

THE LITERACY LEARNING PROGRESSIONS

Meeting the Reading and Writing Demands of the Curriculum



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FOREWORD

Tēnā koutou katoa

It is my pleasure to introduce *The Literacy Learning Progressions*, one of the professional tools provided to support the New Zealand Curriculum. This is the revised, final version of the progressions.

The draft document *Literacy Learning Progressions: Meeting the Reading and Writing Demands of the Curriculum* was distributed for consultation in November 2007. Feedback was collated and analysed in November 2008, and a report of the findings was published in 2009 on a Ministry of Education website (at www.educationcounts.govt.nz/publications/literacy/43632).

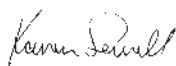
New Zealand has a world-leading curriculum that sets out the vision, values, key competencies, and learning areas for our New Zealand schools and students. The National Standards in reading and writing have been aligned closely to the New Zealand Curriculum and to these Literacy Learning Progressions, which also support key government initiatives, including Ka Hikitia and the Pasifika Education Plan.

The Literacy Learning Progressions describe the specific literacy knowledge, skills, and attitudes that students draw on in order to meet the reading and writing demands of the curriculum. Literacy in English is critical in enabling students to engage successfully with all aspects of the curriculum. The key competencies and all the learning areas depend on students being able to understand, respond to, and use a variety of forms of written language (as well as oral and visual language) in order to think about, locate, interpret, and evaluate ideas and information and to communicate with other people.

Teachers need to ensure that their students develop the literacy expertise that will enable them to engage with the curriculum at increasing levels of complexity and with increasing independence. As students progress through schooling, they need to be able to read and write increasingly complex texts and to engage with increasingly complex tasks. The Literacy Learning Progressions take account of this increasing complexity and describe the literacy expertise that students need in order to meet these demands. The levels of demand that students are expected to meet are set out in *The New Zealand Curriculum Reading and Writing Standards for Years 1–8*.

The Ministry thanks all who have contributed to the development of the draft *Literacy Learning Progressions* and all who have contributed to revising this final version.

Nāku noa



Karen Sewell
Secretary for Education

INTRODUCTION

The Literacy Learning Progressions: Meeting the Reading and Writing Demands of the Curriculum is a professional tool for teachers. It describes and illustrates the literacy-related knowledge, skills, and attitudes that students need to draw on in order to meet the reading and writing demands of the New Zealand Curriculum from year 1 to year 10. The expectations for levels of students' literacy expertise, for each year of schooling through to the end of year 8, are set out in *The New Zealand Curriculum Reading and Writing Standards for Years 1–8* (2009). The Literacy Learning Progressions alert teachers to what students need to know and be able to do, at specific points in their schooling, if they are to engage with the texts and tasks of the curriculum and make the expected progress.

The Literacy Learning Progressions are neither an assessment tool nor a teaching programme; rather, they provide a reference point. Teachers should refer to them when gathering information about their students' literacy strengths and needs (using a variety of reliable formal and informal assessment tools and procedures) in order to plan effective literacy learning programmes. The intention is that students will develop their literacy expertise (the knowledge, skills, and attitudes described in the progressions) purposefully, in meaningful contexts.

Understanding the literacy demands of the curriculum

Students need to do more than just read and write. They need to use their reading and writing to meet the demands of the New Zealand Curriculum. These demands are integral to many of the teaching and learning activities that support students in developing the key competencies as well as knowledge and skills in all the essential learning areas.

Reading and writing as interactive tools

Reading and writing are interactive tools¹ that students use to engage with all the learning areas of the New Zealand Curriculum.

While some of the texts that students read and write are literary texts (which are almost always taught within the English learning area), others are texts integral to learning in other areas of the curriculum. These include texts such as information reports and procedural texts.

As language is central to learning and English is the medium for most learning in the New Zealand Curriculum, the importance of literacy in English cannot be overstated.

The New Zealand Curriculum, page 16

In the early years, most of the texts that students read or write within classroom contexts, largely by themselves, are part of their literacy instructional programme. As their literacy knowledge and skills develop, students increasingly use their reading and writing to meet specific learning purposes across the curriculum. From the middle years onwards, effective teachers systematically identify opportunities to strengthen students' literacy expertise within a wide variety of curriculum learning activities. By the time students enter year 9, the reading and writing demands are implicit in much of their everyday curriculum learning.

The increasingly complex texts and tasks of the curriculum

As students move through the school system, the texts that they read and write and the tasks with which they must engage become increasingly complex. At the same time, the content (subject matter) that they read and write about becomes more abstract and specialised.

The reading and writing demands that the progressions describe were identified by analysing the achievement objectives for each learning area and also examples of the texts and tasks used in programmes designed to meet those objectives.²

¹ The concept of interactive tools is based on the competencies model developed in the OECD project *The Definition and Selection of Key Competencies* (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2005).

² For example, the analysis included some exemplars from *The New Zealand Curriculum Exemplars*.

A text's complexity is affected by the kinds of information in it (the complexity of its content) and the ways in which that information is related and presented (the complexity of its structure and language). The characteristics that make texts more complex, and the main tasks for which the students need to use their reading and writing, are described in the *The New Zealand Curriculum Reading and Writing Standards for Years 1–8*. They are further explained in the professional learning materials provided online to support these standards.

Understanding the Literacy Learning Progressions

The Literacy Learning Progressions describe the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that students draw on in order to meet the reading and writing demands of the New Zealand Curriculum.

The theoretical basis for literacy development

The theoretical basis for the Literacy Learning Progressions is described in the Ministry of Education handbooks *Effective Literacy Practice in Years 1 to 4* and *Effective Literacy Practice in Years 5 to 8*.

