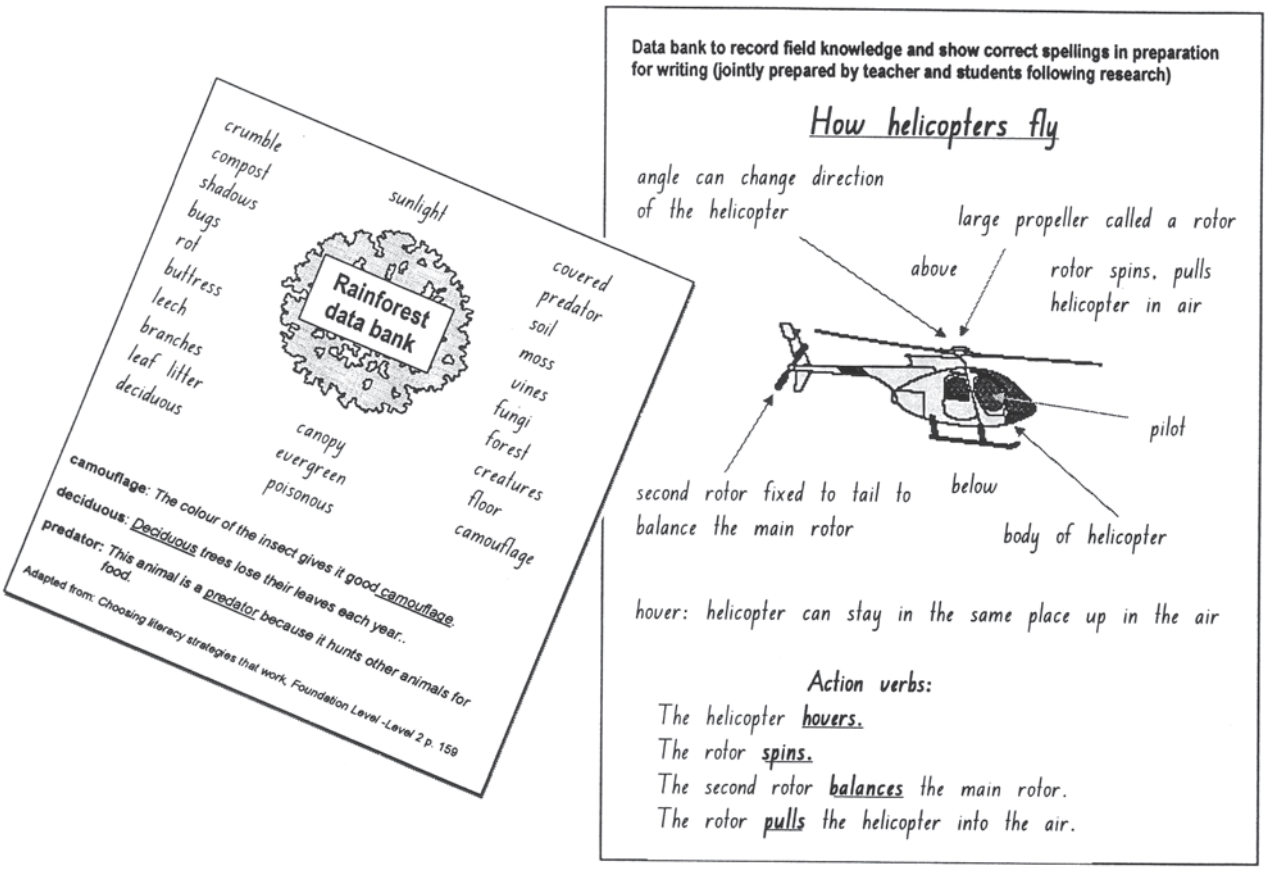
★ Star placed on a word when the above has been achieved.

Have word cards to match those on the Word Wall to use for games.

Variation: Start with an empty Word Wall. Write a key word each week for **all** students to read and spell correctly.

