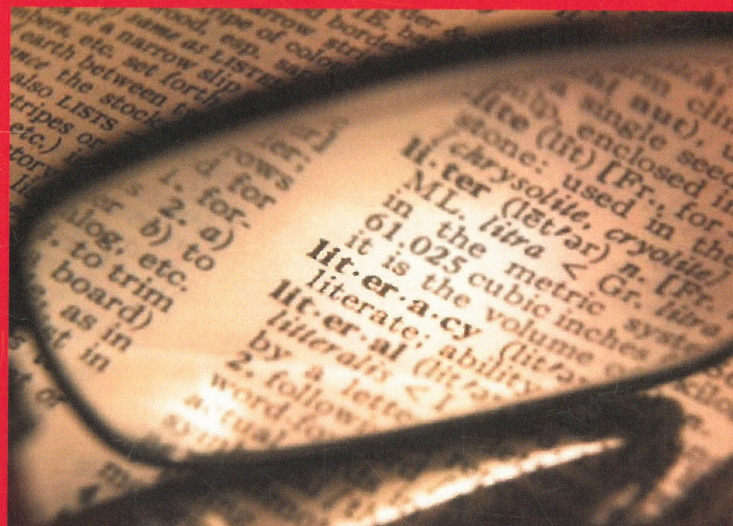




NASHS Literacy Handbook ver. 1.0



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An English professor wrote the words :
"A woman without her man is nothing"
on the chalkboard and asked his students
to punctuate it correctly.

All of the males in the class wrote:
"A woman, without her man, is nothing."

All the females in the class wrote:
"A woman: without her, man is nothing."
Punctuation is powerful

Punctuation

WHEN DO I USE A CAPITAL LETTER?



1. At the beginning of a sentence.
2. For the personal pronoun “I” Eg. I knew you were at home.
3. To indicate a word is a proper noun - the name of something.

Proper nouns are used to name specific people (or organisations of people), places and things.

Eg.

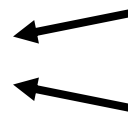
- days and months - *Tuesday, Friday, January, August.*
- people - *Joshua, Mrs Humphry, Mr Fred Stubble.*
- places - *Eaton, 23 Monash Boulevard, Eaton Community College, Paris, United States of America.*
- groups or organisations - *West Coast Eagles, Woolies.*
- titles of texts - *Madagascar, Herbie Reloaded, Harry Potter and the Philosopher’s Stone.*

4. To begin the first word inside quotation marks for direct speech.

Eg. “Every time I say something you yell at me!”

5. For the letters of an acronym. Eg. *ACCC - Australian Competition and Consumer Corruption Commission or RSPCA - Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals.*

WHEN DO I USE A FULL STOP?



1. To indicate the end of a sentence that isn’t a question or exclamation. Eg. I went down to the shops.
2. To indicate an abbreviation. Eg. E.C.C. is near Glen Huon P.S.

WHEN DO I USE A QUESTION MARK?

At the end of a sentence in which a direct question is asked. Eg. How much do you have to spend?

WHEN DO I USE AN EXCLAMATION MARK?



At the end of a sentence to:

1. Indicate a command eg *Look at me! Don't touch that!*
2. Emphasise a statement Eg. *Oh! I don't believe you just said that! I'm starving!*

It is used to show strong, emphatic ideas and feelings.

A SENTENCE MUST ALWAYS END WITH A FULL STOP, QUESTION MARK OR EXCLAMATION MARK.

WHEN DO I USE A COMMA?



The comma is the most frequently used punctuation mark used to:

1. separate words in a series or list.

Nouns: *Josh bought a new tyre, handlebars, a pump and three tubes.*

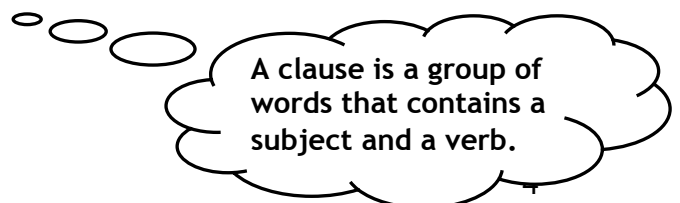
Verbs: *The boys screamed, yelled and hollered at the barking dog.*

Adjectives: *My mum is patient, thoughtful and kind.*

Phrases: *Succeeding in your Maths test is easier if you listen to your teacher, do all your homework and revise the night before the test.*

Clauses: *It is believed that he fell over, that he hurt himself, and that he managed to get himself to the hospital alone.*

2. enclose additional information.



Eg. *The principal, Mrs Important, was in a meeting.*

He understood, *without having to be told*, that his mother was angry because of the expression on her face.

Note that the sentences would make sense if you took out the additional information between the commas Eg. “The principal was in a meeting.” or “He understood that his mother was angry because of the expression on her face.”

WHEN DO I USE AN APOSTROPHE?

,

I'm sure it's this way!

1. To show that letters or words are missing i.e. They shorten words.

These shortened words are called **CONTRACTIONS**.

Eg. *would've = would have who's = who is it's = it is*

2. To show possession, relationship, belonging or ownership.

Eg. *Tony's dog, Jessica's mother, Bernie's school.*

Rules to remember:

- ✓ Add 's to a singular word. Eg. *The baby's smile.*
- ✓ Add 's to plural words that do not end in s. Eg. *The children's dog.*
- ✓ With plural words ending in s add an apostrophe at the end. Eg. *Her parents' anger.*
- ✓ If a name already has an s at the end add an apostrophe at the end only (don't add another s). Eg. *Francis' house.*

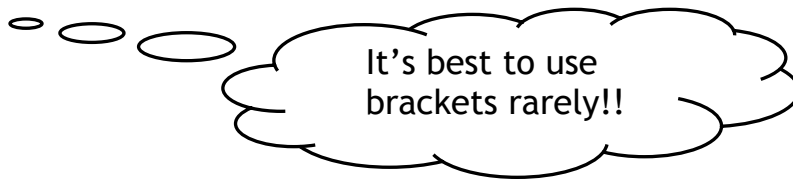
WHEN DO I USE BRACKETS?

()

Note: The proper name for brackets is parentheses.

1. To enclose words that give additional information or make the meaning clearer. Eg. *We live in W.A. (Western Australia)*

2. In written instructions, to give reference information. Eg. The Brown bear is often compared to the Black bear (see page 12 - *Habits of Black Bears*).



WHEN DO I USE A HYPHEN? ■

To join two or more words together to make a compound word. Subsequently the newly formed word has a different, distinct meaning. Eg. *Father-in-law* . *He is always self-confident*. *I want three-quarters of that pizza*.

WHEN DO I USE A COLON? ●

1. To introduce lists. Eg. *Harry loved lots of foods: chocolate, watermelon, raisin bread and roast pork*.

2. To introduce quotations or explanations Eg. *My mum always says: "Don't judge a book by its cover."* or *I can think of only one alternative: scream your lungs out!*

WHEN DO I USE A SEMI COLON? ;

A semi colon is a stronger pause than a comma. It is used:

1. to separate main clauses in sentences when conjunctions (*and, but, or and for*) are left out Eg. *I saw my teacher coming; I decided to behave. I asked you to close the door; the draught is making me cold.*

2. to separate main clauses that are connected by *however, nevertheless, consequently, therefore, thus* Eg. *She thought she would get married; however, her boyfriend disagreed. She was absent from school; consequently, she missed handing in her assignment on time.*

3. to separate items in a long list where commas are used Eg. *Students should be polite, well mannered, and considerate; work hard at their lessons; and be good citizens within their community.*

4. to separate main clauses that are long and contain commas Eg. *When Tracey was young she hated dogs; but when she grew older she loved her Shetland Sheepdogs.*

How to punctuate direct speech.

Speech marks (often called quotation marks) are used to enclose the actual words spoken by a speaker. You don't use quotation marks when you are just reporting what someone has said or thought.

“ ”

Direct speech: *Holly shouted to her mother. “Can I come out of my room yet?”*

Indirect speech: *Holly asked her mother if she could come out of her room.*

Indirect thought *I wonder if I'm allowed out of my room, thought Holly.*

Use speech marks (“ ”) to show which words in a piece of writing are direct speech (what people are actually saying).

You must follow a few simple **but important** rules:

1. **NEW LINE FOR NEW SPEAKER:** Each new piece of speech (when someone other than the previous speaker speaks) must start on a new line.
2. **INDENT EACH NEW SPEECH:** Treat each new speech like a new paragraph. Indenting means leaving approx five spaces (about 1 cm) from your left hand margin before you start writing.
3. **USE SPEECH MARKS:** Use the speech marks “ ” to show that everything inside the “ ” is someone speaking and everything else is description of action.
4. **PUNCTUATE PROPERLY:** Before the speech mark ends the speech you must use some kind of punctuation.

If the speech is interrupted by some description and the same speaker is going to keep speaking) use a comma unless you need to use a question or exclamation mark.

Eg. *“I don't think,” she hesitated “that you're going to finish on time.”*

Enclosed in a set of speech marks every new sentence must begin with a capital letter. The end of a sentence must be punctuated with a **full stop, question or exclamation mark**.

DON'T FORGET:

1. The punctuation comes **BEFORE NOT AFTER** the closing speech mark.

RIGHT = “Why not?” **WRONG** = “Why not”?

2. If the whole speech is longer than one sentence use punctuation as you would normally. Don't just let your speech go on and on (a common mistake).

RIGHT = *"I knew you were wrong. Why didn't you just tell me? Did you think I wouldn't realise? Of course I would."*

WRONG = *"I knew you were wrong why didn't you just tell me did you think I wouldn't realise of course I would."*

The following example illustrates all these rules:

"Frank?" said Vanessa.
"Yes?" replied Frank.
"Do you actually know where we're going?"
"Don't be ridiculous. Of course I know where we're going. I looked it up in the road map before we left." Vanessa frowned and looked considerably worried as she gazed out of the car window into the darkness.
"I don't suppose that you had the map er," she hesitated "upside down when you looked?"
"Why?"
"Because we just went past our own house!"

Parts of Speech

What is a noun?

Nouns **name** people, creatures, places, things, feelings, ideas or qualities.

Common nouns name people, places, animals and things *Eg. boys, city, dog, bike .*

Proper nouns: name specific people, places and things.

Eg. Australia, Bunbury, Mrs Saunders, MacDonalds.

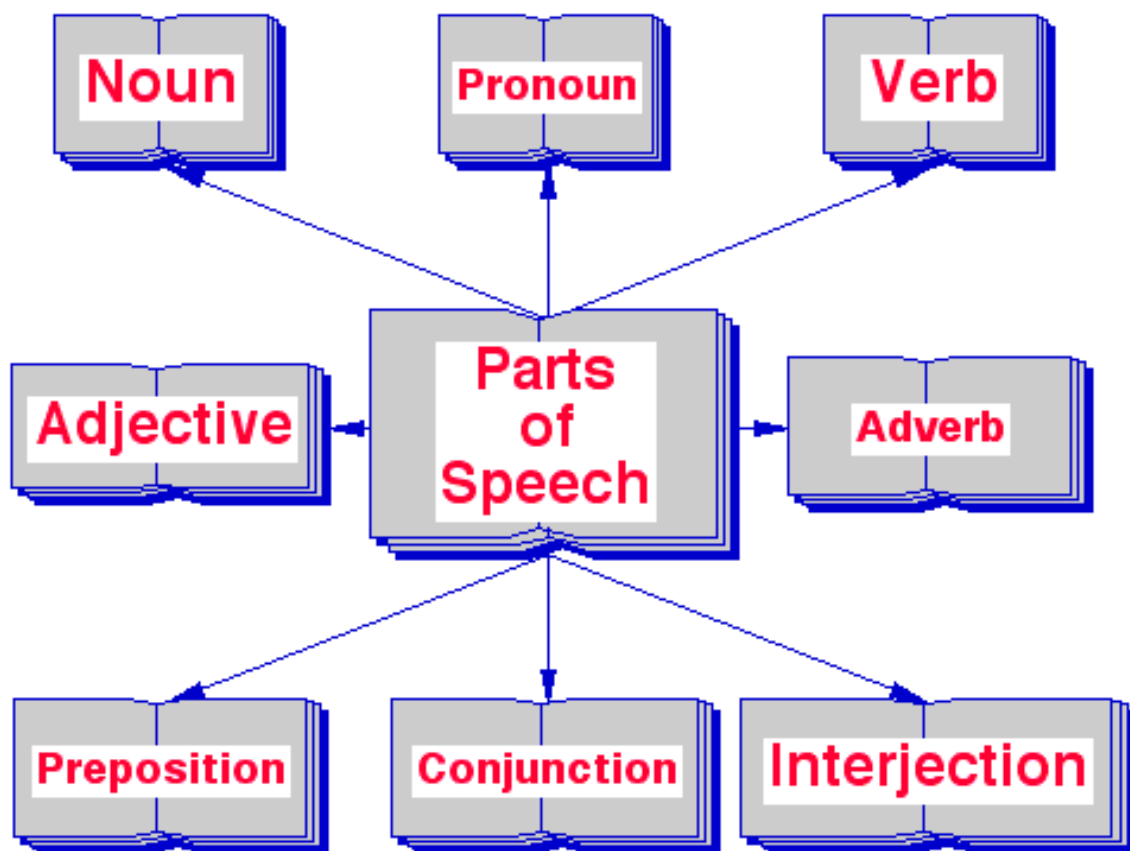
They need a capital letter!!

Collective nouns name groups of people, animals and things.

Eg. His pair of shoes, a class of students, an army of soldiers.

Concrete nouns name things we can see, hear and touch. *Eg. book, pen, sandwich.*

Abstract nouns name feelings and qualities we cannot see, hear or touch. *Eg. love, hate, disappointment*



What is an adjective?

Adjectives **describe** nouns. They explain what kind, colour, shape or size, or how many. They can appear before or after the noun.
Eg. A fat baby. The baby is fat.

What is a verb?

1. Verbs are usually **action** (doing) words which tell about what's happening in a sentence. Eg. Frank kicked the football.
2. Some verbs tell us about what things are and what they have. Eg.
They are here. Ben has the answer. Lara is a good swimmer.

The person or thing that carries out the action is called the **subject**.

What is an adverb?

Adverbs add more information about the verb, adjective or other adverbs in a sentence.

1. Adverbs add to the verb (give more detail). Adverbs answer the questions: **How?** *Eg. She ran slowly.* **When?** *Eg. Frank arrived yesterday.* **Where?** *Eg. Julie ran away.* **How much?** *Eg. Jason really hates carrots.*

2. Adverbs can also add to adjectives or other adverbs.

Eg. It was really cold. It was a very boring video. She ate her food too quickly.

Here's a good tip: Adverbs often end in the letters ly.

What's a clause? See page 11

What is a conjunction?

Conjunctions are joining words - they join words, groups of words or clauses:

Eg. and, but, or, because, until, however, yet, when, if, though, unless, until.

What is a preposition?

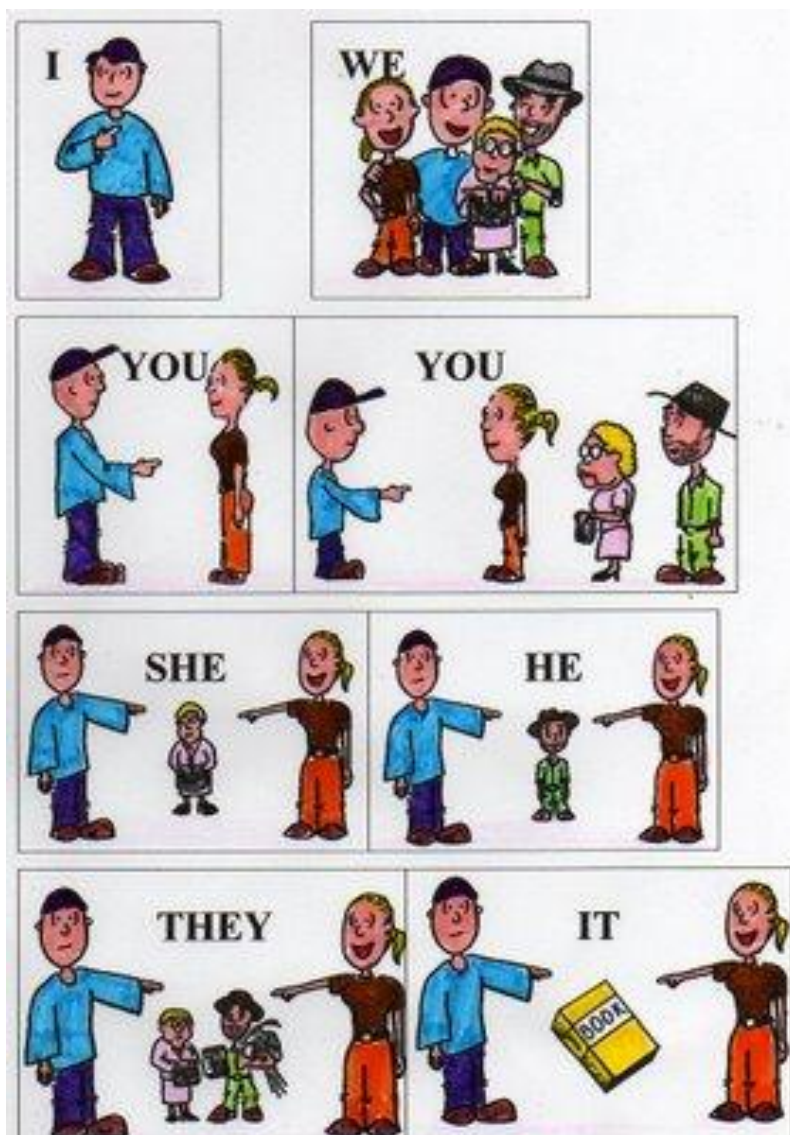
Prepositions link nouns or pronouns with other words and indicate the relationship between the noun or pronoun and other words in the sentence. They can show **position** *Eg. under, over, on, beside* or **direction** *Eg. up, down, across.*

More examples: *above, against, among, at, before, below, by, during, for, from, in, near, of, off, since, through, to, towards, until, with.*

What is a pronoun?