The progressions have been designed on the basis that there are three main aspects to the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that students need to acquire.³

- Literacy learners need to learn the code of written language. This learning includes phonological awareness, knowledge of the alphabetic principle and of phoneme–grapheme relationships, knowledge of how words work, and automatic recognition or spelling of familiar words (automaticity).
- Literacy learners need to learn to make meaning of texts. This learning includes the use of background knowledge (including knowledge relating to their culture, language, and identity), vocabulary knowledge, knowledge of how language is structured, knowledge about literacy, and strategies to get or convey meaning.
- Literacy learners need to think critically. This includes analysing and responding to texts and bringing a critical awareness to reading and writing.

Developing expertise

Learning to read and write is a complex, cumulative process. The theoretical basis described in the handbooks brings together three related concepts:

- *the pathway to literacy is developmental;*
- *social and cultural practices shape literacy learning;*
- *students take individual and multiple pathways in their learning.*

Effective Literacy Practice in Years 5 to 8, page 21

Students' participation in various language and literacy practices at home and in early childhood settings means that they will all bring literacy knowledge, skills, and attitudes to their school learning. They build on their existing expertise and use their developing knowledge and skills in different ways.

However, there are particular skills and items of knowledge that all students need to master in order to develop their independence and fluency sufficiently to engage successfully with the range of texts and tasks required, across the curriculum, at various points in schooling. These essential skills and items of knowledge, which have been described as “constrained skills”,⁴ include, for example, knowing how to read from left to right and being able to identify the letters of the alphabet and produce the appropriate sounds for each letter. The ways in which the constrained skills are developed follow a similar pattern for most students; they are often mastered over a short period of time. On the other hand, “unconstrained” skills and knowledge, such as those used for comprehension, are more dynamic and continue to develop over a lifetime.

³ The information in this section is adapted from *Effective Literacy Practice in Years 1 to 4*, page 24; *Effective Literacy Practice in Years 5 to 8*, page 25; and Snow et al., 2005, page 17.

⁴ Refer to Paris, 2005.

The Literacy Learning Progressions alert teachers to what their students need to know and be able to do at particular points in their schooling. Without this knowledge and these skills, the students' further development will be limited.

The progressions also highlight students' developing awareness of a widening range of strategies and their increasing control of these strategies. To support their students in developing metacognition, teachers need to understand the idea that a learner's knowledge and skills can be "under control" and used by the learner within the classroom context independently, that is, largely by themselves (Davis, 2007). It is important that students are actively taught to be aware of the literacy expertise they are using and of how they are using it, so that they can deliberately select from their repertoire of literacy knowledge and skills and apply them in more and more contexts in different areas of the curriculum. This metacognitive awareness enables them to become independent readers and writers.

Throughout schooling, transition across learning settings can disrupt students' developing literacy learning. Transition points include the transition between home and school and the transition from one level of schooling to another, as well as transitions across different language settings and between intervention programmes and the classroom. The progressions highlight specific shifts in curriculum demand at these points, but teachers also need to be aware of the risks involved when the continuity of students' literacy learning is interrupted at these times.

However, transitions can offer opportunities as well as risks. For example, teaching and learning are more effective when teachers recognise and build on the range of literacy expertise that culturally and linguistically diverse students bring into the classroom.

The role of oral language

The Literacy Learning Progressions take account of the significant role of oral language in thinking and learning. Students not only need to learn the language of the classroom in order to participate in every curriculum activity; they also specifically draw on their oral language knowledge and skills to develop their expertise in reading and writing. Oral language knowledge includes knowledge of vocabulary and of the forms and features of texts.

The relationship between oral language and literacy learning is strongly reciprocal. Children draw on their oral (or signed) language when they learn to read and write and, in turn, their progressing literacy learning enriches and expands their oral language and their metalinguistic awareness.

Learning through Talk: Oral Language in Years 1 to 3, page 70

Statements drawn from the Ministry of Education's oral language handbooks, *Learning through Talk: Oral Language in Years 1 to 3* and *Learning through Talk: Oral Language in Years 4 to 8*, are threaded throughout the progressions as prompts for teachers to make connections to their literacy practice.

The reading progressions

The reading progressions describe the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that students draw on when they use their reading as an interactive tool.

For the early years, the progressions focus clearly on the constrained knowledge and skills that students need in order to decode.

Even if we keep in mind the caveat that reading is more than word recognition, ... the active processing of sentences and paragraphs cannot occur unless the reader can recognize individual words reliably and efficiently. That is why learning to decode is so important.

Pressley, 2006, page 52

When students have learned to process texts fluently, they can use more of their cognitive resources to engage with meaning, examine texts critically, and control reading strategies flexibly. Most students will have well-established decoding skills and be processing texts fluently after three years at school.

It is essential that students are able to use more unconstrained or dynamic knowledge and skills by year 6, when the texts and tasks of the curriculum are becoming more complex. Students at this level are expected to respond to texts in ways that relate to their purposes for reading. They are asked to think critically about the ideas and information in texts as they consider writers' purposes, readers' different perspectives, and the impact of texts on audiences.

Fluent readers can adjust their rate of reading to take into account factors such as their purpose for reading, the density of the text, and how much time they have.⁵

The writing progressions

The writing progressions describe the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that students draw on when they create texts. Because of the role of writing as an interactive tool across the curriculum, there is a specific focus on purpose in the writing progressions. Students use their writing to think about, record, and communicate experiences, ideas, and information. The student's purpose for writing will determine the process they use – there is no single, "correct" writing process. For example, it is not usually necessary for students to plan their writing when the purpose is to jot down thoughts or to record information.

In the early years, there is a focus on students getting their ideas and experiences down on paper. To do so, they need to begin encoding or spelling words.