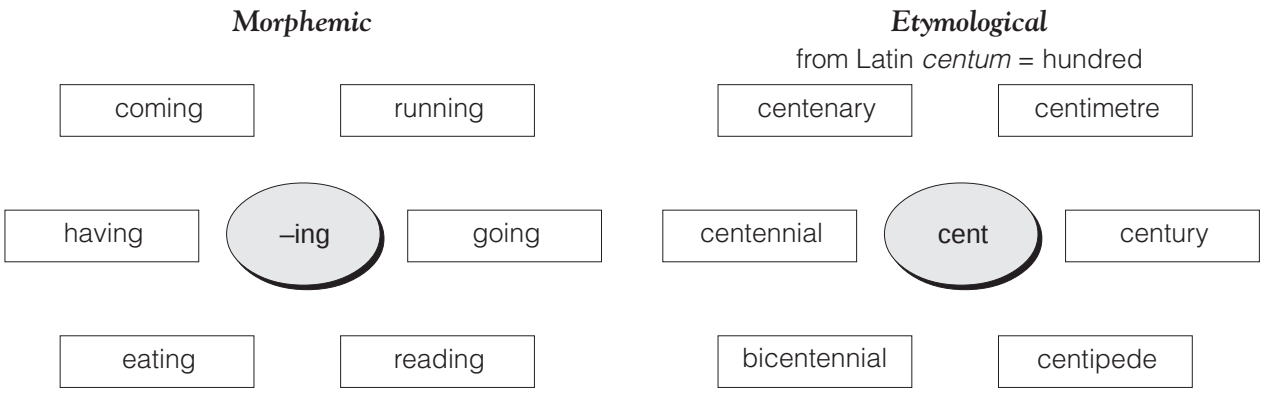
Data banks of field knowledge

Data banks can be displayed, recording field knowledge and showing correct spellings in preparation for writing (jointly prepared by teacher and students following research).



Word webs

Word webs can be constructed around morphemes or topic words to build up lists of words based on a particular form of spelling knowledge. The webs can be added to over days or weeks, as additional examples are experienced in reading and writing. *(Teaching spelling K–6*, p. 93)



Rhyming words

Rhyming words where the last part is spelled the same

When two words rhyme the last part of each word is often spelled the same.

'I want to write the word space. First, I ask myself if I know any words that rhyme with space.'

night right bright fight fright sight	face race pace place space lace grace	where there come some house mouse	back sack black pack crack

Rhyming words where the last part is not spelled the same

one won	two blew	show toe	said red

Using phonological, visual, morphemic and etymological knowledge to develop spelling

This strategy enables teachers and eventually students to analyse words using the four forms of spelling knowledge i.e. phonological, visual, morphemic, and etymological. Examine the two proformas on pages 175, 176.

This analysis provides a focus for explicit teaching in some or all of the four knowledge areas.

1. The teacher determines the forms of spelling knowledge to be modelled explicitly to students from a word list.
2. The teacher analyses the words he or she has chosen using the proforma on the next page to determine teaching points.
3. The process is then modelled to the whole class or group of students followed by guided practice.
4. Students in groups, pairs or individually use the proforma to analyse their words (some of the words chosen or even just one or two each day).

   Depending on the students' spelling achievements and where they are now, the proforma may need to be modified to meet the learning needs of some students. See an adjusted example on page 176.

This process, as outlined, provides a model for teachers to be more explicit in their teaching of spelling.

A strategy for using phonological, visual, morphemic and etymological knowledge

	Phon.	Phon.	Phon/Visual	Phon/Visual	Visual	Visual	Morphemic			Morphemic	Etymological
Word	No. of syllables	No. of sounds	Blends	Combinations	No. of letters	Compound word	Prefix	Base	Suffix	Spelling rule/ generalisations	Word origin
strawberry	3		st, str,	aw	10	straw berry					
telephone	3	7		ph	9		tele	phone		silent e	tele (phone)
churches				ch, ur	8			church	es	plural es	
lighthouse											
octopus											

Tony Smith, APLA

One example of a proforma modified to meet the learning needs of some students

Spelling Class: .....

Week: ..... Term: ..... Name: .....

Words chosen	Word sounds	Syllables I can tap	Smaller words within a word	Look, write, check and word shape	Other, e.g. origin or how words change form
e.g. *foolish*	*f..oo..l..i..sh*	*2*	*fool*		
e.g. *phone*	*ph..o..n../e*	*1*	*one*		*Greek:* *Phon – sound*
e.g. *going*	*g..o..i..ng*	*2*	*go*		*go + ing*

Section 7

Using technology to support students

The use of information and communication technology must begin with the teacher and the teacher's assessment of the learning needs of his or her students. Not only can technology be applied as a tool in the process of communication (such as through assistive technology) but it can also be used to explore and to act as a tutor, with the added advantage of potentially immediate feedback.