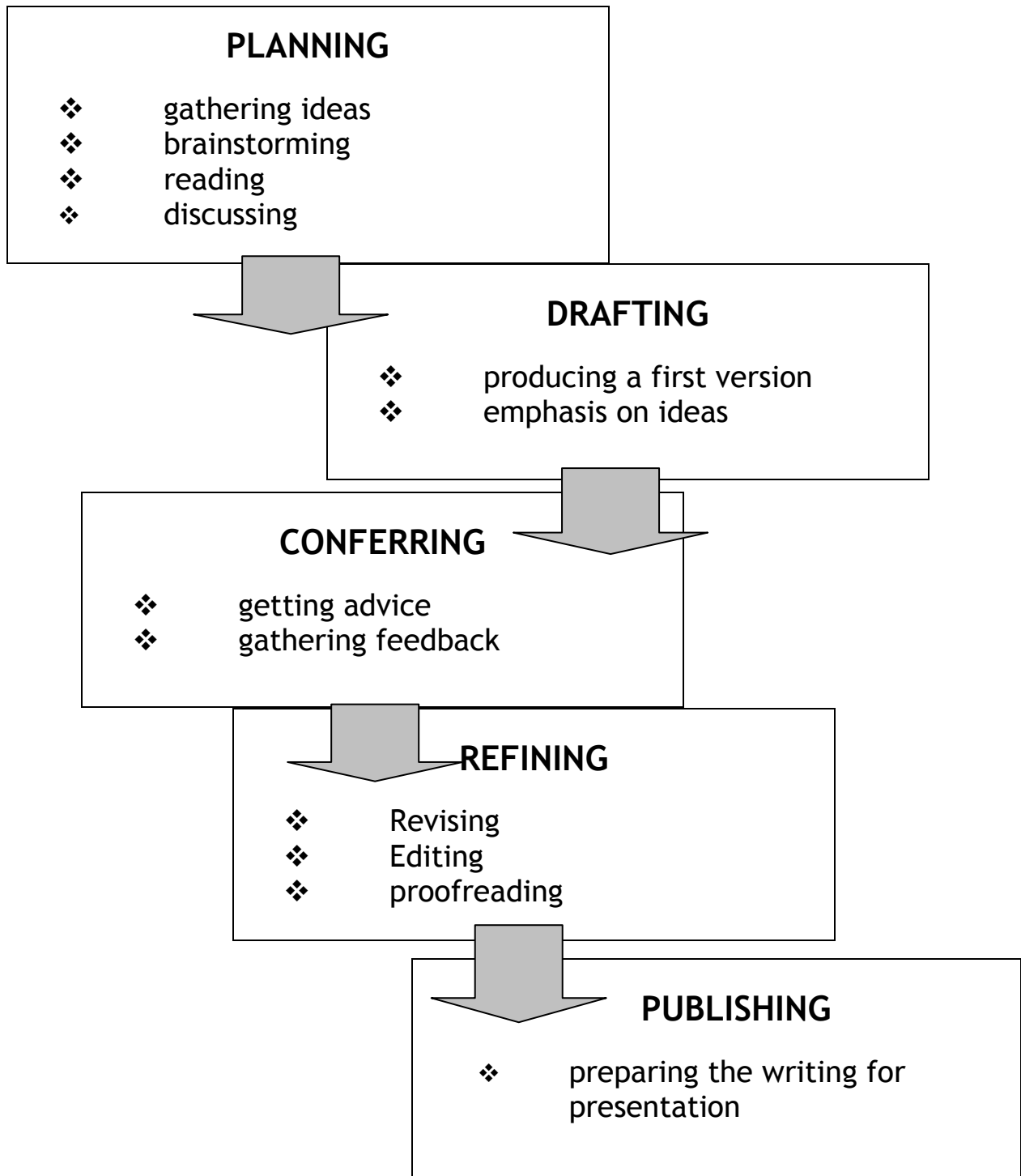
A pronoun is used in place of a noun. Eg. *he, she, they, it, we, you, I, me*. Pronouns are often used to avoid repetition when repeating a noun (Eg. a name) sounds clumsy. Pronouns are words that you can use instead of nouns so that you don't have to add the same noun over and over. Eg. Instead of: *Trevor was angry. Trevor had lost his bike.* it is better to replace the second name with a pronoun and write *Trevor was angry. He had lost his bike.*

More examples: *I, me, you, she, it, we, they, us, them, him, hers, mine, ours, its, either, each, no one, somebody, myself, who, which, that.*



The Writing Process

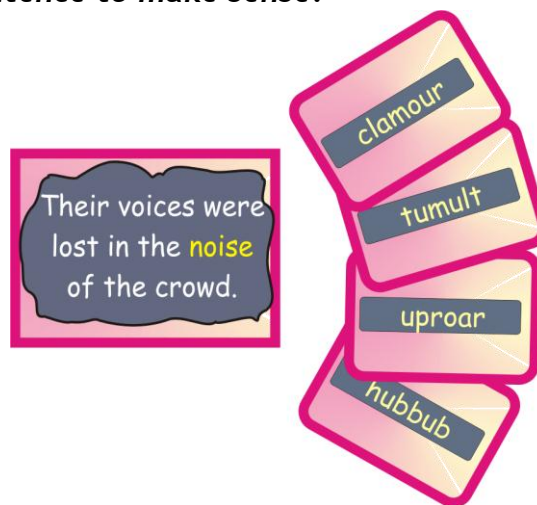
The writing process is the ‘how’ of writing. While the process used may vary among writers, it usually follows the stages below:



What is a sentence?

- ❖ A sentence must begin with a capital letter and end with a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark.
- ❖ A sentence must make sense by itself (without relying on other sentences).
- ❖ A sentence should contain at least one **verb** and a **subject**. The subject is the person or thing carrying out the action and may be a noun or a pronoun. The action is a verb.
- ❖ A sentence is a sequence of words that can stand alone to:
 - ❑ Make a statement *I am following you.*
 - ❑ Ask a question *Will you follow me?*
 - ❑ Give a command *Follow me!*
 - ❑ Make an exclamation *I hate you following me!*

A clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a verb. A sentence is composed of one or more clauses. A clause can be main (independent), which means it stands on its own, or subordinate (dependent), which means it relies on the rest of the sentence to make sense.



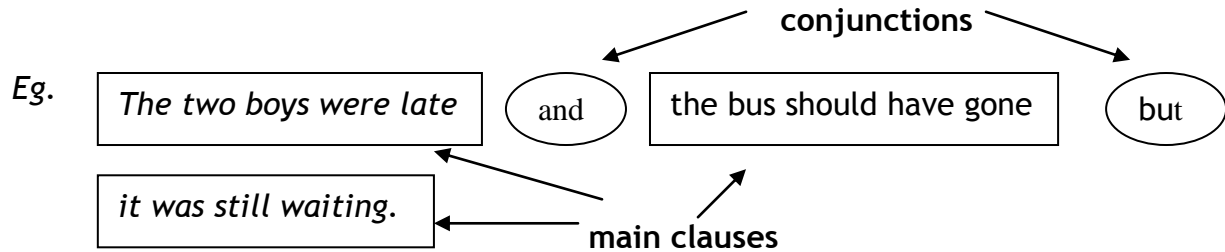
Kinds of sentences:

Simple: A sentence with one clause which expresses one complete idea.

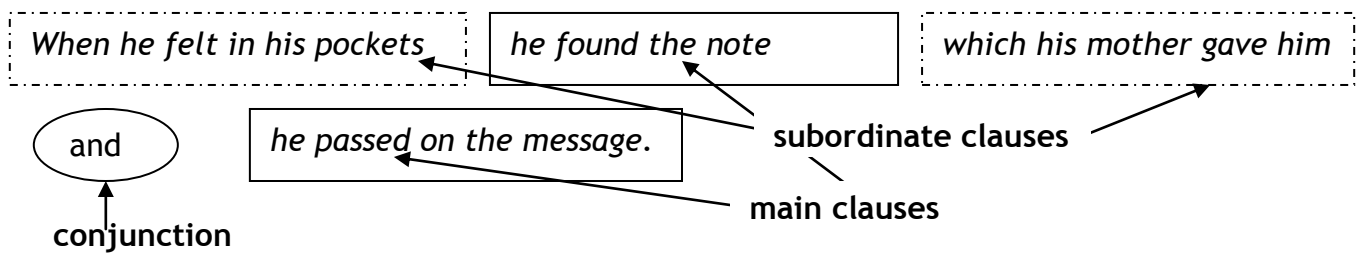
Eg. *He bought a present for his mum.*

“he” is the subject. “bought” is the verb.

Compound: A sentence which has two or more main clauses joined by a conjunction.



Complex: A sentence which has two or more main clauses and one or more subordinate clauses.

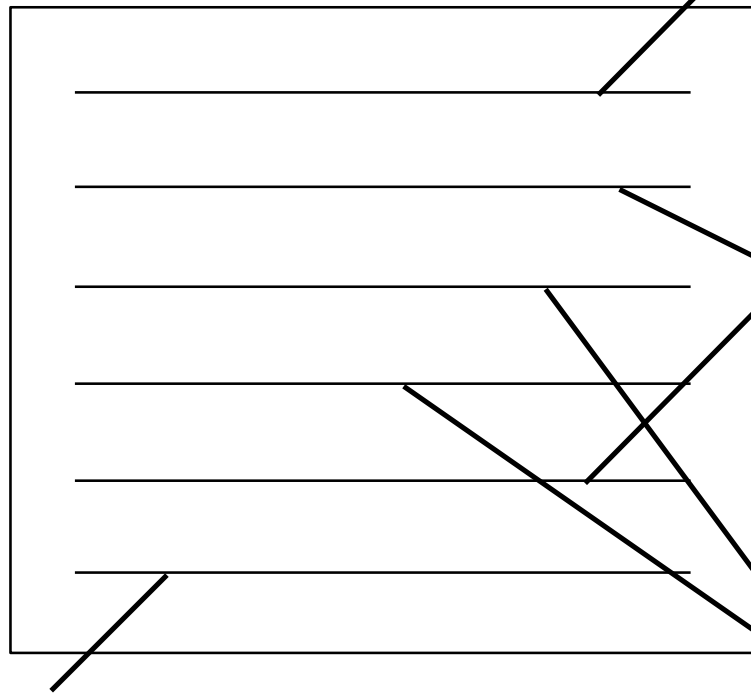


What is a paragraph?

A paragraph presents ONE idea. It usually contains several sentences. Some of the sentences have different functions:

1. **The topic sentence** explains generally what the paragraph is about.
2. **Developing sentence(s)** expands /clarifies the idea expressed in the topic sentence.
3. **Supporting sentence(s)** supports the idea through examples, facts, figures, reasoned argument, anecdotes.
4. **Concluding sentence** 'wraps up' the idea of the paragraph, or can introduce the idea of the next paragraph.

All the sentences revolve around one idea



Topic sentence

- usually found at the beginning of a paragraph

Developing sentences

- usually found in the middle of the paragraph

Supporting sentences

- usually found in the middle of the paragraph

Concluding or linking sentence

- usually found at the end of the paragraph. This sentence concludes the paragraph, or provides a link to the next.

A Sample Paragraph

TOPIC SENTENCE

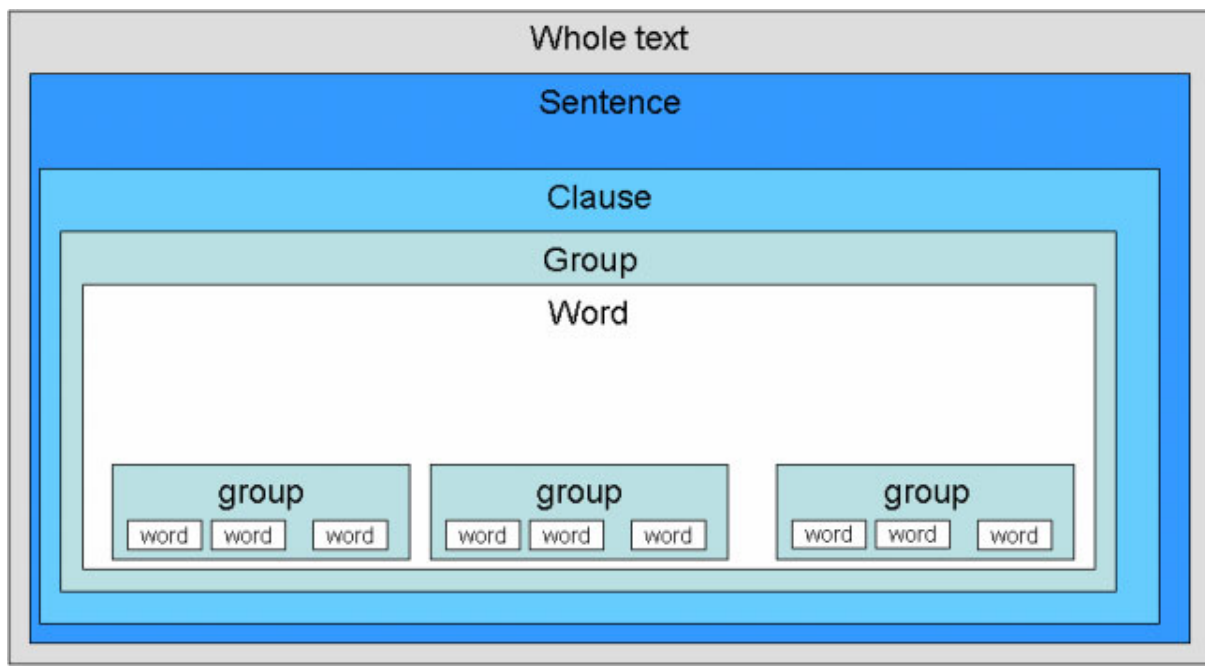
King William of Transylvania was an enormous eater. He would eat breakfast at five a.m. eating five chickens boiled in beer. After that he went to sleep again. At noon he would eat lunch which contained at least twenty courses. Dinner at seven p.m. would involve four to eight Big Macs and fries. He would eat supper, perhaps his largest meal of the day, at midnight. Each meal would be followed by several desserts as well as beer and Coca Cola. His stomach, originally a wonderful one, eventually collapsed after forty years of hard labour.

CONCLUDING SENTENCE

Body

What is Grammar? What Grammar skills should students be understanding and demonstrating between yr 7 and 9?

- Grammar is a way of describing how the structure of our language works to create meaning within texts.
- The following pages describe the grammar of written Standard Australian English.
- The purpose of the scope and sequence is to show what grammatical concepts and terms students may be expected to:
 - recognise and understand as they read and listen to language within written and spoken texts
 - use in their own written and spoken texts
 - discuss, using an appropriate grammar metalanguage.
- The organisation of the scope and sequence starts with patterns at the whole text, sentence and clause levels, and progresses to groups of words and individual words. It describes the functions of these patterns within texts.
- The scope and sequence shows expectations at the end of each juncture.
- Teachers may introduce concepts earlier, if appropriate, within the context of work with a particular text.
- Teachers may wish to use “everyday” ways of talking about grammatical concepts before introducing the technical terms, e.g. “naming words” for nouns or “action words” for verbs.
- Technical terms can include functional grammar terms if this is the approach used in the school.
- Grammar should not be viewed as an end in itself, but rather as a means of improving students’ ability to use language more effectively, and to be able to evaluate texts, including their own.
- This scope and sequence can be used in conjunction with the *Guides to Text Types*, which show how grammatical patterns build meaning in different text types. These guides are being developed as English syllabus resources.