Encoding and spelling are the same thing: they both describe a writer's recording of the words they want to use in their writing. The word "encoding" is used, in the writing progressions, to connect to "decoding" in reading because students draw on the same set of knowledge and skills for both reading and writing as they learn to use the code of written language. Students develop their spelling through using their knowledge of phoneme-grapheme relationships, of how words work (morphology), and of common and reliable spelling rules and conventions.⁶ At the same time, they develop their automaticity in spelling as they increase the number of words in their visual memory that they can spell without stopping to think. The writing progressions refer to word lists published by the NZCER,⁷ although there are other similar lists of high-frequency words that teachers might use. The important point is that the words students learn are those that they want and need to write often and that they learn them in authentic and purposeful contexts.

As with decoding, once students can encode fluently, they can use more of their cognitive resources to convey meaning. The texts that they create will become more complex as the content (the subject matter they are writing about) becomes more specialised.

Reading and writing together

Reading and writing are strongly reciprocal, not only in how they develop (see pages 123–124 in *Effective Literacy Practice in Years 5 to 8*) but also in how they are used. Many curriculum tasks will require students to use their reading and writing together to a greater or lesser extent.

In particular, there is a strong relationship between the way students develop their vocabulary in their reading and in their writing. "Knowing" a word or a phrase involves a complex network of connections (including collocations, connotations, and denotations), images, and understandings. Initially, students' vocabulary knowledge is gained from their exposure to and use of oral language. They hear and learn the meanings of large numbers of words, storing them in memory and recalling their meanings when they hear them again. Some experts, cited on page 39 of *The English Language Learning Progressions: Introduction* (Ministry of Education, 2008a) have estimated that native speakers of English at primary school learn at least three or four thousand new words each year.

⁵ Refer to "A note on fluency in written language", on page 24 of *Effective Literacy Practice in Years 5 to 8*, for more information about the concept of fluency.

⁶ Refer to <http://soundsandwords.tki.org.nz/> for further information about teaching sounds and words.

⁷ Croft, C. with Mapa, L. (1998). See also NZCER (2005).

Implications for practice

The Ministry of Education publishes resources to support teachers of literacy at all levels and in all curriculum areas. The Literacy Learning Progressions align with the key resources.



The progressions are further explained in the professional learning materials provided online to support the reading and writing standards.

Knowing the demands

Teachers need to be aware of the challenges in the literacy demands across the curriculum. These challenges include the characteristics of texts themselves, the complexity of the tasks, and the match between each text and each student’s existing knowledge, lived experiences, and expertise. Further professional learning materials will be provided online to support the reading and writing standards and to support teachers in understanding the literacy demands in texts and tasks.

A note on the concept of “reading age”

The concept of “reading age” provides only a rough guide to the complexity of a text, and the term is not a valid way to describe a student’s level of reading expertise.

An analysis of student data by NZCER reveals that, at least by year 4, “year level is in fact a slightly better predictor of scale score than age” (Darr et al., 2008, page 14). The results showed that differences in chronological age made no significant difference to the results of PAT reading tests, despite an age difference in any one year group of up to eighteen months.

Enabling students to meet the demands

Teachers need to:

- understand the developmental process for the year groups they teach;
- be aware that learners construct meaning within social and cultural settings (including home and school settings);
- recognise the importance of making connections to students’ individual expertise and interests and building from there.

These concepts underlie the literacy learning model on which both *Effective Literacy Practice in Years 1 to 4* and *Effective Literacy Practice in Years 5 to 8* are based. For secondary school teachers, *Effective Literacy Strategies in Years 9 to 13: A Guide for Teachers* provides suggestions, based on the same model, to help develop students’ relevant literacy expertise in all subject areas.

Integrating an understanding of cultural identity

Literacy is a sociocultural practice. Students bring their lived experiences – their culture, language, and identity – with them into the classroom. Ka Hikitia and the Pasifika Education Plan emphasise the importance of building on these experiences. *Ka Hikitia – Managing for Success: The Māori Education Strategy 2008–2012* focuses on “Māori enjoying education success as Māori” (page 18). The strategy emphasises ako as the basis for teaching and learning relationships in which educators also learn from students and in which teaching practice is deliberate, reflective, and informed by the latest research. Students are more likely to achieve when they see themselves and their culture reflected in curriculum subject matter in all learning contexts.

Effective teachers actively seek opportunities to build on the skills and experiences that their students bring to the classroom. They deliberately choose texts and tasks that reinforce each learner’s lived experience, so that each learner can integrate their own culture, language, and identity into their learning and achievement.

Developing English language learners’ literacy expertise

Reading and writing English-language texts presents particular challenges for students who are learning English as an additional language. All teachers need to be aware of these challenges and able to identify the differing language learning needs of these students.

English language learners in New Zealand schools have very diverse language learning needs. Students with minimal English will have obvious needs, while other English language learners may have good social English language but may lack proficiency in the academic English that is needed to access the curriculum. (However, teachers need to be aware that all students, not just those who are learning English, will need specific instruction in academic English.)

The English Language Learning Progressions sets out the important things that primary and secondary school teachers need to know about literacy learning in English for students who are learning English as an additional language.



THE STRUCTURE OF THE PROGRESSIONS

The progressions for By the End of Year 6 and By the End of Year 8 describe the demands of the texts and tasks of the curriculum over a two-year period (from the beginning of year 5 to the end of year 6 and from the beginning of year 7 to the end of year 8).

An example: By the End of Year 6

The kinds of texts that students are expected to read are illustrated in *The New Zealand Curriculum: Reading and Writing Standards for Years 1–8*.

This paragraph describes the reading demands of the texts and tasks of the New Zealand Curriculum at this level. The key characteristics of the texts that students read are described in *The New Zealand Curriculum Reading and Writing Standards for Years 1–8*.

This paragraph describes the shift in students' reading expertise over these two years.

This set of bullet points describes the expertise and the attitudes that students demonstrate when they read texts in order to meet the demands of the curriculum at this level.