In this section, the following aspects of technology in the classroom will be considered:

- assistive technology software, including speech synthesis and word prediction programs
- organisational software
- voice recognition software
- specialised hardware
- networks to foster effective writing and spelling.

Assistive technology: supporting students to read and write

Problems with reading can vary but most students experiencing difficulties display slow and laborious decoding skills that can lead to poor comprehension.

Students' learning can be hindered by difficulties with writing, especially in the middle years and high school. Students may have problems with basic skills, such as spelling and grammar, as well as higher skills, such as planning and organising and revising a piece of writing. Mechanical difficulties, including difficulties with handwriting, can mean that students with learning difficulties produce less written work and work that is lower in quality than that of their typically achieving peers.

New assistive technology can support students to complete tasks more efficiently and independently, resulting in improved performance in a variety of reading and writing tasks.

Note: No single software solution will support all difficulties; for example, spelling or reading difficulties, word retrieval or phonic deficits. It is essentially a matter of matching learning need with software to ensure that difficulties are lessened and learning enhanced. There is no simple match of software with particular disabilities. Software options will depend on the specific needs of the user: access, age, literacy level and so on. It is also important to consider the context in which the technology is being used.

Disclaimer: The listing of a product in this document in no way implies any form of endorsement of that product by the NSW Department of Education and Training.

Speech synthesis (text to speech) and word prediction technology

Word recognition plays a key role in reading comprehension. When errors occur in reading, the student receives less information from the text and so comprehension is affected. As well, the cognitive resources that could otherwise be applied to higher level processing are used instead to decode words.

Speech synthesis programs work by translating text that appears on the computer screen into computerised speech. Text can either be entered by typing directly into the speech synthesis software program or into another word processing program that is compatible with the speech synthesis software. Text can also be entered by using a scanner and optical character recognition software.

Students can instruct the speech synthesis programs to read only selected words, whole lines or an entire text selection. The immediate speech feedback allows students to correct their reading errors by clicking on a word they do not know in order to hear the correct pronunciation. Research has shown that the use of this software is not only assistive but also has remedial benefits. (Higgins & Raskind, 2000)

Word prediction software includes a text reading feature with synthetic speech so that the user can re-check what he or she has written by having it read aloud. Students can use word prediction software to enhance the rate at which they input text into the computer word processor.

Word prediction software attempts to predict the target word, based on the first letters typed by the user. Word prediction can be useful to support spelling as well as to increase the rate of text produced and this combination can help build students' confidence. More recent software versions also include a semantic prediction feature which attempts to predict not only on the basis of letters typed, but also on the basis of grammar or syntax used. So, for example, after the user has typed the word 'We', the word prediction feature will include in its list of predicted word options: 'are', 'were', etc. but will not predict grammatically incorrect solutions such as 'is' or 'was'.

Software

Read&Write (Version 8) GOLD

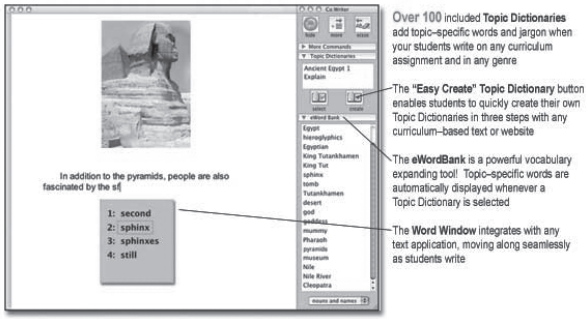
A fully comprehensive toolbar that provides literacy support in any Windows application, *Read&Write* is essentially a toolbar that 'floats' on top of any open Windows application. Assistance can then be called upon as a student works on a reading or writing task. It is designed to assist students to work independently in an inclusive environment ensuring they keep up with their peers in the same classroom.