Grammatical level		By the end of Year 7 Explicit teaching focus	By the end of Year 9 Explicit teaching focus
Whole-text level Texts are structured in particular ways to achieve a purpose. While not all texts follow a typical pattern, there are characteristic grammatical features of many text types. Knowledge of these features can promote more successful reading and writing. Paragraphs are used to group the major ideas within a text. This organises the ideas, thus helping readers to recognise the significant ideas and make associations between them. Cohesion in a text is achieved by using a range of cohesive devices that link various parts of the text and make the whole coherent.	Paragraphs	Different text types use paragraphs in different ways. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Text types have typical stages to achieve their purpose. • A stage can consist of one or more paragraphs. • Paragraphs can be ordered and sequenced to increase the effectiveness of stages. 	Topic sentences signal/provide a framework for the development of the text and can make links between previous paragraphs. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The topic sentence can also link back to the opening stage of the text, and helps control the flow of information. • Topic sentences provide a brief summary of main ideas developed in the text.
	Cohesion Text connectives	Clarifying connectives set up links in the text, e.g. in other words, however, in particular.	Text connectives are used to sequence, clarify, add information, show compare/contrast and cause/effect relationships.
	Word associations	Complex patterns of word associations are often found in texts. (particularly information reports) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – e.g. part to whole: “Custard the dragon had big sharp teeth”, “And spikes on top of him and scales underneath” – e.g. class to subclass: “A well - known amphibian is the green frog”. 	Links are implied when words are omitted (ellipsis), e.g. “What can you see?” “. . . (I can see) lots of ash from the eruption.”
	Referring words	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pronouns can link back to noun groups or whole clauses, e.g. I have two chocolates. Would you like one?; Water vapour can be reduced to a liquid. This is called condensation. 	The various text types use characteristic cohesive devices, and these predictable patterns can be changed and manipulated for effect.
Sentence level A text is made up of a number of sentences.	Sentence Mood	Complex sentences are formed when two or more clauses are joined to make a sentence and a dependent relationship exists between them, e.g. The air cooled	Statements, questions and commands can be used in unexpected ways, e.g. Command: “Close the window” compared with statements,

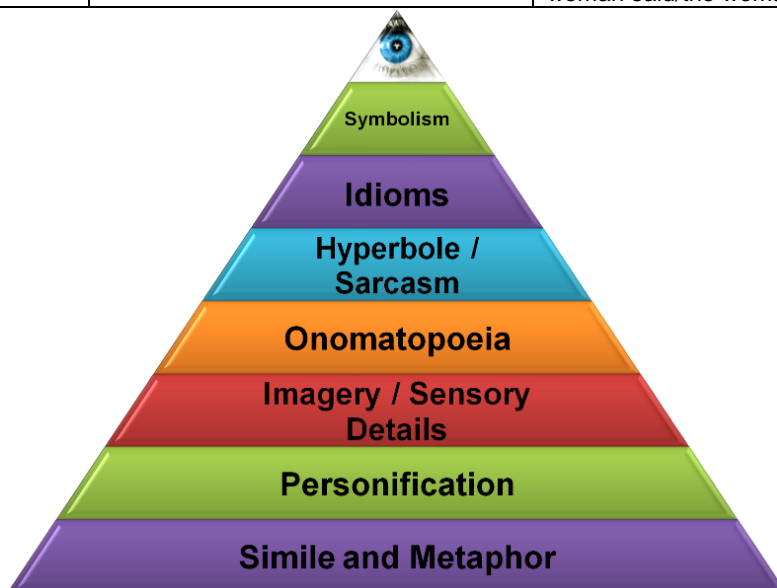
<p>Sentences may consist of a single clause or a number of clauses joined together. Sentences provide information about the:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • writer's relationship with an audience • relationship between ideas • relative importance of ideas. 		<p>(independent clause) because the sun set (dependent clause). Because the sun set (dependent clause), the air became cooler (independent clause).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Complex sentences construct logical relationships between ideas. • Clauses within complex sentences are linked by conjunctions which indicate time, place, manner, reason or condition. 	<p>"Gee, it's cold in here".</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Questions can be used to reinforce potential power relationships, e.g. by someone asking a question who already knows the answer. • Commands can weaken the power of the writer or speaker, e.g. if a person issues a command that is ignored. • Different emphases can be created by changing the order of sentence elements. • Rhetorical questions imply a particular point of view and do not require an answer.
<p>Clause level</p> <p>A clause is the basic unit of meaning in English. It conveys a message by providing information about what is happening, who is taking part, and the circumstances surrounding the activity.</p>	<p>Clause</p> <p>Syntax (structure)</p> <p>Meaning</p> <p>Theme/rheme</p>	<p>The object of a verb can be a direct object or an indirect object, e.g. Marie (subject) gave (verb) her mum (indirect object) a hug (direct object).</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dependent and independent clauses can be used to extend and elaborate ideas and information. • The theme of a clause refers to the first idea or focus of the sentence, and therefore receives the most attention, e.g. "The dog bit the man", "The man was bitten by the dog". • The rheme is the part of the clause that follows the theme and generally adds most of the new information to the sentence. • In English, we use the beginning of the clause (theme) as the starting point for the message. • Changing the beginning focus (theme) of the clause from active to passive shifts the emphasis from "doer" to "done to", e.g. active voice: John (doer) finished (action) the homework (done to); passive voice: The homework (done to) was finished (action) by John (doer). 	<p>Different clause structures expand ideas or give foreground to certain information.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Passive voice can be used for specific purposes, including the hiding of responsibility, e.g. "Hundreds of people were injured" (passive), rather than "The soldiers injured hundreds of people" (active). • Knowledge of theme and rheme can help identify the flow of information through the text. • Different patterns of theme/rheme organisation can be found in different text types. • Clauses may be embedded within other clauses, e.g. The boy playing in the rain lives next door.
<p>Group level</p> <p>A clause consists of smaller "chunks" or groups which do certain jobs. At the core is the verb group. Involved in this action might be one or more persons or things, represented by a noun group.</p>	<p>Noun group</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adjectival phrases provide more information about nouns. They contain a preposition and a noun group, e.g. the book beside the pencil. • Adjectival (relative) clauses can be used to provide more information about nouns, e.g. the book that is next to the pencil. • Nouns can be formed from other words and phrases, e.g. "the trees were chopped down" can become "the felling of the trees". 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verbs and verb groups may be changed into nouns (nominalisation), e.g. "People advertise their products so they can sell more" can become "Advertisements increase product sales". • Nominalisation is a technique for expressing more abstract ideas and arguments. • Nominalisation can cloak the writer's voice to represent opinion as fact.
	<p>Verb group</p>	<p>Verb groups are used to create complex tense structures, e.g. They <i>could have been going to</i> travel on the ship.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Auxiliary verbs help form future and past tenses, e.g. The cat will sleep until noon; The cat was sleeping until noon. • Auxiliary (or "helping" verbs) include: is, are, have, will, can, might. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tense can be varied within a single text to suit changing purposes, e.g. in narratives, past tense is used in narration and present tense in dialogue.
	<p>Adverbial group</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adverbials can move around in the clause: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Happily I went on my way. – I happily went on my way. – I went happily on my way. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adverbials express fine distinctions and detail, e.g. occasionally, from time to time, hardly ever, instead of, sometimes".

		– I went on my way happily.	• The use of adverbials is a matter of style.
	Modality	By attaching one of the <i>modal auxiliaries</i> , e.g. can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, ought, will, would, a text user can give information about the degree of certainty, probability or obligation that attaches to a stated act. – e.g. I must go home (high modality). I might go home (low modality).	Degrees of certainty, probability and obligation can be conveyed through modality to suit the text's purpose.
Word level i) open word classes Open word classes carry the key messages in a text.	Nouns	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nouns can be concrete. • Nouns can be abstract, e.g. factors, effects, consequences, elements, aspects. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nouns can denote the literal meaning of a word and also provide connotation of emotions and feelings associated with it, e.g. wanderer/vagrant. • Common Latin and Greek roots give clues to the origins and history of particular nouns.
Grammatical level	Adjectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Classifying adjectives are used to describe type, e.g. the <i>trapdoor</i> spider. • Opinion adjectives are used to evaluate and express a particular point of view, e.g. the <i>exhausting</i> trip. • Factual adjectives can be abstract or technical. • Extended groups of adjectives are used in descriptions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adjective types are selected to express fine distinction, detail and nuances of meaning in texts. • Adjectives express attitudes, evoke emotions and express judgments.
	Verbs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Purpose and text type determines appropriate tense of the verb. • Thinking/feeling or action verbs can be used to express opinions, evaluate ideas and information, portray people, places, events and things in ways that may appeal to certain groups, and present an issue in a way to persuade a particular audience, e.g. "The boy paced outside the office", compared with "The boy skulked outside the office". 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge about the selection of specific verbs assists with the composition, comprehension, interpretation and critical evaluation of texts. • Tense usually should be consistent across a multi-paragraph text with subject-verb agreement.
	Adverbs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adverbs may be placed in different positions in a sentence, e.g. "Slowly, the dog ate its dinner" or "The dog ate its dinner slowly". • Viewpoint and comment adverbs express the writer/speaker's attitude towards the topic, e.g. Personally, I think he was rude. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adverbs have main sub-classes that: – provide circumstantial information, e.g. She swam <i>strongly</i> across the lake. – express a viewpoint, e.g. <i>Surprisingly</i>, he passed his exam. – decrease or increase emphasis, e.g. She was <i>dreadfully</i> late.
ii) closed word classes Closed word classes act as structural markers in the text and show logical relations between ideas. They do not carry the key message.	Pronouns	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is a difference between subject and object pronouns used in Standard Australian English, e.g. He and his mate went fishing <i>not</i> Him and his mate went fishing. • The tracking of relative pronouns back to the referent noun is important to fully comprehend texts. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The choice of pronouns establishes the relationship with the listener/reader, e.g. using the first person to invite the reader/listener to get "inside the head" of the main character; knowing when it is appropriate to use "I" in an argument.
Grammatical level	Prepositions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Specific prepositions are used in common Standard Australian English phrases to indicate relationships, e.g. to sympathise <i>with</i> someone; to make a choice <i>between</i>; to confide something <i>to</i> someone; to compare 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Specific prepositions are used in more formal and academic Standard Australian English phrases, e.g. to accede <i>to</i> a request; to preface a speech <i>with</i> certain remarks; to

		<i>a with b</i> (contrast) or to compare <i>a to b</i> (similarity); to contrast <i>a with b</i> .	militate <i>against</i> .
	Conjunctions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conjunctions (and, nor, but, or, yet, so) show relationships between two independent clauses Subordinating conjunctions join a dependent (or subordinate) clause to an independent clause. Different relationships between clauses are signalled by conjunctions, e.g. time, cause, contrast. 	

Other types of Language students should be aware of and using

	By the end of Year 7 Explicit teaching focus	By the end of Year 9 Explicit teaching focus
Figurative language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Alliteration Onomatopoeia Similes Metaphor Idiom Personification Irony 	
Evaluative language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Evaluative language can be used to comment on the significance of an event, e.g. it was like a bad dream. Evaluations are intensified or softened by making direct evaluative statements, e.g. <i>It was a devastating flood</i> or by making subtle references through choice of adjectives, verbs and adverbs, e.g. <i>The water gushed over everything</i>. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Speakers and writers express the force of their evaluation through adverbials. They indicate how good or bad something or someone is, e.g. that was totally amazing; adjectives, e.g. the long, dark teatime of the soul; repetition, e.g. Yes! Yes! Yes!; and exclamations, e.g. What! Adjectives describing quotations indicate the degree of trustworthiness of a source, e.g. the woman said/the woman claimed.



SELF EDITING CHECKLIST



Have you:

- ☐ Put in all necessary capital letters?
- ☐ Put full stops at the end of all sentences?
- ☐ Checked for correct use of other punctuation such as question marks, apostrophes and commas?
- ☐ Started your sentences in a variety of interesting ways?
- ☐ Divided your writing into paragraphs?
- ☐ Added or deleted words to enhance meaning?
- ☐ Used correct terminology?
- ☐ Read your work aloud to hear how it will sound to the reader?

Make sure you write right!

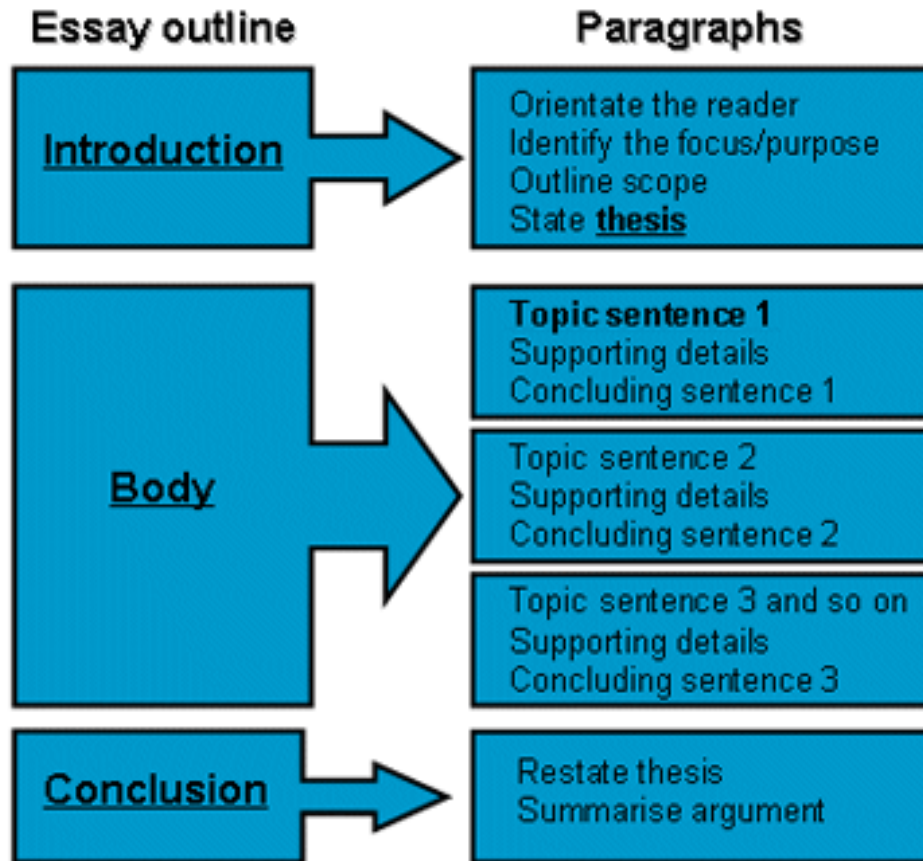
We write differently depending on why we are writing and who we are writing for.

Always consider:

- Who is your **audience**?
- What is your **purpose**?
 - To describe
 - To inform
 - To persuade
 - To explain
 - To recount
 - To instruct
 - To entertain.

<u>Text forms</u>				
Rules	Narratives	Interviews	Blurbs	
	Descriptions	Song lyrics	Instructions	Diaries
Menus	Surveys	Notes	Messages	Reports
	Directions			
Labels	Glossaries	Essays	Editorials	
	Biographies	Timetables	Retells	Lists
Summaries	Memos	Poems	Fairy tales	
	Fables	Cartoons	Complaints	Myths
Recipes	Journals	Slogans	Indexes	Explanations
	Personal Letters	Reviews	Headlines	
Brochure	Autobiographies	Plan	Jokes	
	Newspaper report	Invitations	Postcards	
Letters to the Editor	Short story	Science Investigation		

How do I write an essay?



An essay is a formal way of presenting ideas and opinions in a written form. To develop your essay writing skills you need to develop your understanding of the structure and language used in essays.

Essay structure:

1. INTRODUCTION
2. BODY
3. CONCLUSION

There are many theories as to how to write a good essay. Your teachers may give you differing versions and expectations will vary between Learning Areas but the following suggestions are a series of general principles and a set of strategies. If you're just starting to write essays following these ideas will help you build a strong base:

An essay should contain:

- a. **An introduction.** This section, usually one paragraph in length, should briefly introduce and establish the essential point or argument of your essay. It should contain a thesis statement. **The thesis statement is:** one

sentence which directly states your essay's main argument/opinion/idea. It works well if you make it the last sentence of your introduction.