This paragraph describes the specific skills and items of knowledge that students draw on as they use their expertise in reading at this level.

BY THE END OF YEAR 6

READING

WRITING

The transition into **year 5** brings with it a significant step up in terms of the demand for students to use their reading as an interactive tool for learning. Although they continue to read texts as part of their literacy learning programme, most of the texts that students are now required to read are instructional materials from across the curriculum. The texts and tasks are similar for students in year 5 and year 6. Students read in order to locate, evaluate, and integrate information and ideas within and across a small range of texts as they generate and answer questions to meet specific learning purposes across the curriculum.

During these two years, students continue to develop their accuracy and fluency as readers of a variety of texts. They increase their level of control and independence in selecting strategies for using texts to support their learning. By the end of **year 6**, students are required to read longer texts more quickly and to select appropriate strategies for different reading purposes more effectively than students in year 5.

When students at this level read, respond to, and think critically about texts, they:

- monitor their reading for accuracy and sense, demonstrating that they have the confidence to adjust their reading (e.g., by varying the speed of reading, by rereading, and by attending to the most important information) when they encounter difficulties;
- understand how they select from and use their repertoire of comprehension strategies, which include:
 - making connections between their prior knowledge and the concrete examples in a text in order to understand abstract ideas in the text
 - locating and summarising ideas (e.g., by skimming or scanning, by identifying key words, topic sentences, and key questions, or by using subheadings)
 - drawing on several related items of information in order to infer ideas and information that are not directly stated in the text
 - evaluating and integrating ideas and information across a small range of texts;
- regularly read for sustained periods and sustain meaning over many days in longer texts (such as novels) and across a variety of texts on the same topic;
- identify and reflect on writers' purposes and on the ways in which writers use language and ideas to suit their purposes (e.g., by using vocabulary to set a scene or develop a mood).

They draw on knowledge and skills that include:

- decoding texts fluently and accurately, using a range of reliable strategies;
- finding and learning the meanings of unknown vocabulary by using strategies such as applying their knowledge of how words work or seeking explanations in the text or in illustrations;
- understanding that words and phrases can have figurative as well as literal meanings and that some words have different meanings depending on the context;
- recognising basic grammatical constructions and understanding how these affect meaning;
- identifying the specific language features and structures of many common continuous and non-continuous text types (including mixed text types);
- interpreting illustrations, photographs, text boxes, diagrams, maps, charts, and graphs.

From "Plight of the Sea Turtle", by Jill MacGregor
[School Journal, Part 3 Number 2, 2008]

Rich vocabulary instruction encourages students to develop word consciousness by thinking actively about word meanings, word structures, and how they might use and understand those words in different situations.
page 73

'Bottle Submarine'

The transition into **year 5** brings with it a significant step up in terms of the demand for students to use their writing as an interactive tool for learning. Although they continue to create texts as part of their instructional writing programme, most of the texts that students are required to write in years 5 and 6 are intended to meet the demands of the curriculum. The texts and tasks are similar for students in year 5 and year 6. They use their writing to think about, record, and communicate experiences, ideas, and information to meet specific learning purposes across the curriculum.

During these two years, students write about increasingly challenging subject matter. They increase their level of control and independence in selecting processes and strategies to write texts for a range of purposes that includes recounting, describing, narrating, reporting, arguing, and explaining. By the end of **year 6**, students are required to write more complex texts than students in year 5. They independently create texts that are appropriate for their purposes and audiences, choosing effective content, language, and text structures.

When students at this level create texts, they:

- understand their purposes for writing and identify writing processes that are appropriate for those purposes;
- use a variety of planning activities, such as constructing flow charts, for those writing tasks that need to be planned;
- generate content that is usually relevant to the task, supporting or elaborating their main ideas with detail that has been selected with some care;
- independently revise and edit their writing to clarify its meaning and add impact, often in response to feedback;
- proofread to check the spelling, grammar, and punctuation, using appropriate computer-based or print tools.

They draw on knowledge and skills that include:

- using an overall text structure that is appropriate for their purpose, e.g., an orientation, a problem, a climax, and a satisfying resolution (for a narrative) and an introduction, a series of main points, and a logical conclusion (for a report);
- selecting vocabulary that is appropriate to the topic, register, and purpose (e.g., academic and subject-specific vocabulary appropriate for specific learning areas or precise and descriptive words to create a mental image);
- using written language features (such as emotive vocabulary) and visual language features (such as headings, charts, or maps) to extend or clarify meaning and to engage their audience;
- using their knowledge of how words work (e.g., knowledge of diverse phoneme-grapheme relationships, of common, reliable spelling rules and conventions, and of the meanings and spellings of morphemes), along with their knowledge of word derivations, to fluently and correctly encode most unfamiliar words, including words of many syllables;
- correctly spelling all high-frequency words¹⁵ used in their writing;
- organising related ideas into paragraphs (e.g., paragraphs comprising a topic sentence with supporting detail) and beginning to use cohesive devices to link paragraphs;
- using simple and compound sentences that are correct grammatically and have a variety of structures, beginnings, and lengths and using some complex sentences that are mostly correct grammatically;
- using basic punctuation that is mostly correct (e.g., when punctuating dialogue);
- attempting some complex punctuation (e.g., using apostrophes for possession, commas for clauses, or semicolons).

¹⁵ High-frequency words at this level could, for example, include all those in the lists of essential words in Croft (1998).

This paragraph describes the writing demands of the texts and tasks of the New Zealand Curriculum at this level. The key characteristics of the texts that students create are described in *The New Zealand Curriculum Reading and Writing Standards for Years 1–8*.

This paragraph describes the shift in students' writing expertise over these two years.

This set of bullet points describes the expertise and the attitudes that students demonstrate when they write texts in order to meet the demands of the curriculum at this level.