As well as word prediction when typing, additional support provided includes:

- ability to scan printed text into the computer ready to be read aloud and edited in Microsoft Word
- ability to convert printed text to sound files for MP3 players and similar to support auditory learners and aid revision away from the computer
- ability to convert speech to text, with UK English spelling
- additional tools for collating study materials and retrieving information for students who struggle with their organisation of study materials and research for assignments
- ability to read PDF documents.

For more information visit http://www.spectronicsinoz.com/

Co:Writer 4000



Co:Writer 4000 has word prediction which can be used with any word processor or e-mail program. The word prediction takes a number of different approaches to recognising words: phonetics, the dictionary, context clues and grammar rules. From the first letter input by the user, the program generates possibilities for the user to select from. This allows the user to concentrate on conveying an idea or concept rather than being distracted by spelling and grammar. There is also a speech output function which can read out the suggested vocabulary for the user to choose from.

For more information visit http://www.donjohnston.com or http://www.spectronicsinoz.com/

WYNN Wizard

Scanning and reading software. It includes optical character recognition (OCR), the ability to scan printed pages and convert them into electronic text. Speech synthesis enables this scanned text to be read aloud. Additionally, WYNN Wizard can read word processing documents, Adobe Acrobat PDF files, text files, and the Internet.

For more information visit http://www.freedomscientific.com/LSG/products/wynn.asp

TestTalker

A software solution designed to help individuals be more successful with test taking, worksheet completion, and study materials. It also aids completion of electronic forms. TestTalker provides a computerised version of a test, worksheet, or other form that can talk. TestTalker has two modules:

- Teacher Edition, a test-creating product designed for teachers. It scans pre-printed tests and allows teachers to configure them to enable students to take tests electronically.
- Student Edition, a test-taking product. It reads the test aloud and allows students to answer the questions.

For more information visit http://www.quantech.com.au/products/index.htm

Penfriend

Penfriend word prediction can be used with any word processor. It has a number of other features which include speech feedback, reading aloud the words on the screen, abbreviation expansion, smart punctuation and on-screen keyboard.

For more information visit http://www.penfriend.ltd.uk

BookReader 4.0

This text reader is free software. It allows the user to have text read aloud directly from their screen and allows the user to change the appearance or display of the text to their own user preferences, such as text enlargement, colour preferences or page dimensions. It also has an autoscroll feature which means the user has nothing to do except to listen to the text being read aloud.

For more information visit http://www.rudenko.com

ReadPlease 2003

ReadPlease, available as a free download, is an all-purpose text-to-speech software which can read anything on the screen. It has a number of useful features, including low vision colour option and adjustable voice speed. ReadPlease 2003 Plus is a more advanced version of ReadPlease 2003. It must be purchased but it includes features such as text highlighting when reading, fast forward and backward, adding your own words and pronunciations, and adjustable pause between paragraphs.

For more information visit http://www.readplease.com

Microsoft Reader

This is another free piece of software which is designed specifically to help people read eBooks (on desktop or laptop computers only). There is a text-to-speech component available with Reader now which gives full speech output using a synthetic speech engine (available in three languages: English, French and German). While there are literally thousands of eBooks available in the text-to-speech format of Microsoft Reader, it should be noted that eBooks published in copy-protected (level 5) format, the highest level of security protection, will not work with this feature. Microsoft has its own catalogue of Microsoft Reader compatible eBooks and can be viewed from its own website (www.microsoft.com/reader) but they are also available through most of the well known publishers and distributors online including:

http://www.amazon.co.uk
http://www.powells.com/ebookstore/ebooks.html
http://www.cyberread.com (eBooks are available in two formats: Microsoft Reader and Mobipocket Reader for PDAs)
http://www.ebooks.com

Organisational software

Students experiencing difficulties writing often have problems with the mechanics of writing, such as handwriting and the use of spelling and grammar rules. Focusing on these low level writing skills interferes with a student's ability to engage in higher order processes, such as writing organisation and revision.

Organisational software such as Inspiration or Spark-Space helps students to organise information and ideas through a variety of webs or concept maps on the computer screen. Brainstormed ideas can be entered as visual organisers which are then translated into outlines for the students to follow while writing. This type of software can be used to gather information before writing; students can add new information which is automatically rearranged to present the information in a logical way. Information can be in the form of text, images or Internet hyperlinks. Once a structure is provided to organise their writing, students can use the outline to write. This type of software can also be used to help students summarise information they have read.