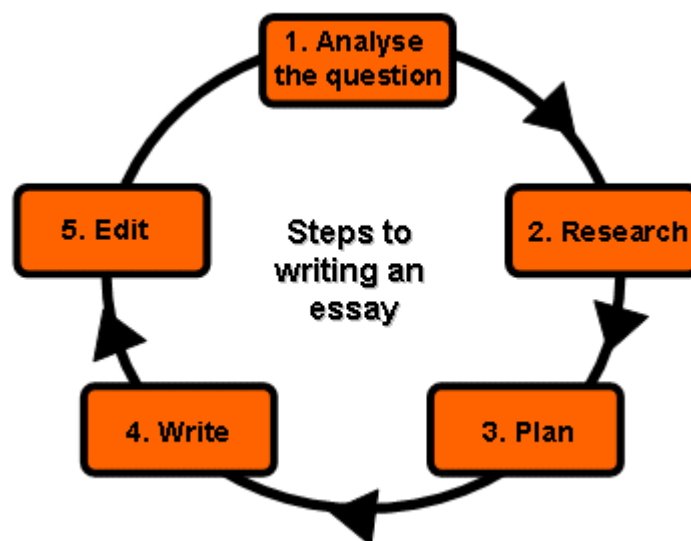
- b. **A body.** A number of paragraphs in which you explain, develop and illustrate your argument. You would have at least three paragraphs in the body of a simple essay but then build the number of paragraphs when you have more ideas to discuss and are required to write longer essays.
- c. **A conclusion.** Usually one paragraph in which the essay's argument is completed.

A few hints on essay writing:

- * Your language needs to be more formal than you're probably used to writing. Developing your formal language takes time and practice but as a starting point make sure that you don't use slang Eg. use the word "children" instead of "kids" and don't abbreviate words with apostrophes Eg. write "do not" instead of "don't".
- * Don't make a statement of intention in your introduction. Eg. "In my essay I am going to prove..."
- * Generally don't write "I think..." or "It is my opinion..." Just write your opinion!

Remember:

A well written and structured essay doesn't just flow word perfect from your mind onto the page (like you see on TV when writers are shown at work!). It takes careful planning and drafting. Write a plan. Write topic sentences and a thesis statement. A good essay is drafted, edited & proofread.



ESSAY STRUCTURES — TYPES OF ESSAY

In school, students are asked to write a variety of essays. This will include some, or all, of these depending on the learning area:

EXPOSITORY/EXPLANATION ESSAY:

This sets out to explain something to the reader: a process, phenomenon, trend or situation. Its main purpose is to increase the readers' understanding of the topic. They ask you to talk about causes, effects, reasons or factors. More complicated explanation essays might ask you to talk about both causes and effects. **You do not** have to argue for a point of view in an explanation essay. You often need to define the phenomenon, trend, or process being explained either in the introduction or in the paragraph just after it. You will generally use more fact than opinion.

Explanation essays are more commonly asked for in History, Geography and the Social Sciences than in English, although English questions on writer's techniques are explanations.

What is the effect of alcohol on adolescents?

Explain the design process you used to construct your project.

DISCURSIVE ESSAY:

This sets out to explore its topic by looking at it from different viewpoints, often using a 'for and against' approach. Often these essays ultimately give an overall opinion at the end, in the Conclusion. Although you may have formed your opinion before you start writing, you don't show this. By doing this you are saying to your reader: *I have now weighed up these arguments for and against, and here is what I have concluded.* You need to clearly state your overall opinion on the essay question in your Conclusion. As with argument essays it may not be clearly one side or the other – it may be somewhere in between. Some discussion essay questions are not so much "the arguments for and against" kind. Instead they are "the issues around" kind. For example, *Discuss the significance of body image in modern society.* The word *discuss* is used in all sorts of ways, so it is always wise to check what your teacher wants from an essay. Discussion essays are more commonly asked for in English, History and Economics than in other subjects. Possible discursive essay topics:

Discuss the role of immigration in Australia today.

Discuss the impact of technology in the banking industry.

DESCRIPTIVE ESSAY:

This provides information and paints a word picture of someone or something.

Describe the opening ceremony of the 2008 Olympics.
Describe a person whom you admire.

ANALYTICAL ESSAY:

This separates its topic into parts in order to examine and understand it more fully.

Analyse the role of the media in Australia.
Analyse the role of women in Aboriginal society.

ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAY:

This sets out to persuade the reader to hold a particular view by presenting him/her with both sides of an argument, heading to a logical conclusion. You need to clearly state which side you are on in the Introduction. However, you don't always have to totally agree or disagree with the statement in the question. You can have a view somewhere in between, but you must argue for this view and not just "sit on the fence". You may need to clarify what the issue is, or define key words in the question before you start on the main paragraphs of the Body – especially if you are not totally agreeing or disagreeing. It can be a good idea to include an argument on the opposing side to show you are aware of this view, and to add a comment which rubuts it. You can do this straight after the Introduction or just before the Conclusion. You will generally use both fact and opinion. In literature essays the "fact" will often be evidence from literary texts which supports your opinion. Argument essays are more commonly asked for in English, Drama and History than in other subjects.

Should single women be eligible for the IVF programme?
Should food be genetically modified?

COMPARATIVE ESSAY:

This compares one text or idea with another. It is structured in the same way as an argumentative or a discursive essay.

Compare William's and Hugh's views on the settlement of Botany Bay.
Compare the effectiveness of two ways of joining wood.

NAPLAN Prep: the persuasive writing essay



Introductory Paragraph

- Grab the reader's attention by using a "hook."
- Give an overview of the argument.
- Close with a thesis statement that reveals the position to be argued.

Body Paragraphs

- Each body paragraph should focus on one piece of evidence.
- Within each paragraph, provide sufficient supporting detail.

Opposing View Paragraph

1. Describe and then refute the key points of the opposing view.

Concluding Paragraph

- Restate and reinforce the thesis and supporting evidence.

2. Drafting the Persuasive Essay

When writing the initial draft of a persuasive essay, consider the following suggestions:

- The introductory paragraph should have a strong “hook” that grabs the reader’s attention. Open with an unusual fact or statistic, a question or quotation, or an emphatic statement. For example: “Driving while talking on a cell phone, even hands-free, is the equivalent of driving drunk.”
- The thesis statement should leave no doubts about the writer’s position.
- Each body paragraph should cover a separate point, and the sentences of each paragraph should offer strong evidence in the form of facts, statistics, quotes from experts, and real-life examples.
- Consider various ways to make the argument, including using an analogy, drawing comparisons, or illustrating with hypothetical situation (e.g., what if, suppose that...).
- Don’t assume the audience has in-depth knowledge of the issue. Define terms and give background information.
- The concluding paragraph should summarize the most important evidence and encourage the reader to adopt the position or take action. The closing sentence can be a dramatic plea, a prediction that implies urgent action is needed, a question that provokes readers to think seriously about the issue, or a recommendation that gives readers specific ideas on what they can do.

3. Revising the Persuasive Essay

In the revision phase, students review, modify, and reorganize their work with the goal of making it the best it can be. Keep these considerations in mind:

- Does the essay present a firm position on the issue, supported by relevant facts, statistics, quotes, and examples?
- Does the essay open with an effective “hook” that intrigues readers and keeps them reading?
- Does each paragraph offer compelling evidence focused on a single supporting point?
- Is the opposing point of view presented and convincingly refuted?
- Is the sentence structure varied? Is the word choice precise? Do the transitions between sentences and paragraphs help the reader’s understanding?
- Does the concluding paragraph convey the value of the writer’s position and urge the reader to think and act?

If the essay is still missing the mark, take another look the thesis. Does it present the strongest argument? Test it by writing a thesis statement for the opposing viewpoint. In comparison, does the original thesis need strengthening? Once the thesis presents a well-built argument with a clear adversarial viewpoint, the rest of the essay should fall into place more easily.

4. Editing the Persuasive Essay

Next, proofread and correct errors in grammar and mechanics, and edit to improve style and clarity. Having a friend read the essay helps writers edit with a fresh perspective.

A Sample Persuasive Essay

Whilst planning sounds like extra work - it's not actually. Once you've written your plan properly you're half way towards finishing your essay. Your plan is your essay's skeleton - once you've planned all you need to do is flesh it out.

Topic: Rats are the greatest enemy of mankind

Notice that your plan may only contain a few words to record the main idea for each paragraph.

- Plan:**
- | | | |
|----|------------|--|
| 1. | Intro | - their danger to mankind |
| 2. | Body | - their great numbers
- kinds of rats in Australia
- their ruthless habits |
| 3. | Conclusion | - our fight against rats |

Topic Sentences:

- # 1 **Rats are the greatest enemy of mankind.**
- # 2 Rats breed in startling numbers.
- # 3 In Australia, there are three species of rats - the brown rat, the common black rat and the rat with whitish belly.
- # 4 Whatever their species, rats are quite ruthless.
- # 5 Our war against rats should be continuous.

You probably won't need a topic sentence for your introduction as you will have your thesis statement instead

The ideas in your plan are then converted into sentences.

Essay:

topic sentences

It has been estimated that two thousand million people have died from diseases spread by rats during the past two thousand years. All kinds of rats carry all kinds of rat fleas, and all rat fleas carry plague. **Rats are the greatest enemy of mankind.**

thesis statement

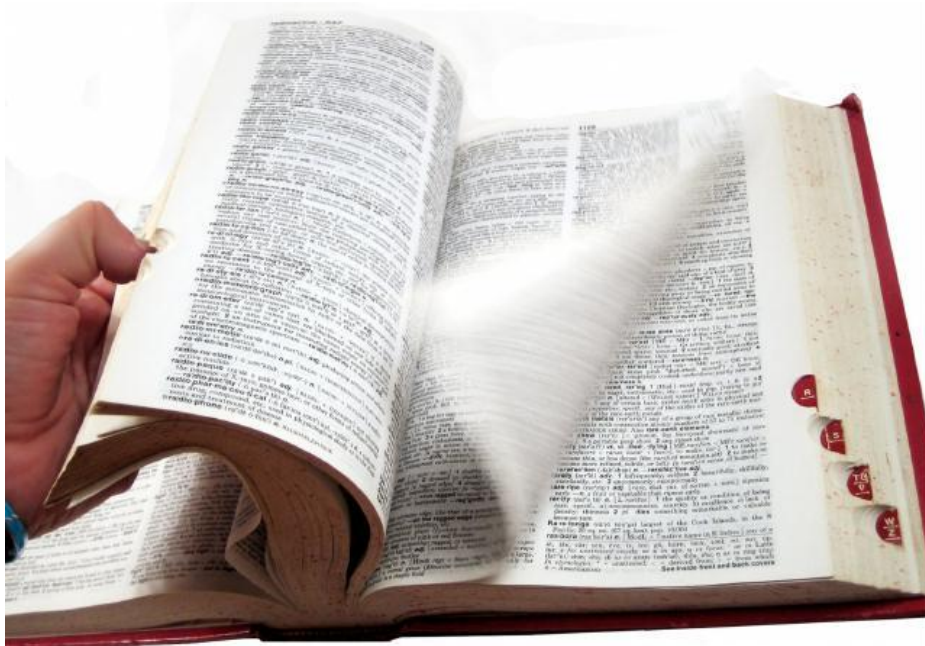
Rats breed in startling numbers. There are about three rats to every man, woman and child on the earth. In some areas the proportion is nearly one hundred rats to every human. They breed rapidly - four litters per year and each litter of six. Their rate of increase is alarming.

In Australia, there are three species of rats - the brown rat, the common black rat and the rat with whitish belly. The brown rat lives in burrows, basements of buildings and sewers; its claws are rather blunt, being adapted for burrowing. The common black rat is the house rat; its claws are more delicate and adapted for climbing. Its ears are fairly long and its tail longer than its body. The black rat, with whitish belly, usually known as the fruit rat, climbs trees and inhabits roofs and upper floors of buildings.

Whatever their species, rats are quite ruthless. They are carnivorous in that they eat their young when the nest is overcrowded or when the mother cannot, by reason of food shortage, suckle them. When starving, they will eat one another - a case of survival of the fittest.

Our war against rats should be continuous. We must starve them. We must prevent them from breeding by keeping food in rat-proof containers - not only fresh food but also waste food. Rubbish bins must be rat-proof. Standard methods of rat control, such as trapping, laying poison and fumigation, must be vigorously applied. The rat is a deadly enemy that will fight to the last. Indeed, in many countries, it should be labelled Public Enemy Number One.

A Glossary of Common Key Words Within Essay Questions



Account

Account for: state reasons for, report on. Give an account of: narrate a series of events or transactions

Analyse

Identify components and the relationship between them; draw out and relate implications

Apply

Use, utilise, employ in a particular situation

Appreciate

Make a judgement about the value of

Assess

Make a judgement of value, quality, outcomes, results or size

Calculate

Ascertain/determine from given facts, figures or information

Clarify

Make clear or plain

Classify

Arrange or include in classes/categories

Compare

Show how things are similar or different

Construct

Make; build; put together items or arguments

Contrast

Show how things are different or opposite

Critically (analyse/evaluate)

Add a degree or level of accuracy depth, knowledge and understanding, logic, questioning, reflection and quality to (analyse/evaluate)

Deduce

Draw conclusions

Define

State meaning and identify essential qualities

Demonstrate

Show by example

Describe

Provide characteristics and features

Discuss

Identify issues and provide points for and/or against

Distinguish

Recognise or note/indicate as being distinct or different from; to note differences between

Evaluate

Make a judgement based on criteria; determine the value of

Examine

Inquire into

Explain

Relate cause and effect; make the relationships between things evident; provide why and/or how

Extract

Choose relevant and/or appropriate details

Extrapolate

Infer from what is known

Identify

Recognise and name

Interpret

Draw meaning from

Investigate

Plan, inquire into and draw conclusions about

Justify

Support an argument or conclusion

Outline

Sketch in general terms; indicate the main features of

Predict

Suggest what may happen based on available information

Propose

Put forward (for example a point of view, idea, argument, suggestion) for consideration or action

Recall

Present remembered ideas, facts or experiences

Recommend

Provide reasons in favour

Recount

Retell a series of events

Summarise

Express, concisely, the relevant details

Synthesise

Putting together various elements to make a whole

Scaffolding Key Terms

Scaffold for **Analyse**

Analyse – identify components and the relationship between them; draw out and relate implications.

Topic to be analysed:

Component
Elaboration and support:

Component
Elaboration and support:

Relationship

Point:
Elaboration and support:

Component
Elaboration and support:

Component
Elaboration and support:

Relationship

Point:
Elaboration and support:

Implications of the relationship between each of these components:

Points to note:

Statement of topic taken from the question.

Preview of components and the relationships.

Topic sentence at the beginning of each paragraph followed by explanation and examples to illustrate each component.

Use linking words between each point such as *therefore, thus, as a result, leading to*, in order to illustrate the relationship between each of the components.

Identifying and explaining the relationship between the various components is essential in answering these questions.

The implications of the relationship (what happens/what effect it has) can be dealt with in each of the paragraphs or as a concluding paragraph.

Scaffold for **Assess**

Assess – Make a judgement of value, quality, outcomes, results or size.

Issue to be assessed:

Either:

Point for (advantages):
Elaboration and support:

Point for (advantages):
Elaboration and support:

Point for (advantages):
Elaboration and support:

Or:

Point against (disadvantages):
Elaboration and support:

Point against (disadvantages):
Elaboration and support:

Point against (disadvantages):
Elaboration and support:

Conclusion and judgement:

Points to note:

Statement of topic to be assessed which reflects your view point or judgement.

Preview of points for and against and concluding judgement.

Topic sentence at the beginning of each paragraph **followed by explanation and examples** to illustrate point.

Elaboration and support needs to include information about the **value, quality or outcomes** of the point being discussed. This can also refer to negative criticism about the point.

Use linking words such as: *therefore, because, however, for instance, for example, as a result.*

Information used to make a judgement needs to be **explained** in your elaboration and then **examples** given to support it.

Must make a judgement at the end either for OR against the argument based on the value, quality or outcomes of the topic.

Scaffold for Compare

Compare – show how things are similar or different.

Issue to be compared:

Similarities

Point:

Elaboration and support:

Point:

Elaboration and support:

Point:

Elaboration and support:

Differences

Point:

Elaboration and support:

Point:

Elaboration and support:

Point:

Elaboration and support:

Conclusion and judgement:

Points to note:

Identify the things to be compared from the question.

Preview each point you will raise.

Topic sentence at the beginning of each point followed by explanation and relevant examples to illustrate point.

Use linking words

between each point such as: *also, in addition similarly, another similarity is*".

"For instance", "This can be seen in", "An example of this is" and "for example" can be used to start sentences that provide examples for your points.

Must **make a judgement** related to the similarities and differences in the topic.

Scaffold for **critically evaluate**

Critically evaluate – add a degree or level of accuracy, depth, knowledge and understanding, logic, questioning, reflection and quality to *evaluate*.

Evaluate - make a judgement based on criteria; determine the value of.

Issue to be critically evaluated:

Points to note:

Statement of topic to be critically evaluated.

Preview of points for and against and concluding judgement.

Topic sentence at the beginning of each paragraph followed by explanation and examples to illustrate point.

Points could also be **advantages and disadvantages** instead of for and against.

Use linking words (such as: therefore, because, however, for instance, for example, as a result).