This paragraph describes the specific skills and items of knowledge that students draw on as they use their expertise in writing at this level.

The kinds of texts that students are expected to write are illustrated in *The New Zealand Curriculum Reading and Writing Standards for Years 1–8*.

Quotations from the *Learning through Talk* handbooks have been used throughout the progressions to illustrate the fact that oral language always underpins progress in reading and writing.

THE FIRST YEAR

Starting school

Children’s participation in language and literacy practices at home and in early childhood settings means that they all bring literacy knowledge, skills, and attitudes to their school learning. These are wide-ranging and diverse, reflecting the children’s varying social and cultural contexts. Some of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that students have will specifically support their transition into school literacy.

Children’s oral language provides a foundation for their reading and writing at school. Their oral language knowledge, skills, and attitudes will continue to be extended by the oral language practices of the classroom as well as by the children’s developing expertise in reading and writing.

The oral language foundation that supports children’s school reading and writing includes:

- curiosity about oral language and a willingness to experiment with it, for example, by playing with rhyme and alliteration;
- a wide oral vocabulary of nouns and verbs and also many adjectives and prepositions;
- a willingness, and the confidence, to talk about things happening now, in the past, and in the future;
- the ability to retell an experience, an event, or a known text;
- an awareness of rhyme and of words that start with the same sound, along with the ability to hear and distinguish some other phonemes in spoken words.

McNaughton (2002) explains that becoming expert in the language of the classroom includes learning about the language used as the medium of instruction, because much of what is taught is conveyed verbally, through questioning, directing, prompting, commenting, and evaluating. In order to succeed at school, students need to learn the vocabulary and sentence structures that teachers use and to understand how those words and sentences are used ...

Learning through Talk: Oral Language in Years 1 to 3, page 20

Children’s prior experience with written texts provides a good starting point for their formal reading and writing instruction. When they start school, most children will:

- respond to texts in ways that demonstrate engagement (e.g., children laugh at funny bits, empathise with a character, join in, ask questions, and express opinions);
- “read” very familiar stories by reciting them;
- use illustrations to “read” a story;
- enjoy returning to familiar books or listening to stories over and over again.

Such experiences are part of developing a positive attitude towards language and literacy. In addition, most children’s engagement with written texts will have enabled them to acquire some specific knowledge and skills for reading, including:

- the ability to read their own name and also some familiar signs and symbols from their environment (such as logos, brand names, and cultural symbols);
- an awareness of some concepts about print (e.g., they hold a book the right way up, and they know that a book is read from front to back⁸);
- the ability to identify the first letter of their name and some other letters.

When they start school, children enjoy “writing” for a variety of purposes and they can “read” their story or text to another person. They may “write” by making purposeful marks that are not recognisable as letters or words. When children “read” their own “written” stories, they demonstrate that they know what writing is and that they can hold an idea in their head long enough to retell the story.

Many children will also have mastered specific skills that support writing, for example:

- they write their own name using the correct letters in the correct order;
- they form some other letters correctly;
- they can securely hold a pencil, crayon, or other writing and drawing tool.



Miro’s drawing, “I don’t know how to swing over the bar at the gym.”

During the first interview Alex and Iain, Miro’s mum and dad, brought one of Miro’s drawings out ...

Alex ... explains to Yvette [Miro’s early childhood education teacher] how the drawing came about and how Miro responded when asked what her drawing was about:

“Miro goes to the gym on a Monday, and she’s meant to hoist herself up to the bar and then spin around, and she just couldn’t do it. She wouldn’t do it, so she drew this yesterday. And I just said to her today, ‘What’s this all about?’, and she said, ‘I don’t know how to swing over the bar at the gym.’”

Yvette asks: “Is that a thought bubble?”

Alex responds: “Yeah, that’s a thought bubble. I showed her how to do those. A few weeks ago ... we had this conversation about ‘Do dogs think?’ and ‘What do dogs think?’ ... and how people think and how people speak, so there’s speech bubbles and thought bubbles. So she’s obviously used that, and I said ‘What’s that?’ and she said, ‘That’s me thinking about falling off the bar.’ ... You’ve got the grumpy face, because she’s there at the bar and she doesn’t know what to do.” ...

Later ... Yvette writes:

“I was ‘blown away’ with this drawing. Here Miro was thinking about thinking and representing this through her artwork – a symbolic representation of her metacognition! ... This drawing was a catalyst for a shift in thinking for myself, in terms of how I saw Miro as a communicator and the role that drawing was having for her as an active meaning maker.”

Wadestown Kindergarten’s Centre of Innovation Research, 2009, pages 38–40

The kinds of knowledge and skills described above are presented here simply as examples of some of the prior learning that can support students’ transition into school literacy. These examples of what some students may bring with them to school are not intended to be “misconstrued into the use of narrow and inappropriate skill and drill activities by early childhood educators, which will not necessarily help children to develop an interest in literacy” (Makin, Jones Diaz, and McLachlan, 2007, page 21).

Research shows that teaching practice is more effective when the learning context is meaningful to the learner. *Ka Hikitia* emphasises (on page 20) that all teachers need to gain an understanding of students’ cultural identities, integrate this understanding into their programmes, and use it to help shape the learning experiences of individual students.

⁸ Some children may have prior experiences with (and prior knowledge of) books in languages that have other conventions, for example, Arabic texts are read from right to left.

In the first year of school

Students begin reading and writing from their first day at school. Effective teachers build on the literacy knowledge, skills, and attitudes that students bring to their school learning.

Much of the school day revolves around literacy. In addition to shared and guided reading and writing, teachers support their students' literacy learning with a rich mix of approaches, including language experience and frequent reading to students. They provide many opportunities for students to read and write independently and to engage in purposeful literacy tasks.