Helpful hint:
One possible disadvantage of this type of software is that students may spend more time playing with the graphics than on organising and writing. Teachers need to monitor how students are using the software to maximise the benefits, with explicit demonstrations on how to use the software effectively.

Some examples

Inspiration

A tool students can use to plan, research and complete projects. With the integrated Diagram and Outline Views, they create graphic organisers and can expand topics into writing. With this visual support students can gain and retain a better understanding of concepts and demonstrate their knowledge. Drag-and-drop actions and hyperlinks make it easy to gather research and connect to files and web resources. As students develop their projects, they use AutoArrange to automatically format their diagrams.

Kidspiration®

Created for K-5 learners, this software provides ways to apply the proven principles of visual learning. Students build graphic organisers by combining pictures, text and spoken words to represent thoughts and information. Younger learners can be supported to develop early literacy skills, and more advanced students may be supported to improve their comprehension skills and to better organise ideas for writing.

K-5 learners can use Kidspiration to:

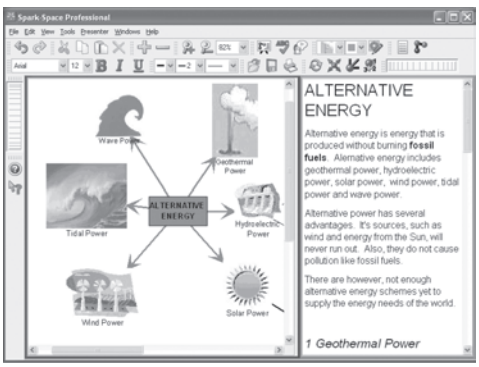
- categorise and group ideas
- express and organise thoughts
- comprehend and communicate.

For more information visit http://www.inspiration.com

Spark-Space in Education

This program comes in three different editions.

Spark Learner bridges the gap between ideas and the production of a structured piece of writing. It is for students with a conceptual learning style such as those with hidden dyslexia. Spark-Space allows students to structure their thoughts at speed and then turn those ideas into a structured document in one program. Independent working is also encouraged as built in text-to-speech allows them to review and correct their own work.



Kidspark is a simplified version of the program for children up to the age of 10.

Spark Educator for the Teacher is a content-free piece of software for use with an interactive whiteboard which allows users to create, link and annotate ideas into headings and sub-headings, allowing teachers to combine and present text, graphics and animation. These ideas are represented visually and can be moved around the screen or re-ordered to create a mind map. Although it is content-free, sample files are supplied, and can be used to organise thoughts in any curriculum area.

For more information visit http://www.spark-space.com/education.htm

Voice recognition software

Voice recognition software can help students bypass their problems with lower order writing skills by dictating their written work. When students use voice recognition software they wear a headset and operate the computer by voice commands. Speech-to-text software allows students to get their ideas down before they are forgotten.

Studies have also found this type of technology can have remedial benefits because students must attend carefully to what is being written on the screen as they dictate their work. For example, when an error is made, the students must instruct the computer to 'correct this'. The computer posts a list of alternatives; the student must read and choose the correct one.

Helpful hint:
There are disadvantages to using voice recognition software. Training the program to recognise students' voices can be difficult and time consuming. Students must learn the special commands needed to operate the program. Coughing, laughing and other noises are interpreted as nonsense words and will be added to the text. Students may need extensive instruction and monitoring for voice recognition software to be an effective tool but when students realise that it allows them to produce neat work within a relatively short period of time their motivation to write will increase. For those students whose oral communication skills are far superior to their writing abilities, voice recognition software has great potential.

Dragon NaturallySpeaking 8 allows the user to talk to the computer and the words instantly appear in Microsoft Word and Excel, and virtually all Windows-based applications. It allows the user to listen to incoming e-mail as well as documents read aloud. The user can dictate directly into a PC or any approved handheld digital recorder after which the recorded text can be directly relayed to the PC and the word processor program as written text. A feature of the software is dictation shortcuts that enable the user to insert blocks of texts with a single voice command.

For more information visit http://www.voicerecognition.com.au/

Specialised hardware

Text entry devices

A range of text entry devices are available that support students to write. The AlphaSmart range offers compatibility with regular computers and printers as well as mobility and durability on a full size keyboard. All AlpahSmart text entry devices can be battery powered or use an AC adapter.