Criteria used to make a judgement could be used during the points for and against to illustrate unclear reference more clearly.

Brief summary of points for and against.

Must make a judgement at the end either for OR against the argument and draw conclusions regarding about support for or against issue through the use of a criteria.

Point for:

Elaboration and support:

Point for:

Elaboration and support:

Point against:

Elaboration and support:

Point against:

Elaboration and support:

Criteria used to assess points for and against:

Conclusion and judgement:

Scaffold for **critically analyse**

Critically analyse – add a degree or level of accuracy, depth, knowledge and understanding, logic, questioning, reflection and quality to *analyse*.

Analyse – identify components and the relationship between them; draw out and relate implications.

Topic to be analysed:

Component
Elaboration and support:

Component
Elaboration and support:

Relationship

Point:
Elaboration and support:

Component
Elaboration and support:

Component
Elaboration and support:

Relationship

Point:
Elaboration and support:

Implications of the relationship between each of these components:

Points to note:

Statement of topic which reflects how deeply you have thought about the question.

Preview of components and the relationships.

Topic sentence at the beginning of each paragraph followed by explanations and examples to illustrate each component.

Identifying and explaining the relationship between the various components is essential in answering these questions.

Use linking words between each point such as *therefore*, *thus*, *as a result*, *leading to*, in order to illustrate the relationship between each of the components.

The implications of the relationship (what happens, what effect it has) can be dealt with in each of the paragraphs or as a concluding paragraph.

Scaffold for Define

Define – state meaning and identify essential qualities.

Objects or items to be defined:

Essential quality

Brief description and example:

Essential quality

Brief description and example:

Essential quality

Brief description and example:

Points to note:

Topic sentence that states the meaning of the term in the question.

May need to **include examples to illustrate** the essential qualities of the team or object being defined.

This should only be a **brief overview** of the team no more than one example is needed.

There is no need to include a concluding paragraph.

Scaffold for **demonstrate**

Demonstrate – show by example; illustrate (in words).

Issue to be demonstrated:

Example:

Elaboration and support:

Example:

Elaboration and support:

Example:

Elaboration and support:

Example:

Elaboration and support:

Conclusion:

Points to note:

Statement of topic to be demonstrated.

Preview of points and examples.

Topic sentence at the beginning of each paragraph that describes an example, followed by an explanation to illustrate point.

Elaboration and support needs to include explanation about the example and how it links to the question.

Use linking words such as: *therefore, because, however, for instance, for example, as a result.*

Brief summary of examples and how they link to the topic and the question.

Scaffold for **describe**

Describe – provide characteristics and features.

Issue to be described:

Characteristic or feature

Description and example:

Characteristic or feature

Description and example:

Characteristic or feature

Description and example:

Characteristic or feature

Description and example:

Conclusion:

Points to note:

Statement of issue.

Preview of each characteristic or feature.

Topic sentence at the beginning of each paragraph that states characteristic or feature followed by a description and examples to illustrate point.

Use linking words such as: *for instance, for example, including* to introduce your examples.

Brief summary of main characteristics and features. Not necessary if you have given a thorough description in the body of your answer.

Scaffold for **discuss**

Discuss – identify issues and provide points for and / or against.

Issue to be discussed:

Point for:

Elaboration and support:

Point for:

Elaboration and support:

Point against:

Elaboration and support:

Point against:

Elaboration and support:

Conclusion:

Points to note:

Statement of issue from your point of view (without using “I”) making your preferred side clear.

Preview of each point.

Topic sentence at the beginning of each paragraph followed by explanation and examples to illustrate point.

Use linking words such as: *therefore, because, however, for instance, for example.*

Brief summary of points for and against.

Draw conclusions regarding support for or against issue.

Scaffold for **distinguish**

Distinguish - recognise or note / indicate as being distinct or different from; to note differences between.

Issue to be discussed:

Points to note:

Statement of issue.

Preview of each point of difference.

Topic sentence at the beginning of each point followed by explanation and examples to illustrate point.

Use linking words between each point such as: *also, in addition, similarly.*

For instance and *for example* can be used to start sentences that provide examples for your points.

Use linking words such as: *on the other hand, whereas, in contrast to, however.*

You can again use *for instance, for example* to start sentences that provide examples for your points.

Differences

Point:
Elaboration and support:

Point:
Elaboration and support:

Point:
Elaboration and support:

Point:
Elaboration and support:

Point:
Elaboration and support:

Point:
Elaboration and support:

Conclusion and judgement:

Scaffold for **evaluate**

Evaluate - make a judgement based on criteria; determine the value of.

Issue to be evaluated:

Point for:

Elaboration and support:

Point for:

Elaboration and support:

Point against:

Elaboration and support:

Point against:

Elaboration and support:

Criteria used to assess points for and against:

Conclusion and judgement:

Points to note:

Statement of topic to be evaluated.

Preview of points for and against your judgement (without using "I").

Topic sentence at the beginning of each paragraph followed by explanation and examples to illustrate point.

Points could also be **advantages and disadvantages** instead of for and against.

Use linking words such as: *therefore, because, however, for instance, for example, as a result.*

Criteria used to make a judgement could be used during the points for and against the argument to **illustrate these more clearly.**

Brief summary of points for and against.

Restate judgement at the end either for OR against the argument.

Scaffold for **examine**

Examine – Inquire into.

Issue to be examined:

Point:

Elaboration and support:

Point:

Elaboration and support:

Point:

Elaboration and support:

Point:

Elaboration and support:

Conclusion:

Statement of issue.

Preview of each point of inquiry.

Topic sentence at the beginning of each paragraph followed by explanation and examples to illustrate point.

Use linking words such as: *therefore, because, however, for instance, for example.*

Brief summary of points.

May draw conclusions regarding support for the issue.

Scaffold for **explain**

Explain – relate cause and effect; make the relationships between things evident.

Topic to be explained:

Causes and effects

Cause

Elaboration and support::

Effect

Elaboration and support:

Relationship

Point:

Elaboration and support:

Causes and effects

Cause

Elaboration and support:

Effect

Elaboration and support:

Relationship

Point:

Elaboration and support:

Why and / or how causes relate to effects.

Points to note:

Statement of topic.

Preview of causes and effects.

Topic sentence at the beginning of each point on causes followed by explanation and examples to illustrate each cause.

Topic sentence at the beginning of each point on effects followed by explanation and examples to illustrate the link to cause.

Use linking words

between each point (such as: therefore, thus, as a result, leading to), to illustrate the relationship.

Topic sentence that shows the direct link between cause and effect. Examples essential to further show the link.

The **why and/or how** can be illustrated within the previous paragraphs or separately at the end.

Scaffold for **Identify**

Identify – recognise and name.

Objects or aspects to be identified:

Aspect or object

Brief description and example:

Aspect or object

Brief description and example:

Aspect or object

Brief description and example:

Points to note:

Topic sentence that names the objects or aspect as asked in the question.

May need to **include examples to illustrate** you recognise what each item or object is.

This should only be a **brief overview** of the topic no more than one example per item.

There is no need to include a concluding paragraph.

Scaffold for **investigate**

Investigate – plan, inquire into and draw conclusions about.

Issue to be investigated:

Points to note:

Statement of issue.

Preview of plan of inquiry and conclusions.

Topic sentence at the beginning of each paragraph that describes the point you are investigating followed by explanation and examples to illustrate point.

Use linking words such as: *therefore, because, however, for instance, for example.*

Link each paragraph using words such as: *also, secondly, finally, etc.*

Brief summary of points that were investigated and the conclusions drawn on each point.

Must draw conclusions at the end from the information you have gathered in your investigation.

Point:

Elaboration and support:

Point:

Elaboration and support:

Point:

Elaboration and support:

Point:

Elaboration and support:

Conclusion:

Scaffold for **justify**

Justify – support an argument, opinion or conclusion.

Argument or point of view:

Points to note:

Statement of argument showing **your opinion** on it.

Preview of each point of argument.

Topic sentence at the beginning of each paragraph followed by explanation and examples to illustrate point.

Use linking words such as: *therefore, because, however, for instance, for example* to build your argument and clearly link examples to points.

Brief summary of points of argument and a concluding statement to restate your point of view.

Point for:

Elaboration and support:

Point for:

Elaboration and support:

Point for:

Elaboration and support:

Point for:

Elaboration and support:

Conclusion:

Scaffold for **outline**

Outline – state in general terms; indicate the main features.

Issue to be outlined:

Points to note:

Statement of issue in the question.

Preview of each characteristic or feature.

Characteristic or feature

Brief description and example:

Topic sentence at the beginning of each paragraph that states main features followed by a description and examples to illustrate point.

Characteristic or feature

Brief description and example:

Use linking words such as: *for instance, for example, including, and such as* to introduce your examples.

Characteristic or feature

Brief description and example:

This should only be a brief overview of the topic no more than two sentences per feature.

Characteristic or feature

Brief description and example:

There is no need to include a concluding paragraph.

Biography/Historical Recount

Purpose: Informs by recounting events and achievements in a person's life.

Examples:

English - life of a poet.

Society & Environment - life of a famous explorer.

Maths/Science - life of a famous mathematician/scientist.

The Arts - life of a musician, dramatist or artist.

Framework

Names the person, tells when he or she lived and why he or she is famous.
(Names the event and where it occurred if writing a historical account)

Introduction

Early years - important events told in chronological order.

Adulthood - important events in their life told in chronological order.

Body

Include the people and experiences that have influenced the subject's achievements.

Achievements.

Restatement of their reason for fame and the subject's contribution to society.

Reorientation

Biography example

Helen Keller

Helen Keller was a famous American who lived from 1880-1968. Although she was blind, deaf and mute, she overcame her handicaps, went to university and became a famous author and lecturer.

Helen Keller was born in the state of Alabama in 1880. She became ill at the age of nineteen months and as a result she became blind, deaf and mute. From the age of seven, Helen was taught by Annie Sullivan. Under Annie's instruction, Helen learned sign language by touch and to use the Braille system to read. She also learned to write using a special typewriter. In 1890, Helen learned how to speak. 1900 was a special year because Helen passed her examinations and was allowed to enter university with honours in 1904.

After university, Helen needed to find a way to make a living, so she wrote her autobiography The Story of my Life, which became a best seller. She became involved in the suffragette movement and also worked on her voice. As a result, her ability to speak and to be understood improved greatly.

However, Helen was to face financial problems during her lifetime. In order to make ends meet, she made many lecture tours, wrote several books, made a motion picture based on her life and even appeared in stage shows. Once again, she refused to let circumstances defeat her.

Helen Keller was not just concerned with her own circumstances; she was also concerned for other handicapped people. She gave many lecture tours and wrote books to make the public aware of the needs of the physically handicapped.

Annie Sullivan stayed with Helen Keller throughout her life. She died in 1936. Helen Keller died in 1968. During her life she showed great courage in overcoming huge difficulties to live life to the full.

Orientation - name, dates, reason why she is famous.

List of important events in his/her life in chronological order - early years.

List of important events in his/her life in chronological order - adulthood.

Achievements

Achievements

Reorientation - restatement of why he/she is famous.

Business Letter

Purpose: To inform the reader.

Examples:

English - letter of complaint.

Society & Environment - job application.

Health - request for information.

Framework

Statement of intent.	Introduction
Gives the writer's background and experience.	Thesis
Argument with supporting evidence to persuade the reader.	Body
Argument with supporting evidence to persuade the reader.	
Argument with supporting evidence to persuade the reader.	
Restatement of thesis. May include a recommendation or suggestions.	Conclusion

Business Letter example

26 Juniper Terrace
EATON WA 6232

Mrs Alice Jones
The Manager
AV Sports
11 Steepford Street
BUNBURY WA 62300

Dear Mrs Jones

I am currently seeking part-time employment and would like to apply for a position with your company.

I am currently enrolled in Year 10 at Eaton Community College and am interested in pursuing a career in the retail industry. My previous work experience includes working in a newsagency which has given me experience in customer service and money handling.

I enjoy working in a retail environment and feel I am able to interact in a positive and polite manner with customers. I am honest and hardworking and am able to be flexible with regard to days and time of work.

Please find enclosed a copy of my curriculum vitae, including the names of two referees. If you have any vacancies for part time employees, please contact me on 9789 3340.

Yours faithfully

Amanda Burke
Amanda Burke.

23rd July 2006

Address of sender.

Name and address of receiver.

Greeting

Thesis

Background and experience.

Argument

Conclusion/Restatement of thesis and suggestion.

Salutation

Signature

Printed name

Date

Explanation

Purpose: Explains the ways things are, how they work or how they are formed or made.

Examples:

Society & Environment - how bushfires occur.

Health - what is a healthy meal?

The Arts - how a musical instrument works.

Framework

Identifies and defines what is to be explained.

Introduction

Explanation - explains how or why in a logical sequence.

Body

Other special features or comments.

Conclusion

Explanation example

The Recorder

The recorder is a type of flute that has a whistle mouth piece. The instrument consists of a wooded or plastic tube with a row of seven finger holes and a thumb hole.

The recorder is held almost vertically and the holes are covered or uncovered to play. The mouth piece has two holes, the second angled to make the air vibrate. When a player has blown into the mouthpiece, the air carrying the “squeak” vibrates as it passes down the tube and out the holes in the side. The pitch of the note depends on how far the air must travel before it can escape; the further the distance the lower the sound.

The recorder was invented during the Middle Ages and has remained basically unchanged. It became popular during the 1400’s and the 1500’s and was an important part of the Renaissance. In the 16th and 17th centuries, recorders were often used in orchestras as flutes. By the mid 1700’s, the modern flute had largely replaced the recorder. Since about 1920, however, a revival of interest has developed in the recorder and in the recorder music of the Renaissance and baroque periods of music history.

There are five members of the recorder family. The highest is the sopranino, but most beginners start with the descant. The alto, treble and the tenor are more difficult to play as the holes are further apart. The lowest is the bass, which also uses keys, as the lowest hole is too far away for little fingers to reach.

Most woodwind players begin by learning on a recorder as it is cheap and popular with schools. The fingering is also similar to orchestral woodwind instruments. The recorder is a versatile instrument.

Introduction - identifies and defines what is to be explained.

Body - the explanation in logical sequence.

Conclusion - other comments.

Information Report/Factual Description

Purpose: There are many reasons to write a report such as: to describe, to explain, to examine, to review or to discuss.

A report, unlike an essay, can contain:

Headings and sub headings, maps, tables, photos and diagrams, graphs, lists and written information - in paragraphs.

That means you can present your information and ideas in many different ways.

Examples:

English - write a report on life in 1960.

Society & Environment - write a report on household greenhouse gas emissions.

Science - write a report on the impact of an introduced animal.

Health - write a report on the dangers of smoking.

Framework

Introduce the topic by definition, classification or generalisation.

Introduction

Description - one idea per paragraph.

Description - one idea per paragraph.

Body

Can include: sub-headings, diagrams, tables, graphs and illustrations.

Description - one idea per paragraph.

Restate main points and review the possible effects and outcomes.

Conclusion

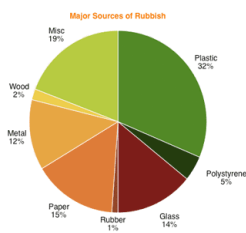
Information Report example

Clean Up Australia Day

The first Sunday in March is Clean Up Australia Day. Every year thousands of people give up their time to help make Australia cleaner and safer for everyone to enjoy. But Clean Up Australia Day is not simply about picking up rubbish; rather it's a catalyst for change and long term improvements in littering behaviours that will protect our environment in the future.

What We've Found

Products made from plastic have been the major rubbish type polluting our environment for the last ten years contributing over 30% to the total rubbish collected. This figure has been steadily increasing since 1999.



The Top Ten Least Wanted Items

The cigarette butt is the most commonly found single rubbish item and is always number one on this list. Other single rubbish items consistently in this list are plastic chip and confectionary bags, glass alcoholic drink bottles, plastic bottle caps or lids, small paper pieces, glass pieces, foil wrappers, soft drink cans, metal bottle caps, PET and other plastic drink bottles and plastic straws...in other words, all the waste generated by a great day out and left behind!

In Conclusion

A full version of this report will soon be available on our website www.cleanup.com.au.

Clean Up Australia's Rubbish Report is an important resource used by government authorities, community groups, business, industry and schools. It provides an indication of littering habits and the types of waste polluting our environment. It

Report title

Introduction - define the topic of the report.

Body
Sub-headings

Graph

Conclusion - possible effects and outcomes.

aims to assist in guiding government agencies and directing education campaigns to combat the problem of litter in Australia.

Letter to the Editor

Purpose: To comment on a topical or controversial issue and to persuade the reader.

Examples:

English - letter to the editor on a topical issue.

Society & Environment - letter to the editor in regards to nuclear weapon testing.

Health - letter to the editor complaining about alcohol advertising.

Framework

Purpose for writing the letter, including statement of problem.