ORAL LANGUAGE

Focused teaching and many opportunities to engage in talk help students' oral vocabularies to keep expanding rapidly. Students enjoy identifying and using new words, phrases, and language patterns that they discover in the books and poems they hear or read. They are constantly refining their ability to aurally distinguish sounds in spoken words.

Students use talk to organise and clarify their ideas, and they can offer opinions and responses about the texts they read and hear. They use an increasing variety of verb forms correctly, including irregular past-tense forms, and they draw on their understanding of grammatical structure when they read and write. They develop confidence in ways of talking and listening that are important for their learning at school, such as asking questions and participating in discussions. They can recount an experience or retell a story clearly and logically, with some awareness of the likely needs of the listener. With prompting, they can draw on this awareness when writing for an audience.

Students are becoming aware of some of the differences between spoken and written language. They can use and understand many more words than they can read or write.

READING

The Ready to Read series is the core instructional reading series. Ready to Read books are carefully levelled and provide a gradient of difficulty to support students in developing effective reading processing systems. Texts designed for students to use in the first year are relatively short, with clear storylines, and use mostly familiar vocabulary and simple sentence structures. As students read these texts, teachers help them to draw on their oral language, and on understandings gained from their writing, as they acquire and consolidate basic reading skills and knowledge of letters and sounds. Students learn how to make meaning of and think critically about increasingly challenging texts. Initially, teachers provide a high level of support, but they adapt this scaffolding carefully as their students gain control over a range of reading processing and comprehension strategies.

Although students progress at different rates, they all need to be at or near Yellow level after six months of instruction in order to reach the goal of reading at Green level by the end of the first year of school. The intention is that students will spend just long enough at each reading level for teachers to observe and confirm that appropriate processing behaviours are in place. Students have many opportunities for independent reading to strengthen their reading processing systems.

As soon as students start school, they begin reading texts at Magenta level. At this level, they need to:

- develop early concepts about print, such as the ideas that the print carries the message and that print is read from left to right;⁹
- expect a text to make sense and sound right;
- gain control over one-to-one word matching;
- start building a reading vocabulary of high-frequency words.

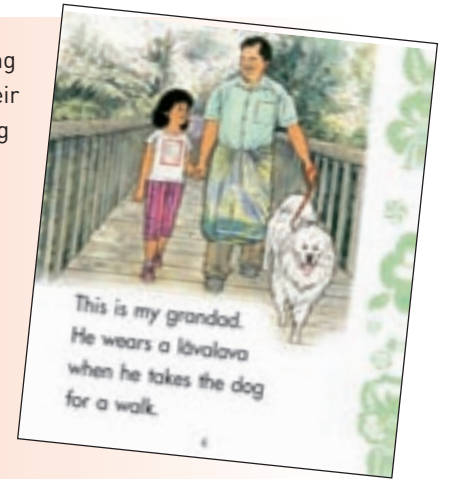


From *Look at Me* by Miriam Macdonald, Ready to Read (Magenta)

⁹ Some children may have prior experiences with (and prior knowledge of) books in languages that have other conventions; for example, Arabic texts are read from right to left.

At Red level, students are learning how to process print. They make meaning of text by applying their increasing ability to attend to the print detail and their growing knowledge of sentence structures and also by using their expanding reading vocabulary and the illustrations. They need to:

- know that words are made up of sounds and that letters represent sounds;
- attend to initial letters and common inflections (e.g., -s, -ed, -ing) as they read;
- understand the function of some simple punctuation;
- read groups of words together in phrases;
- gain control over using a return sweep with multiple lines of text;
- notice some errors in their reading and take action to self-correct.



From *Lāvalava* by Lino Nelisi, Ready to Read (Red)

Students at this level have a sense of excitement about their reading and are keen to share the connections between the texts they read and their own experiences.

At Yellow level, students are developing their ability to search for and use interrelated sources of information (semantic, syntactic, and visual and grapho-phonetic).¹⁰ They use a wider range of word-solving strategies and comprehension strategies to make or confirm meaning. They need to be able to:

- decode simple, regular words by using their knowledge of grapheme-phoneme relationships and by making analogies to known rimes;
- use sentence structure and context to supplement information gained from partial decoding attempts;
- understand the function of some language and punctuation features (e.g., the use of pronouns and speech marks to help track dialogue between characters);
- use comprehension strategies such as forming hypotheses and making simple inferences.



From *Purr-fect!* by Dot Meharry, Ready to Read (Yellow)

Students at Yellow level enjoy discussing the texts they read and offering opinions about them. Their reading is fluent and well-phrased, and they usually read without finger pointing.

At Blue level, students apply their reading processing strategies to longer and more varied texts. They need to:

- monitor their reading, searching for and using multiple sources of information in order to confirm or self-correct;
- recognise many high-frequency words automatically;
- engage more deeply with texts (e.g., by using comprehension strategies to generate their own questions or to evaluate the effectiveness of a text).

Students at this level are curious about language. They enjoy discovering new things and talking about their discoveries (for example, noticing that they can work out a compound word by recognising the components). They read some sections of text silently.



From *The Hissing Bush* by Trish Puharich, Ready to Read (Blue)

¹⁰ Refer to *Effective Literacy Practice in Years 1 to 4*, pages 28–31, for information about these sources of information in texts.

WRITING

In their first year of school, students create many texts for a range of purposes across the curriculum. They plan for writing, using talk and pictures, and they attempt to record their ideas and experiences in print.