The AlphaSmart 3000

For students who may need spelling support, struggle with note taking and writing first drafts, become frustrated with paper and pencil writing tasks or have trouble keeping assignments organised.

Students can be supported by using AlphaSmart to overcome these writing barriers. By loading additional text prediction software such as Co:Writer, struggling writers can be supported to type, edit and electronically store their text (reports, essays, e-mail messages or notes), and to practise keyboarding, without having to be at a computer. Text typed on the AlphaSmart 3000 can be transferred to any computer (PC or Macintosh) for formatting, or directly to a printer. Its portability allows students to use it anywhere and anytime.

The AlphaSmart Dana

Another alternative to the laptop. It is lightweight, travel tough and easy to transport, weighing less than one kilo. It offers up to 30 hours uninterrupted work with a single battery charge. Dana features Palm(tm) OS giving access to more than 10,000 Palm applications. The user can type or enter data using the keyboard or by writing with the Dana stylus directly onto the screen.

For more information visit http://www.spectronicsinoz.com/

Portable Spellcheckers

Children's Talking Dictionary & Spell Corrector

This highly portable device has over 40,000 easy-to-understand definitions that are pronounced to support vocabulary learning. The automatic phonetic spell corrector can turn words such as 'nolij' into 'knowledge'. The device includes a rhyme finder, five word-building games, and a vocabulary word list that can be created by the user. The Talking Dictionary works with headphones (sold separately) for privacy.

Spelling Ace & Thesaurus

This device has 110,000 word phonetic spell corrections and 500,000 synonyms and antonyms. The student can be supported to learn new words with a preloaded list or develop a personal word list of their own. The portable device includes eight interactive word building exercises, a crossword solver, a homophone guide, a calculator, and a Rolodex databank.

For more information visit http://www.franklin.com/

Exploratory learning environments

Information and communication technology now offers teachers and students powerful and accessible 'exploratory learning environments' (Florian, 2001). The Internet provides opportunities across curriculum areas for students not only to research field knowledge for their writing tasks but also to use some of the 'authoritative sources' referred to in earlier sections of this book; for example, dictionaries, thesauruses and rules of grammar and spelling. Through the Internet, students gain access to other individuals and groups through e-mails and special interest groups. Research indicates that students with or without writing difficulties can achieve positive results in improving written communication skills when they participate in e-mail penfriend correspondence, particularly when they are paired with good writing models (Stanford & Siders, 2001).

E-mail penfriend writing

Purpose

The purpose of this strategy is to:

- enable students to acquire effective written communication skills
- provide students with encouragement and models of appropriate writing within a social context.

Description

E-mail penfriend letters offer students an opportunity to write in a setting that involves a genuine audience.

The use of technology minimises the concerns that some students have about the mechanics and appearance of their writing and encourages them to focus more attention on the process of communicating thoughts, ideas and opinions.

Implementation

Setting up a successful e-mail penfriend project involves attention to several important factors, as highlighted in the research of Stanford and Siders.

- Classroom students need to be paired with penfriends who have good writing skills. The model penfriend should, through correspondence, model good writing and provide guidance (not criticism).
- Appropriate and accessible technology needs to be readily available. Often both teachers and students can become frustrated if an activity is planned and then not implemented because of poor technology.
- Adequate time must be made for developing writers to show growth. Although e-pals (the term used in the Stanford and Siders' research) can provide instant feedback, this does not necessarily mean instant positive results. Improvement occurs over time. For example, the Stanford and Siders research project allocated 20 minutes twice a week over eight weeks for friendly pen-pal letter writing. This study paired university teacher education students and school students in pen-pal, e-pal and control groups(Stanford & Siders, 2001).

- Assessment measures for e-pal writing need to be clearly established. It is important to provide guidance and feedback for learners, teachers, and parents regarding student progress and the benefits of the activity. The selection of specific criteria for assessment will depend on the particular learning experiences preceding the written task and will need to include criteria that are related to the purpose of the set task; namely, composing the friendly e-mail. The assessment criteria should also be linked to and contribute evidence of the achievement of the English K-6 Syllabus outcomes. See one example of assessment criteria below.