Introduction

Gives the writer's opinion or point of view.

Opinion/thesis

Argument and supporting evidence to persuade the reader.

Body

Argument and supporting evidence to persuade the reader.

Restatement of opinion/thesis. May include a recommendation.

Conclusion

Letter to the Editor example

21 Halley Avenue
EATON WA 6232

The Editor
WA Newspapers
Private Bag 54 GPO
PERTH WA 6001

Dear Sir/Madam

The article 'Dumped Cats on Death Row' (25/11) suggested that people who don't sterilise their cats were to blame for kitten overpopulation and dumping. It leads me to wonder whether overpopulation is, in fact, the only reason for people's changing attitude towards cats and kittens. I think there is more to this issue than simply having pet owners sterilise their cats.

Cat owners should lock their cats up at night; this would not only prevent the overpopulation of unwanted kittens, but also, more importantly, protect our flora and fauna from the destruction caused by roaming cats. Furthermore, locking cats in at night would stop catfights, which usually end up with costly vet bills for one or both cat owners.

I suggest that if cat lovers want to retain their rights as pet owners they should do the right thing. Sure, sterilise their cats but, even more importantly, lock them in at night. Penalties should apply to those who don't follow these basic and fair guidelines.

Yours faithfully

Mitzy Warner
Mitzy Warner

27th November 2006

Address of sender.

Name and address of receiver.

Greeting

Introduction - purpose for writing the letter, including statement of problem.

Opinion/Thesis

Body - argument and supporting evidence.

Conclusion

Restatement of opinion/thesis.

Recommendation

Salutation

Signature
Printed name

Date

Narrative - short story.

Purpose: To entertain the reader/present themes and issues.

Examples:

English - short story writing.

Society & Environment - write an Aboriginal Dreamtime story.

Science - my life as a microbe.

Framework

Sets time and place and establishes characters.

Orientation

Complication - problems/conflicts to be solved by the character/s.

Complication.

Body

Complication.

The solution or outcome of the complication/s.

Resolution

Narrative example

Euganu - The First Snail
(An Aboriginal Myth)

In the beginning, the Wingalong tribe (Kangaroo men) were very good hunters. As they exhausted the food supply in one area, they packed up their belongings and moved on. The Wingalong people were very big and strong and had a tail - just like a kangaroo.

There was a man in the tribe by the name of Euganu who was very smart but also very lazy. For many days the tribe would work on building a new home in their new hunting area, only for it to be left behind when they moved on to a new area.

Euganu was becoming angry at having to always build a new home, so when it came time for the next move, Euganu told the elders of his plan to save time and work and carry his hut on his back. The elders just laughed at him.

That very night Euganu crept out of his hut, heaved it onto his back and set off, leaving a trail of stick behind him so that if he got lost he would be able to find his way back to the tribe.

As time wore on, the hut became heavier and heavier. Euganu eventually tried to pull the hut off his back, but it was, by now, embedded deeply into his sweaty skin and would not budge.

Soon a strange thing began to happen - he began to get smaller and smaller under the weight of his home. As he became smaller, he became frightened and sweaty and began to exude a slimy substance.

One day, though, he realised that although he was now very small, the weight of his house was just right. To this day Euganu wanders through the forests, leaving trails behind him looking for a new hunting ground.

Title

Orientation - introduces the characters and sets the story in time and place.

Complication

Complication

Resolution

Complication

Resolution

Newspaper Report

Purpose: Informs the public of current events.

Examples:

English - a newspaper report about an imaginary event.

Society & Environment - a newspaper report on an environmental issue.

Science - a newspaper report on a new scientific discovery.

T&E - a newspaper report on obesity rates among Australian children.

Health - a newspaper report about a recent health scare.

Framework

An interesting title using reduced language which should attract the reader's attention.

Headline

Writer's name.

Byline

Summary of the most important information - who, what, when, where, why and how.

The Lead/Introduction

Most important point.
Next most important point.
Next most important point.
Least important point.

Details - can include comments from eyewitness accounts and quotes from interested parties.

May refer to results or consequences.

Conclusion (optional)

Newspaper Report example

The Jazz City
by Tenille Watson

Bunbury is set to hold an international jazz festival which will put it on Australia's live music map alongside the Bridgetown Blues Festival.

Jazz artists from America will be flown into Bunbury next February for the event which is expected to draw thousands of people into the city.

Along with an expected boost to the economy, organisers anticipate the Bunbury jazz festival will significantly raise the city's music profile.

The festival, which has received support from the Vice Consulate of America, will feature international, national and local acts, as well as workshops and street performances.

City of Bunbury executive manager of City Life, Anthony Blee, said he hoped the festival would put Bunbury on the Australian live music map, just as people new Bridgetown for its annual blues festival.

"The idea is to produce a significant event which showcases Bunbury," he said.

"We've chosen jazz because it's a genre not currently catered for in Western Australia."

Mr Blee said the festival, which would be a combination of ticketed and free events, would help bolster tourism in the Bunbury area.

"We need flagship events to profile the city," he said.

The City of Bunbury has drafted a program and will announce the acts that will perform at the international jazz festival at a special launch.

Headline
Byline

The Lead/Introduction -
who, what, when, where,
why and how.

Details-
most important.

Quote

Details-
least important.

Paragraphing in newspaper reports

In a newspaper report, paragraphs are very short - often only one sentence long. Instead of double spacing between paragraphs, an indent is used.

Procedures/Instructions

Purpose: deals with the general way to do things by providing directions, in sequential order (step by step directions).

Examples:

T&E - instruction manual.

Society & Environment - how to read a map.

Science - how to conduct an experiment.

T&E - a recipe.

Framework

Goal to be achieved.	Title
Ingredients or materials in list form.	List
Step 1	Sequential steps
Step 2	
Step 3 etc.	
Outcome.	Results

Procedure example

Recipe for Patty Cakes

Ingredients

3 tablespoons butter

¼ cup caster sugar

1 egg

¼ teaspoon vanilla essence

1 cup self-raising flour

pinch salt

¼ milk

Method

1. Beat butter and sugar to a cream.
2. Add lightly beaten egg and vanilla essence. Beat well.
3. Sift flour and salt together.
4. Fold in dry ingredients alternatively with milk and mix well.
5. Drop heaped teaspoons of mixture into well-greased patty tins.
6. Bake in a moderately hot oven for 10-15 minutes.
7. Cool on a wire rack.
8. Decorate with icing if you wish.

This recipe should make approximately 12 patty cakes.

Title

List of ingredients

Sequential steps - numbered.

Results/Outcome

Recounts - Personal, Factual, Imaginative

Purpose: Retells past events/experiences in order to inform or entertain.

Examples:

English - letter and journal writing.

Society & Environment - diary entry for a historical figure.

Maths - how problems are solved.

Health - personal nutrition record.

Framework

Sets time and place - who was involved, when it occurred, what happened.

Orientation

Event 1

Event 2

Body: Series of events arranged in time order and/or according to cause and effect.

Event 3

Conclusion
May refer to results or outcomes or include a personal response.

Reorientation

Recount example

Five years ago during the summer holidays I was staying at my aunt's house in Geelong. It was a large rambling wooden house with an overgrown garden and a lawn that hadn't been mowed in who knows how long. Being summer, the lawn and garden were brown, dry and brittle.

Two days after I arrived, my cousin Jason and I were exploring the backyard. Jason said he wanted to show me something so he pulled a magnifying glass out of his back pocket. He explained we could do an experiment by using it to focus the sun on something and, if we did it long enough, we might get it to catch alight.

He focussed the magnifying glass carefully on a dried leaf. At first nothing happened but then some wisps of smoke began to appear. Suddenly the leaf was alight and we began to feed the fire with other leafs and twigs.

Before we knew it, the whole backyard seemed to be on fire and the flames were approaching the house. We looked for the hose but it had melted in the flames. We tried using branches to beat out the fire but it only made things worse.

Panicking and scared, we ran into the house to tell my aunty what was happening. We thought she'd be furious but she just calmly picked up the phone and called the fire brigade.

After the fire brigade had left, my aunty turned to us and gave us a lecture about what we should have learnt from this. I know I learnt never to listen to any of Jason's good ideas or to participate in his experiments again.

Orientation - sets the ~~time~~ and place.

Body - series of events in time order.

Reorientation - refers to outcomes and includes a personal response.

Punctuating Text Titles

There are two ways of punctuating the title of a text depending on the type of text.

A. Underline complete or long texts if handwritten or place in italics when word processing:

novels	<i>Cleo, Mistress of Spank</i>
--------	--------------------------------

short story or poetry anthologies	<i>Kissing the Toad</i>
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feature films	<i>Trainspotting</i>
---------------	----------------------

plays	<i>Macbeth</i>
-------	----------------

long poems	<i>Rime of the Ancient Mariner</i>
------------	------------------------------------

newspapers	<i>West Australian</i>
------------	------------------------

magazines and journals	<i>Cosmopolitan</i>
------------------------	---------------------

television programmes	<i>Sixty Minutes</i>
-----------------------	----------------------

B. Use inverted commas for short or parts of texts:

poems	"The Highwayman"
-------	------------------

short story	"Kissing the Toad"
-------------	--------------------

chapters	"Gladys' Story"
----------	-----------------

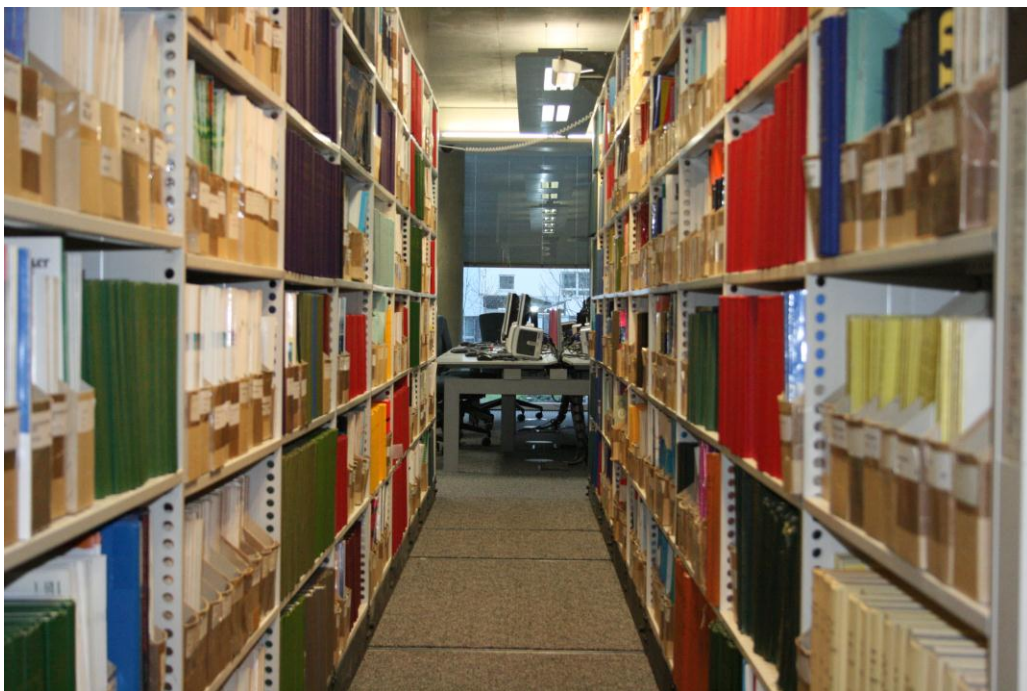
essays	"Why Phar Lap Died"
--------	---------------------

Accessing and Using Information Effectively

We have access to so much information in the modern world that we need the skills to be able to access and use that information appropriately and properly. If you want to use a few words or a sentence from someone else's work, you must acknowledge the source. ***If you do not acknowledge the source of the information then you are stealing someone else's work which is illegal - it is called plagiarism.*** It is also important to acknowledge any graphics/pictures you either photocopy, print or copy from any source including the Internet.

Cutting and pasting from the Internet is only a simple word processing skill - it does not show your ability to access and use information effectively. Cutting and pasting doesn't enable you to demonstrate achievement of any outcomes. It's just plain cheating! When you research you must:

- find your information
- take notes
- acknowledge the source of your information in your bibliography
- acknowledge the source of your quotes (when you use someone's exact words) in your bibliography
- present your research in your own words



The Information Process

DEFINING

What do I really want to find out?

What is my purpose?
Why do I need to find this out?
What are the key words and ideas of the task?
What do I need to do?

LOCATING

Where can I find the information I need?

What do I already know?
What do I still need to find out?
What sources and equipment can I use?

SELECTING

What information do I really need to use?

What information can I leave out?
How relevant is the information I have found?
How credible is the information I have found?
How will I record the information I need?

ORGANISING

How can I best use this information?

Have I enough information for my purpose?
Do I need to use all this information?
How can I best combine information from different sources?

PRESENTING

How can I present this information?

What will I do with this information?
With whom will I share this information?

EVALUATING

What did I learn from this?

Did I achieve my purpose?
How did I go - with each step of the information process?
How did I go - presenting the information?
Where do I go from here?

Some handy hints for note taking

Notes should be complete, concise and easy to understand at a later date. Before you start, be clear about the purpose of your note taking. The purpose could be to:

- record information from a text- perhaps for an assignment
- to summarise a piece of text
- to help you understand what you are reading.

Choose a note taking format that suits you and the purpose of your task. Some examples of note taking formats you could choose from include:

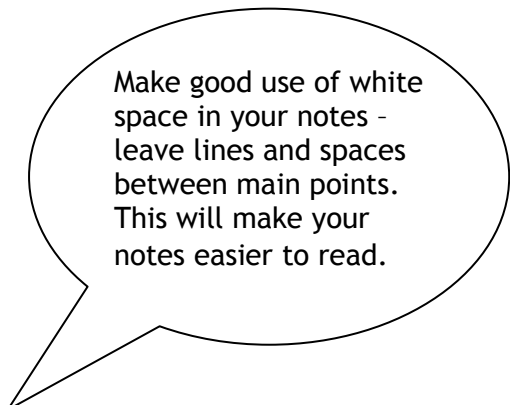
- a list
- a structured overview
- a mind map
- a flow chart
- a venn diagram.

Create headings and subheadings to add to your note taking format.

Skim the text first to gain a general impression of what it is about, and to make sure it is suitable for your purpose.

Other points to remember:

- * make sure you understand what you are reading
- * put information into your own words
- * point form - dot jot / bullets
- * no full sentences
- * key words, phrases, ideas
- * leave out - unnecessary info
 - irrelevant facts
 - details
 - small words
- * use headings (underline)
- * shorten / abbreviate words and phrases



Make good use of white space in your notes - leave lines and spaces between main points. This will make your notes easier to read.

Summarising

BEFORE The teacher selects one page of text. He/she creates a notemaking column on the right-hand side of the page (the text may need to be retyped to make this task possible), and writes main ideas and supporting details contained in the first paragraph, in the notemaking column (p135) or alternatively, on a summarising sheet (p132).

DURING Students silently read the text.

The teacher then reads the first paragraph aloud, and asks students to determine if the summary in the note making column accurately describes the key concepts in that paragraph.

He/she models the process that took place to make the summary:

- Silent reading of the paragraph
- Identification of the main, overarching idea/s in the paragraph and supporting details that relate to that main idea.

Note: It is important to "talk through" the process of summarising, to

illustrate how the main ideas and supporting details were identified.

Different coloured highlighter pens can to be used to mark these key

points. They can then be transferred over to their notemaking column,

or written on their summarising sheet.

Repeat the process for approximately three paragraphs.

Students then move into pairs and work through the same process on another three to five paragraphs. They skim read each paragraph and note the main ideas and supporting details.

Pairs join up with another couple and share/compare/contrast/negotiate their summaries.

Students then work their way independently through the remaining paragraphs.

AFTER Once all paragraphs in the text have been summarised, students cover up the original text and use their sequential list of main ideas and supporting details to make a first draft of their summary. It should be short and concise.

They edit their draft, checking punctuation grammar and spelling and reorganising their summary as necessary, so that it makes sense and reads smoothly.

Example of Summarising

The boundaries between reading and writing are increasingly becoming blurred as we interact with new digital or multimedia literacies. Within a very short time, we have already become familiar with, and adept at participating in, a wide range of new reading and writing practices. We 'surf the net', read and write e-mail messages, check our hotmail while on holiday, join in chat lines, shop on-line, play computer software games, send and receive faxes, check out the headlines in newspapers around the world, participate in teleconferences and/or video conferences, and send and receive textual messages on mobile phones.

MAIN IDEA

- *Boundaries between reading and writing are becoming blurred as we interact with new digital or multimedia literacy.*

SUPPORTING DETAILS

- *New reading and writing practices*
- *Surfing the net*
- *Reading & writing email*
- *Chat lines*
- *Text messages*

We read these types of texts differently. Whereas traditional print texts tend to be read in a linear fashion, hypertext (online blocks of text connected by electronic links) tends to be read in a non-linear, non-sequential way. We use icons and symbols to help us to choose connections and to move through pathways of information. We become authors, as well as readers, as we add text and links to the network.