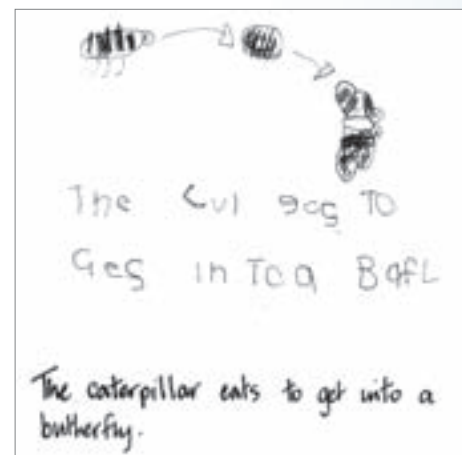
At first, there is a high level of scaffolding as teachers help students to:

- hold an idea in their head long enough to write it down;
- say, hear, and record the predominant sounds in the words they want to write;
- write from left to right and leave spaces between words;
- form letters accurately.

Gradually, the support alters as teachers help students to build and strengthen their processing systems and to create longer, more complex texts. Students learn to:

- experiment with capturing words from their oral vocabulary;
- hear and say the initial and final sounds and some dominant medial sounds in the words they want to write;
- recognise and identify common sounds in different words;
- use their developing visual memory to consistently encode (spell) some known words correctly;
- make close attempts to encode words by using their developing knowledge of phoneme–grapheme relationships, which enables them to:
 - understand that words are made up of sounds and that sounds are written with letters
 - write all consonant sounds, and represent some vowel sounds, in at least one way
 - attempt to record the sounds within words in sequence;
- make close attempts to encode words by noticing visual similarities to known words;
- attempt to use capital letters and full stops as they develop their understanding of sentences;
- reread what they write as they are writing and read (or retell) their writing to themselves and others.

Students in the first year of school are becoming increasingly aware of the purposes for their writing, and they use a range of text forms. They can express their ideas in increasingly interesting ways as they gain control over using more complex language structures, including varied ways of beginning sentences.



"The Caterpillar" at www.tki.org.nz/r/assessment/exemplars/eng/explanation/

Studies of effective teachers have shown that they continually make explicit the connections between reading and writing. Teachers who have a grasp of this reciprocal relationship recognise that writing is neither secondary to reading nor something to be taught separately from reading.

Effective Literacy Practice in Years 1 to 4, page 113

The teacher has a crucial role in assessing what students can do and targeting instruction to what they need to learn. Teachers respond to learners' needs by intensifying instruction as necessary to ensure that all their students become successful learners.

THE LITERACY LEARNING PROGRESSIONS

The reading and writing progressions for years 1–10 are described on the following pages (pages 12–20).



AFTER ONE YEAR AT SCHOOL

READING

In their first year at school, students are engaging with texts as they learn in a range of contexts across the curriculum. Many texts, including picture books and topic-related non-fiction books, are read aloud by the teacher. The texts that students read largely by themselves are usually selected specifically to meet instructional reading purposes.

After one year at school, students are reading, responding to, and thinking critically about a variety of fiction and non-fiction texts at Green level. They use a range of sources of information in the text, along with their prior knowledge, to make sense of the texts they read. They know that reading should be phrased, and they read at an appropriate pace. With some teacher guidance, students use strategies such as asking questions and making inferences to help them think more deeply about the ideas in the text.

When students at this level read, respond to, and think critically about texts, they:

- understand that we read to get meaning;
- confidently approach challenges in their reading and persevere when they are having difficulties, because they know how to problem-solve;
- monitor their own reading and self-correct where necessary, using strategies such as rereading text or checking further sources of information;
- use a variety of comprehension strategies to interpret and respond to a range of texts.

They draw on knowledge and skills that include:

- having all concepts about print under control;
- using appropriate language about books, (e.g., the terms *title*, *author*, and *illustration*);
- using their developing phonemic awareness to aurally identify and distinguish individual phonemes within words, i.e., to blend phonemes (e.g., by saying *m/a/n/* is *man*) and to segment phonemes (e.g., by saying *seat* is *s/ea/t/*);
- identifying all letters by name and being able to produce an associated sound for each letter;
- automatically recognising many (100–200) of the high-frequency words in their instructional texts;
- decoding unfamiliar words by using their developing knowledge of grapheme–phoneme relationships, which enables them to:
 - identify common graphemes (e.g., *sh*, *ch*, *ow*, *ai*, *th*, *oy*) and produce an associated sound for each one
 - apply the knowledge that letters can be pronounced in different ways (e.g., *about*, *and*, *apron*)
 - apply strategies such as: sounding out words; using knowledge of graphemes (e.g., *sh*, *aw*, *t*, *p*, *or*); and using analogy to read words that contain familiar chunks (e.g., *est*, *en*, *ump*);
- decoding unfamiliar words by using some knowledge of morphology (e.g., the word endings *-s*, *-ing*, and *-ed*);
- applying their knowledge of vocabulary in order to understand words as they decode them and to make meaning at the sentence and whole-text level;
- understanding the meaning of basic punctuation features (e.g., full stops, speech marks, and exclamation marks).



From *The Way It Was* by Dot Meharry,
Ready to Read (Green)

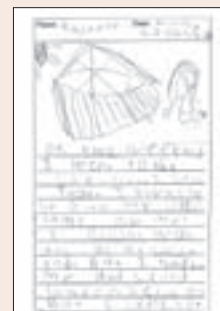


From *A Good Idea* by Bill Nagelkerke,
Ready to Read (Green)

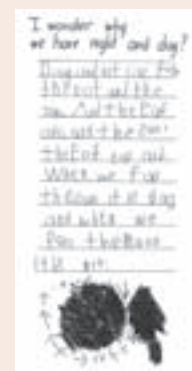


Once students start making links between their phonological and phonemic awareness and what they can read or write, their growing knowledge of the code of written language in turn enhances their awareness of the sounds and complex rules of spoken English.

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On the weekend



*I wonder why we
have night and day?*

WRITING

In their first year at school, students create texts in a range of contexts across the curriculum. The texts that students write largely by themselves usually meet specific instructional writing purposes. They write about their experiences and ideas as well as writing to record information on different topics.