Positive growth in writing skills can be achieved once the learners have samples of the text they are producing to work with. 'To use the ideas of Frank Smith (1985): "The more you write, the better you write; the better you write, the more you write.'" (Stanford & Siders, 2001)

An example of assessment criteria for e-pal writing

Attempt
An attempt to correspond was made.

Eager attempt	Good attempt	Little attempt	No attempt	

Purpose
An attempt to correspond was made.

Purpose achieved	Purpose mostly achieved	Some evidence of achievement	Purpose not achieved	

Organisation
The letter is well organised and easy to follow.

Well organised	Good organisation	Occasionally off track	Not appropriate	

Language
The overall language is appropriate for the task.

Appropriate	Mostly appropriate	Some use of appropriate language	Not appropriate	

Paragraphs

Paragraphs are used properly	Paragraphs mostly correct	Some paragraphs correct	No paragraphs used	

Grammar

The grammar is correct	The grammar is mostly correct	Some evidence of correct grammar	Many grammatical errors	

Punctuation

Punctuation is correct	Punctuation is mostly correct	Some evidence of correct punctuation	Punctuation not correct	

Spelling

Spelling correct	Spelling mostly correct	Simple words mostly correct	Many errors in spelling simple words	

Linked to Syllabus outcomes WS2.9, WS2.10, WS2.11, WS2.12, WS2.13.
ESL Scales Level 4/5 Writing.

Section 8

References and resources

Board of Studies NSW publications

English K–6 A Resource of Classroom Practices 1998

English K–6 Modules 1998

English K–6 Syllabus 1998

English K–6 Teaching About Texts 1998

Teaching Strategies and Practices in Human Society and Its Environment. In *Human Society & Its Environment K-6: Units of Work* 1998

English K-6: Student Work Samples 1998

For more information visit:

http://bosnsw-k6.nsw.edu.au/english/

NSW Department of Education and Training

Aspects of Grammar – a handbook for writing assessment 2005

Choosing literacy strategies that work, Stage 2 1997

Focus on literacy: Spelling 1998

Focus on literacy: Writing 2000

Leaps and Bounds – Improving Student Writing Using PWA 2003

Linking Primary Writing Assessment 2001 to the Curriculum 2001

Linking Basic Skills Tests to the Curriculum Year 3 1998, 1999

Linking Basic Skills Tests to the Curriculum Year 5 1998, 1999

Principles for assessment and reporting 1996

Programming and Strategies Handbook: Assisting Year 3 and Year 5 students who need additional support in literacy 2000

Strategies for assessment and reporting - primary schools 1997

Strategies for reading factual texts 1997

Teaching reading in Stage 2 1997

Teaching reading: A K–6 Framework 1997

Teaching spelling K–6 1998

Year 3 Primary Writing Assessment 2001

Year 5 Primary Writing Assessment 2001

For more information visit:

https://detwww.det.nsw.edu.au/directorates/schoimpro/EMD/bst_publications.htm

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Literary resources

But Where is the Green Parrot? by Wanda & Thomas Zacharias
ISBN 0385301111
Publisher: Chatto & Windus
Publication date: 1969

John Brown, Rose and the Midnight Cat (Reissue) by Jenny Wagner
ISBN 0140503064
Publisher: Penguin Books Ltd
Publication date: 1988

John Patrick Norman McHennessy by John Burningham
ISBN 0517568055
Publisher: Knopf Books for Young Readers
Publication date: 1987

Lester and Clyde by James H Reece
ISBN 0908643640
Publisher: Ashton Scholastics Pty Ltd
Publication date: 1976/1987

Life on the Goldfields from *Gold in Australia* by George Moore
ISBN 1863116184
Publisher: R.I.C. Publications

My Place by Nadia Wheatley and Donna Rawlins
ISBN 0916291545
Publisher: Kane/Miller Book Publishers
Publication date: 1994

The Wind in the Willows by Kenneth Grahame, illustrated by Michael Haguefirst, Methuen and Co. Ltd. 1980.

Useful websites for strategies for students who need additional support:

http://www.ldonline.org/

http://www.readingrockets.org/

http://www.specialconnections.ku.edu/cgi-bin/cgiwrap/specconn/index.php

More information be found at:
www.det.nsw.edu.au

Or contact:
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Disability Programs Directorate
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