MAIN IDEA

- *New types of texts created by technology are read in different ways*

SUPPORTING DETAILS

- *Print texts – linear reading*
- *Non-print texts – non-linear, 'navigational' way*

In the classroom, these online practices are motivational and keep students engaged in learning tasks. They are able to move around the screen at their own pace, explore pathways at random, and locate items that interest them. The immediacy of the medium and the fact that they facilitate easy access to people and agencies across the world makes them very attractive methods of communication.

MAIN IDEA

SUPPORTING DETAILS

Summarising sheet

Text: _____

Author: _____

Publishing details: _____

<i>Section of the text</i>	<i>Key words and phrases</i>	<i>Summary</i>

Proving a Point! - Referring to and Quoting from a Text

When you are analysing (discussing the ideas and structure of) a text you must back up what you say by referring to the text - **to prove your point**.

YOU CAN USE ONE OF TWO METHODS:

A. PARAPHRASE (Summarise in your own words)

Explain a part of the text in your own words in order to back up the point you are making. Eg.

Phillip proves himself to be a coward when, in the fifteenth chapter, he makes no attempt to save his wife from their burning house. He claims that he knew it would be impossible for him to save her but their son does not believe him.

B. QUOTE some of the actual text.

THERE ARE SOME SPECIAL RULES WHICH YOU NEED TO LEARN AND MUST FOLLOW WHEN QUOTING!!!

(1) If it is a short quote (of no more than approximately two sentences):

Include your quote in the body of your paragraph and identify the quote by using quotation marks as in the following example:

Phillip proves himself to be a coward when he makes no attempt to save his wife from their burning house. "Though his son screamed and yelled, Phillip refused to go into the house. Sparks flew all around her as she screamed." (p.86) The son's reaction makes it obvious that he does not believe his father.

(2) If it is a longer quote set it out as follows:

When Phillip tells his son of his regret Mark refuses to believe him. It is obvious that the child is unlikely to ever forgive his father.

<----- Leave a line

*** As Phillip spoke, his son saw his regret
--> but cared not. He had let his mother <-- Indent the
--> die. Why should he not suffer for the <-- quote to
--> rest of his life? Mark's eyes bored <-- middle of
into his father's face. His father was the page
a coward and deserved no forgiveness. (p.90)

<----- Leave a line

Yet we wonder whether it is because of Mark's youth that he refuses to forgive his father. It is obvious that Phillip hopes that time will bring them together.

*** Note that no quotation marks are used. Indenting the quote and leaving a line before and after the quote indicates that the enclosed text is a quotation.

Ellipses:

What are they? An ellipse is three dots ...

Why do you use ellipses?? You use ellipses when you only want to include part of a particular section of a text.

- Eg.
1. ... how could it ever have happened?
 2. What was the point of asking Phillip...
 3. His eyes bored into his father's face
hating his every breath ... How could
he ever forgive him?

The ellipse replaces the missing/excluded text (in the same way as an apostrophe is used when words like “do not” are shortened to “don’t”). A quote could be made up of the first and last sentences of a paragraph. The ellipse may be in place of several sentences.

Effective quoting is an art!

Your skill in quoting effectively will take some time to develop. It takes time and practice.

Some hints:

1. The trick is not to overdo it! Don't use too many quotes. The vast majority of your writing should be your ideas expressed in your words.
2. Don't make your quotes too long. Use ellipses to edit the text so that your quote says what you want it to say briefly and thus effectively. Make sure that the quote makes sense though!

Eg. **WRONG** “She ... the house.”
RIGHT “She hated ... the house.”

The entire extract is “She hated everything she saw especially the house.”



Bibliography

A bibliography is an alphabetical list of all resources used when researching a topic. Ensure the list is in alphabetical order by author surname or title of publication (whichever is written first- see below).

* Underline a title when it is a WHOLE text (books/ magazines) and use “quotation marks” for parts of texts (articles).

BOOKS:

By Author

Authors' surname, Initials. (Date), Title, Publisher, Place of publication.

Example: Clarke, J. (1990), Together we learn, Prentice Hall, Melbourne.

By Editor

Editor (ed.). (Date), Title, Publisher, Place of publication.

Example: Lubers, John Jr (ed.). (1978), Progress in educating the library user, R.R.Bowker, New York.

ENCYCLOPEDIA ARTICLES

“Title of article,” (Date), Title of Encyclopedia, Volume number, Pages, Publisher, Place of publication.

Example: “Dogs”, (2001), World Book Encyclopedia, Vol 6, pp 20-21 World Book Inc., Chicago.

CD ROMs

“Title of article,” (Date), Title of CD ROM, Publisher, Place of publication.

Example: “Nuclear Power,” (1999), Encarta, Microsoft Encarta, Washington.

MAGAZINES / NEWSPAPER ARTICLES

Authors' surname, Initials. (Date), “Title of article,” Title of magazine, Volume number, issue number, pages.

Example: Nikolai-Mays, S. & K. Goetsch. (1986), “Co-operative Learning in the middle school,” Middle School Journal, 5, 2, November, p.28-29.

VIDEORECORDING / TV PROGRAMME

Title of video OR Title of TV Programme, (Date), [Video] OR [TV. Programme], Producer.

Example: Out in the open, (1995) [video recording], Commonwealth Department of Human Services and Health.

BROCHURE

Author / Producer, (Date), Title of brochure, Place of publication.

Example: Health Department of Western Australia, (1992), Blood-borne infections in sport, Western Australia.

INTERVIEW

Interviewees name, (Date), [Interview - interviewers name], place of interview.

Example: Michael Gale, (1995), [Interview - James Ireland], Bassendean, Western Australia.

WORLD WIDE WEB

Author / Editor / Page Title, (Date), Title of web page, [online], available from, [date of access].

Example: White, C. (1995) Safetyline, [online], available from <http://yarrow.wt.com.au/~dohswa/index.html>, [25.04.96].

Presentation of your bibliography

Organise in alphabetical order by author surname or title of publication (whichever is written first).

Example:

Clarke, J. (1990), Together we learn, Prentice Hall, Melbourne.

Health Department of Western Australia, (1992), Blood-borne infections in sport, Western Australia,

Lubers, John Jr (ed.). (1978), Progress in educating the library user, R.R.Bowker, New York.

Michael Gale, (1995), [Interview - James Ireland], Bassendean, Western Australia.

Nikolai-Mays, S. & K. Goetsch. (1986), "Co-operative Learning in the middle school," Middle School Journal, 5, 2, November, p.28-29

"Nuclear Power", (1999), Encarta, Microsoft Encarta, Washington.

"Nuclear Power", (2001), World Book Encyclopedia, World Book Inc., Chicago.

Out in the open, (1995) [video recording], Commonwealth Department of Human Services and Health. White, C. (1995) Safetyline, [online], available from <http://yarrow.wt.com.au/~dohswa/index.html>, [25.04.96].

Spelling

While your teachers will help you with your spelling, you can only improve your spelling ***if you are prepared to work at it***. You should keep a personal spelling list in which you list words which ***you*** find difficult to spell and/or spell incorrectly in your writing. You should make a special effort to learn these words using the commonly used “**Look; Cover; Write and Check**” method as explained below:

1. **LOOK:** Firstly, look at the whole word carefully. Is there a part of the word that you find difficult or always write incorrectly, such as spelling something with an “ei” instead of an “ie”? Focus on that part when learning the word. Look at the word and try to learn its correct spelling.
2. **COVER:** Cover the word completely.
3. **WRITE:** From your memory, write the word down. Say it softly to yourself as you write it.
4. **CHECK:** Check what you have written against the correct spelling of the word. Don't change it if you're incorrect. Simply repeat the process!

When correcting spelling in your writing your teachers and your parents should help you identify misspelt words by circling or underlining them, give you the first three letters if you've got them wrong and then send you to a dictionary to find out the correct spelling for yourself.

Spelling Generalisations

Having an understanding of spelling generalisations can assist you when you are spelling new or unknown words. Watch out for the exceptions as shown below.

Consonants and Vowels

- When ‘c’ appears in front of ‘a’ (cat), ‘o’ (cot), or ‘u’ (cut), it is a hard ‘c’ which sounds like ‘k’.
- When ‘c’ is followed by ‘e’, ‘i’, or ‘y’, it sounds like ‘s’, Eg. centipede
- When ‘c’ is followed by ‘h’, it nearly always sounds as it does in the word cherry. Sometimes, it sounds like ‘k’, Eg. *chemist, Christmas*.
- The letter ‘k’ goes in front of ‘e’ and ‘i’, Eg. *keg, kick*.
- The letters ‘ck’ are only used after a short vowel sound, Eg. *sick, track, clock, duck*.

- When 'g' is followed by 'e', 'i' or 'y', it usually sounds like 'j', Eg. *general, giant, Egypt*.
- The letter 'q' is always followed by a 'u' – except in QANTAS.
- The letters 'f', 'l' and 's' are doubled at the end of most words, Eg. *sniff, tall, kiss*.
- If there is one 's' or 'z' at the end of a word, it is followed by an 'e', Eg. *rise, size*.
- When a word ends in '-e', drop the 'e' before adding 'ing' ('e' goes away when 'ing' comes to stay),
Eg. *have - having, rehearse - rehearsing*.
- When a word ends in 'y', it stays when adding 'ing',
Eg. *fly - flying*.
- The letter 'i' before 'e' except after 'c',
Eg. *believe, receive*.
Exceptions include weight, height.
- If a word ends in one 'l', add another 'l' before adding a suffix,
Eg. *travel - travelling, traveller, travelled*.
- If a word begins with 'all' and 'well' and is followed by another syllable, it only has one 'l',
Eg. *already, also, welcome*.
- When adding 'full' and 'till' to another root syllable, drop one 'l', Eg. *useful, until, tearful*.
- No English words end in 'v' or 'j'.

Plurals

- To make most words plural, add an 's',
Eg. *cup - cups, computer - computers*.
- If a word ends with 's', 'ss', 'sh', 'ch', 'x', or 'z', then add 'es',
Eg. *bus - buses, kiss - kisses, bush - bushes, match - matches, fox - foxes*.
- For words that end in a consonant followed by 'o', 'es' is usually added,
Eg. *mango - mangoes, tomato - tomatoes*.
Exceptions include piano - pianos, rhino - rhinos.
- For words that end with one 'f', change the 'f' to 'v' before adding 'es',
Eg. *half - halves, calf - calves*.
Exceptions include reef - reefs, roof - roofs.
- For some nouns, the singular and plural stay the same,
Eg. *sheep, fish, scissors*.
- Some nouns become plurals by changing the vowels,
Eg. *man - men, foot - feet*.

Commonly Used Words in the Arts

Drama acting amphitheatre analysis antagonist audience backstage budget centre stage character chorus climax conflict conventions costume creativity critical dialogue design dramatic eclectic elements Elizabethan epic expressions facial fourth wall gesture imagination improvisation lighting melodrama movement non-verbal communication pantomime performance playwright posture presentational process production proscenium protagonist reflection realism	representational ritual role scene scenery script soundscape space stage status stereotype style symbol sub-text tableau tension theatre tone trust voice Visual arts abstract aesthetic balance batik canvas cartoon collage colour complementary colours construction contour contrast crafts cubism design easel evaluate firing	focal point geometric gesture glaze harmony images intensity kiln landscape line linocut / linoprint mass medium mobile monochrome mood negative space organic palette portrait poster printmaking repetition representation rhythm scale scheme shade shape space stencil stylise surrealism texture tone unity value viewpoint watercolours
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My Extra Arts Words:

Commonly Used Words in Business Education and Technology

animation application browser business byte computer computing CPU (central processing unit) data delete digital document economics Email folder frame hardware information internet keyboard keyframe kilobyte malware	megabyte monitor mouse network operating systems phishing pixel playhead program raster render resolution save server shared drive software timeline vector virtual Virus
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My Extra BIT Words:

Commonly Used Words in Design and Technology

acetylene acrylic adhesion adhesive aluminium aperture brick saw canvas centre punch clone stamp cohesion compactor composition concept depth of field design design brief development devise dowel drawing template drill ear muffs enterprise epoxy evaluate framework	height information international standards/organisation investigate investigation isometric joint lathe layers lens levels line block marking out marquee medium density fibre board millimetre milling machine organisation orthogonal drawing outcome oxygen photoshop planning plastic process	produce production raking tool research respirator rivet safety safety glasses scriber shears shutter speed skills spanner spirit level steel systems technology tenon saw timber try square vice welder white balance width work journal
--	--	---

My Extra Design and Technology Words:

Commonly Used Words in English

abstract	colloquial	episode
active	comedy	essay
adjective	comma	exclamation
adverb	comparative	experience
adventure	completely	exposition
advertisement	complication	fascinating
allegory	comprehension	feminine
alliteration	conclusion	Fiction
allusion	condition	non-fiction
analysis	conflict	figurative
analyse	conjunction	finite
anonymous	connotation	focaliser
antagonist	consequences	foreground
antecedent	consonant	formal
antonym	construct	function
apostrophe	context	gender
appealing	contraction	generic
archetypes	conventions	genre
argument	crisis	grammar
article	criticism	hero
assonance	culture	heroine
assumptions	deconstruction	homophone
atmosphere	definite	humorous
attitude	definitely	hyperbole
audience	definition	ideology
author	demonstrative	imagery
authority	denouncement	imagination
autobiography	description	imperative
auxiliary	development	implied audience
ballad	dialogue	impressive
belief	diction	incident
bias	different	indicative
biased	discourse	indirect speech
character	disguise	inference
characterisation	documentary	infinitive
clause	dramatic	inspiration
cliché	dramatist	interesting
climax	emotive	interpretations
closure	emphasis	interrogative
codes	epilogue	introduction

My Extra English Words:

More Commonly Used Words in English

Irony jargon juxtaposition language legend literal literary literature lyric marginalise masculine metaphor metre modify monologue montage motif mystery myth naïve narrative narrator naturalise negative novel novelist novella objective onomatopoeia opinion original paragraph paraphrase participate passive perceive persona personal personification persuasion	persuasive phrase plagiarism playwright plural poem poetry point of view positive possessive precise preface preposition probably prologue pronoun propaganda proposition prose protagonist punctuation purpose quotation realism reference relative repetition representation resolution response review rhetoric rhyme rhythm satire scene sentence setting Shakespeare simile	singular slang soliloquy sonnet speak speech stanza stereotypes structure subjective style subjunctive subordinate sub-text summarise superlative survivor suspense symbol / symbolism / symbolic sympathy synonym synthesis techniques tense theme thesis tone tragedy tragic universality verbose utopia / dystopia values verisimilitude viewer vocabulary vowel writing
--	---	--

My Extra English Words:

Commonly Used Words in Health and Phys Ed.

agility archery athletics badminton balance balls bars baseball basketball bats bibs blocking bowling boxing carnival catching communication compass conditioning cones cool down cricket dance endurance equipment fitness flag flexibility football games gear gloves golf	health heart height hockey hoops jumping kayak knots lacrosse lap lines lungs netball orienteering passing pedometer physical poles power pump racquets reaction time relay ropes rugby running sailing sashes scoring shin pads shuttlecocks shuttles	skin folds skipping smash soccer softcrosse softball spin bikes sports squash strength swimming table tennis tables tackling tennis tests throwing time touch track trapping treadmill trundle wheel uniforms vertical jump volleyball warm up weaving weights whistle
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My Extra Health and Phys. Ed. Words:

Commonly Used Words in LOTE:

adapt analogy antonym appropriateness Asia awareness background beginning character clause cohesive device complex comprehend conclude connection content control conventions culture/ cultural demonstrate description developing English Europe experience	familiar flashcard French human Indonesian inference interaction intercultural interpretations introduce Italian Japanese language listening majority mnemonic outcome pacific personal style picture procedure punctuation purpose reading region	reflection relevant response sample script sentence sequence simple sophisticated speaking strategy structure subject substitute summary synonym tense tourism translation travel variation verbal aerobics viewing vocabulary writing
--	--	--

My Extra LOTE Words

Commonly Used Words in Mathematics:

algebra algebraic anticlockwise average binomial calculate calculator clockwise collinear compass congruent consecutive construct cuboid cumulative decay decimal dependent depression diagonal distance double edge elevation eliminate ellipse equilateral evaluate even number event expand exponential external face factor factorise formula formulae fraction	Frequency geometry gradient greater growth hexagon histogram horizontal hyperbola image independent intercept internal intersect intersection inverse irregular isosceles less likely likely linear maximum mean median minimum mode more likely multiple net network node numerals object oblique obtuse angle odd number odds opposite parallelogram	partition pentagon percentage perpendicular polyhedron prism pronumeral protractor pyramid quadrant quadratic quadrilateral random range rate rectangle reflex angle regular scalene secant second simplify simultaneous slope solution square substitute symbol tangent tetrahedron third trapezium trinomial triple variable vary venn vertex (vertices) vertical zero
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My Extra Maths Words

Commonly Used Words in Science:

adaptation	filtration	organism
atom	flammable	periodic table
barrel	focal length	phenolphthalein
beaker	frequency	physical
bonding	gauze mat	physical change
Bunsen burner	God (does not exist)	physiology
Celsius	graph	poisonous
chemical change	heterozygous	prediction
chemistry	homozygous	product
chromatography	hypothesis	proton
column	independent variable	psychology
compound	inference	reactant
compressed	insoluble	reflection
compression	Intelligent Design (is nonsense)	refraction
concentrated	ionic	replicate
condensation	isotope	residue
configuration	latent	resonance
control	luminous	retort stand
controlled variable	measurement	sediment
covalent	measuring cylinder	soluble
decantation	meiosis	solute
dilute	meniscus	solution
dissolve	metallic	solvent
distillation	meter	sonar
echo	metre	spectrum
electron	millilitre	sublimation
element	mitosis	suspension
environment	mixture	temperature
equipment	molecule	thermometer
evaluate	neutron	translucent
evaporation	nucleus	transparent
filter funnel	observation	variable
	oesophagus	vertebrae
	opaque	viscosity

My Extra Science Words:

Commonly Used Words in Home Economics:

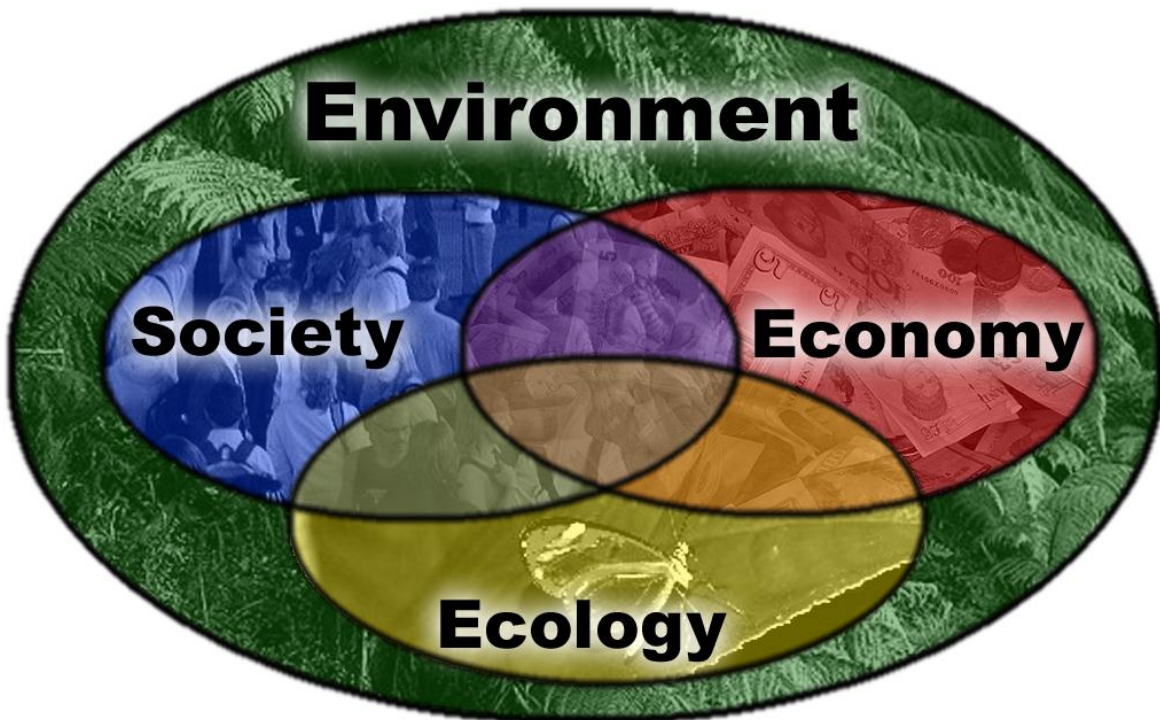
Childcare children cognitive constraint conception contraception development disease embryo Emotional Fine motor development genetic gestation growth immunisation interaction invitro fertilisation neonate pregnancy reproduction research social Trimester	Foods ADG (Australian Dietary Guidelines) appearance Beat blend Carbohydrates chop evaluate Fibre HDP (healthy dietary pyramid) ingredients instructions Investigation macronutrients method minerals Nutrients portion preparation protein recipe regulation	safety saucepan sauté Temperature texture utensils Vitamins Textiles bobbin bonded create draft dyeing felted interfacing knitted machine pattern pinning selvedge thread transfer warp weft
--	---	--

My Extra Home Economics Words:

Commonly Used Words in Society and Environment:

agriculture analysis Antarctic archipelago aridity atmosphere Australia Australasia average ballot barometer barometric biosphere capitalism carnivore Celsius century climate coastal plain commonwealth communism conservation constitution consumer contour controlled burning convict coordinate cultural current cyclone cyclonic debt decade deciduous deficit democracy dictatorship digger earthquake economics ecology ecosystem electorate environment environmental epicentre equator exploration exports fault line federation fortnight geography globalisation goods and services tax governor gulf	habitat hectopascal herbivore history humidity hydrosphere hypothesis immigrant imports industry insolation inundation inventory investigation isobar isohyets isotherm judiciary jury latitude maximum longitude meander measurement medieval merino meteorology millennium minimum monarchy monsoon multi-cultural nationalism natural disaster node omnivore pastoralism perennial photosynthesis plateau preference preferential pressure bicameral bill colonialism communism conflict Continent country demand drought economy emigrant fascism flooding fiscal government igneous	income Keynesian landform leeward legislative liberalism lithosphere magma maritime metamorphic monetary Ocean orographic policy prevailing primary producer range republic resource representative ridge rural saving satellite scale scarp seasonal seasonal migration secondary sediment site situation socialism solar stamp duty stock market strait supply subduction surplus taxable temperate temperature territory tertiary thermometer topography tort transportation tropics troposphere urban volcano weather weathering windward woodland xerophytic zoning
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My Extra Society and Environment Words:



Commonly Used Words in Vocational and Educational Training:

achievement	evidence	prioritize
address	expectations	priority
appropriate	feedback	procedures
assessment	full-time	process
attached	generate	professional
attendance	grooming	profile
attitude	hazard	protective
business	hierarchy	punctuality
casual	hygiene	recognition
curriculum vitae	industry	record
colleague	information	referee
college	initiative	reference
commence	instruction	reflection
committed	interim	relevance
communicate	interview	relevant
company	Investigation	reliability
competition	labourer	resource
confidentiality	manager	response
conscientious	manufacture	responsibilities
criteria	maximum	resume
demonstrate	minimum	safety
documents	motivation	schedule
employee	occupation	signature
employer	organisation	situation
endorsed	outcome	strategy
endorsement	part-time	summary
envelope	performance	supervisor
enterprise	personal	technique
equipment	placement	technology
essential	practice (noun)	transferable
evaluate	practise (verb)	university
evaluation	preparation	vocation

My Extra Voc. Ed. Words:

Homonyms and Homophones

HOMOPHONES and homonyms are words that sound the same but are spelled differently and have different meanings. Here are some of the most common homophonic confusions:

allowed aloud	knight night
ant aunt	knot not
ate eight	know no
band banned	lead led
bare bear	lessen lesson
be bee	loan lone
been bin	meat meet
brake break	missed mist
bread bred	one won
but butt	pain pane

buy by bye	pair pare pear
cell sell	passed past
cereal serial	pore poor pour
coarse course	presents presence
currant current	principal principle
dear deer	rain reign rein
die dye	rap wrap
fair fare	read reed
find fined	right write
fir fur	sea see
flour flower	sew so sow
grate great	tail tale
hear here	their there they're
heard herd	threw through
hour our	to too two
I aye eye	ware wear
its it's	way weigh
knead need	weak week
knew gnu new	weather whether

Many words in Australian English are built in the following ways, they can have one, two or three parts. Take for example the word success:

SUCCESS = ONE PART
(the Base word)

SUCCESSFUL= TWO PARTS:

‘SUCCESS’ (the Base word) + ‘FUL’ (the SUFFIX)

UNSUCCESSFUL = THREE PARTS

‘UN’ (the PREFIX) + ‘SUCCESS’ (the Base word) + ‘FUL’ (the SUFFIX)

Learning how to spell some complex words can usually be solved by breaking them up into these parts:

Here are some common words that are built in this way:

PREFIX	BASE WORD	SUFFIX
pre	dominant	ly
mis	take	en
re	turn	ed
non	refund	able
un	certain	ty

The most commonly used words:

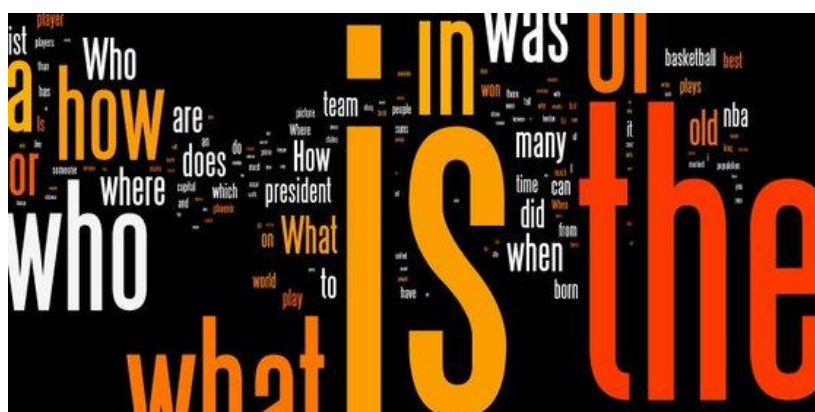
The	are	could	down
from	can	about	time
of	as	people	day
or	said	out	has
and	with	my	did
one	there	many	look
a	his	than	would
had	use	then	its
to	they	first	make
by	an	them	now
in	I	water	like
word	each	these	find
is	at	been	get
but	which	so	two
you	be	call	come
not	she	some	more
that	this	who	made
what	do	her	write
it	have	oil	him
all	how	when	long
he	their	up	into
were	if	way	
was	number	other	
we	will	on	
for	no	your	

These are the second hundred most commonly used words:

over	Much	such	page
new	before	because	letter
sound	line	turn	mother
take	right	here	answer
only	too	why	found
little	mean	ask	study
work	old	went	still
know	any	men	learn
place	same	read	should
year	tell	need	Australia
live	boy	land	world
me	follow	different	help
back	came	home	big
give	want	us	point
most	show	move	through
very	also	try	even
after	around	kind	air
thing	form	hand	away
our	three	picture	animal
just	small	again	house
name	set	change	well
good	put	off	large
sentence	end	play	must
man	does	spell	say
think	another	where	great

These are the third hundred most commonly used words:

high	story	often	later
every	saw	run	miss
near	left	important	idea
add	don't	until	enough
food	few	children	eat
between	while	side	face
own	along	feet	watch
below	might	car	far
country	close	mile	Indigenous
plant	something	night	really
last	seem	walk	almost
school	next	white	let
father	hard	sea	above
keep	open	began	girl
tree	example	grow	sometimes
never	begin	took	mountain
start	life	river	cut
city	always	four	young
earth	those	carry	talk
eye	both	state	soon
light	paper	once	list
thought	together	book	song
head	got	hear	being
under	group	stop	leave
without	second	family	it's



ORDINALS:

first

second

third

fourth

fifth

sixth

seventh

eighth

ninth

tenth

eleventh

twelfth

thirteenth

fourteenth

fifteenth

sixteenth

seventh

eighteenth

nineteenth

twentieth

Remember our Whole School Approach to Literacy: Implementation of the “Seven Defensible” Literacy Strategies

- 1 Read Aloud*
- 2. Vocabulary Instruction /development*
- 3. Graphic Organizers, Scaffolding.*
- 4. KWL Charts*
- 5. Writing to Learn*
- 6. Structured note taking*
- 7. Reciprocal teaching*

What on Earth is ***Reciprocal teaching?***

Teaching strategy - Reciprocal teaching

Focuses on: **Speaking Listening Reading Writing**

Reciprocal teaching is suited to middle/ upper primary and secondary students and supports established as well as struggling readers to engage more effectively with the text's meaning.

Reciprocal teaching is an interactive teaching strategy for supporting readers to develop comprehension strategies. It is particularly useful for ESL students who are often able to decode a text but do not fully understand what they have read.

Reciprocal teaching involves four roles, which need to be modelled for the students over a number of teaching sessions before the students can be expected to adopt the roles.

The four roles are Questioner, Clarifier, Predictor and Summariser. As the students enact these roles, they are practising the comprehension strategies of questioning, clarifying, predicting and summarising as they engage in a structured dialogue about the selected text.

How this helps ESL students in particular

Reciprocal teaching:

focuses on reading for meaning, supporting students to develop comprehension strategies in a supportive context

engages students in meaningful dialogue about texts
supports students to develop a language for talking about texts
makes explicit what readers do – question, clarify, predict and summarise
extends students' ability to talk about their interpretation of a text
supports students in understanding complex texts
develops students' content knowledge and topic vocabulary
helps students to develop skills in locating, organising and recording information about a topic for writing.

Procedure

The key steps of reciprocal teaching are:

Introduce and model the roles over a series of sessions so that the students are familiar with the expectations of each role:

Questioner: asks questions to help the group to understand the text.

Clarifier: asks questions and highlights parts of the text where the meaning is unclear.

Predictor: sets a purpose for what might be ahead in the text.

Summariser: talks about the most important parts of the text in their own words.

- Once the students are familiar with the roles and expectations, they can take on the roles themselves, with teacher support.
- The teacher selects a text and provides a brief, focused introduction to prepare the students for reading the text.
- Students are allocated roles and lead discussion of the text with the teacher's support where necessary.

Using reciprocal teaching with ESL or anyone actually

Modelling the roles will also involve modelling the language that students will need to lead the group in discussion. For example:

Questioner: Who? What? Where? When? Why? How? What if?

Clarifier: I'm not sure what means? Does anyone know what ...? Why do you think that? I think that word means

Predictor: What do you think will happen when/if...? I wonder if... I think this text will tell us aboutPerhaps.... Why do you think...? What might this section of the text tell us about?

Summariser: The main idea in this text is ... The most important ideas are ... The key arguments in this text are ... There are three main ideas in this text. To begin with ... Also ... Finally ...

Model explicit examples of what the various roles might involve and provide support for student reference, e.g. charts, lists . For example:

Questioner:

- Ask questions before during and after reading.
- Model examples of literal, inferential and evaluative questions.
- Provide question-type support charts, for example:
 - Right There – Did the author say it?
 - Read and Think – Did the author mean it?
 - On My Own - Would the author agree?

Clarifier:

Look for unfamiliar vocabulary.

Examine the layout of the text.

Identify complex concepts.

Use the grammar of the text.

Use a dictionary or thesaurus.

Re-read.

Predictor:

Stop at different points in the text.

Use headings, sub-headings.

Confirm or reject predictions.

Summariser:

Locate key words in the text and use in the summary.

Summarise the main idea of a paragraph.

Summarise key points relating to sub-headings.

Use texts related to other areas the students are learning about in the classroom so that they are familiar with the topic, vocabulary, technical language etc. These texts can then be used to support the students in related writing activities e.g. writing information reports, arguments or explanations.

<p>Predict: Based on what you've read and what you know, what do you think will happen next? What clues helped you to think about what will happen next? Is your prediction logical?</p>	<p>Clarify: Was there a word you weren't sure about? What is it? What page is it on? What can we predict it means? How can we check it? Were there any ideas that were confusing to you or that you don't understand? What strategies can we use to figure this out?</p>
<p>Question & Connect: Is there anything that you did not understand? Is there anything that did not make sense? What were you thinking about as you were reading? Has anything like this ever happened to you? Have you ever known anyone like this character? What are you curious about?</p>	<p>Summarize: What are the most important ideas or events? What does the author want you to remember or learn from this? What is the most important information in this passage? What was this passage mostly about? In your own words...</p>

<p>Predict</p> <p>I predict (title/ subheading/ chapter) will be about Would anyone like to add to my prediction or ask any questions?</p>	<p>Read</p> <p>Let's read to check the prediction/s and find out more.</p>	<p>Clarify</p> <p>Is there anything you need to clarify, such as tricky words, phrases or ideas?</p>	<p>Ask Questions and Discuss</p> <p>What did we learn? What else are you wondering about?</p>	<p>Sum up</p> <p>..... (Title/sub heading/ chapter) was about Would anyone like to add to my summary?</p>
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