After one year at school, students begin to use specific processes to create texts, and these processes may vary depending on the particular purpose for writing. The students are able to read and talk about their completed texts.

When students at this level create texts, they:

- plan for writing, using talk, text, or drawing;
- convey simple ideas, responses, opinions, or questions;
- reread what they have written, as they write, to maintain meaning;
- respond to feedback by making changes such as adding or deleting details or changing punctuation or spelling.

They draw on knowledge and skills that include:

- using vocabulary drawn from their own oral language or encountered in their reading or other classroom activities;
- using their developing phonemic awareness to aurally segment words into syllables (e.g., *win-dow*, *ham-bur-ger*) and one-syllable words into individual phonemes (e.g., *b/a/n/d*; *sh/i/p*);
- using their developing visual memory to accurately write some key personal words and some high-frequency words;¹¹
- encoding (spelling) unfamiliar words by using their developing knowledge of phoneme–grapheme relationships, which enables them to:
 - recognise and write most sounds of English in at least one appropriate way (e.g., *s*, *t*, *ch*, *ow*, *k*, *f*, *oy*)
 - recognise that there can be different ways of representing the same sound (e.g., *phone/father*; *keep/cat*)
 - apply sound–letter relationships in order to write words they want to use (e.g., *catapulla*);
- encoding (spelling) unfamiliar words by using their developing knowledge of morphology to write word endings correctly (e.g., *jump/jumped*; *boy/boys*);
- using classroom resources such as wallcharts and picture dictionaries;
- forming all upper-case and lower-case letters and numerals correctly;
- understanding simple text types (e.g., personal recounts and simple descriptions) and using them to meet their writing purpose;
- composing simple sentences and composing some compound sentences using conjunctions such as *and* or *but*;
- using capital letters and full stops to begin and end sentences.

¹¹ Examples of high-frequency words appropriate at this level could include most words from Essential List 1 and some words from Essential List 2 in Croft (1998).

AFTER TWO YEARS AT SCHOOL

READING

In their second year at school, students are engaging with a wide variety of texts for a number of purposes, although the texts that they read, largely by themselves, are still mostly those that have been selected for instructional reading.

After two years at school, students are reading, responding to, and thinking critically about a variety of fiction and non-fiction texts at Turquoise level. They read longer texts with increasing independence and with appropriate intonation, expression, and phrasing. They flexibly use the sources of information in text, in combination with their prior knowledge, to make meaning and consider new ideas. (Their prior knowledge includes ideas and information from their culture, from their language, and from other texts they have read.) With teacher guidance, students draw on a wider range of comprehension strategies to help them think more deeply about what they read.

When students at this level read, respond to, and think critically about texts, they:

- understand that texts have purposes and are written for audiences;
- take appropriate action when they lose meaning, both at the sentence level and across larger sections of the text, without affecting the pace of their reading;
- use comprehension strategies to:
 - locate and interpret ideas and information that are directly stated or explicit in the text or illustrations
 - respond to ideas, plots, and characters
 - think critically about aspects such as the theme or ideas;
- make appropriate choices of texts for independent reading.

They draw on knowledge and skills that include:

- automatically recognising between 300 and 500 high-frequency words in their instructional texts;
- decoding unfamiliar words by:
 - using their knowledge of grapheme–phoneme relationships to identify both consonant sounds (e.g., *s, t, p, sh, th, ch, ng*) and vowel sounds (e.g., *e, a, o, ai, ow, igh, ou, ee*)
 - recognising common chunks of words and making analogies to words that look similar
 - using their developing knowledge of morphology (such as knowledge of prefixes and suffixes);
- finding the meanings of unknown words by using strategies such as:
 - rereading text to gather more information
 - looking for definitions in the text
 - using prior and subsequent information in the sentences
 - inferring from the illustrations;
- understanding the meaning of punctuation features such as parentheses and of print features such as bold print and italics.



From *The King's Birthday* by Dot Meharry,
Ready to Read (Turquoise)



From *Inside the Maize Maze* by Sharon Holt,
Ready to Read (Turquoise)

When teachers make explicit links between the oral and written forms of words (for example, by using word games as independent literacy tasks), they help to develop students' knowledge and awareness of word structure (morphology) and spelling (orthography).

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'Stories along the River'



'The Tupperware Party'

WRITING

In their second year at school, students create texts for instructional writing purposes as well as to support their other learning across the curriculum. They write in order to think about, record, and communicate experiences, ideas, and information that relate to a curriculum topic.

After two years at school, students understand their purpose for writing and use an appropriate simple process to help them achieve their purpose. They generate their ideas in many ways, including brainstorming with peers, with the teacher, and independently.

When students at this level create texts, they:

- use simple planning strategies to organise their ideas and then apply their planning as they turn ideas into connected sentences;
- develop content that is related to the curriculum topic, with some (mostly relevant) detail;
- revise their text (often in response to feedback) and edit it for clarity and accuracy of meaning;
- proofread their text to check punctuation and spelling, (e.g., by using their previous writing and other sources to find or verify correct spellings).

They draw on knowledge and skills that include:

- using their personal content vocabulary of written words as well as words and phrases that are part of their expanding oral vocabulary;
- using their developing phonemic awareness to form new words aurally by changing or taking out some of the sounds in a word or by adding new sounds to words;
- using their visual memory to spell personal vocabulary as well as high-frequency words, which could include most of the words in essential lists 1 and 2 as well as some of the high-frequency words in essential lists 3 and 4;¹²
- encoding (spelling) unfamiliar words by:
 - using their knowledge of diverse phoneme–grapheme relationships to write some of the sounds of English in different ways (e.g., *photo, laugh, Friday*)
 - applying strategies such as sounding out words, making analogies to words that sound or look the same, and using known chunks and rimes
 - using their increasing knowledge of morphology to correctly spell word endings and other morphemes (e.g., *greatest, florist*)
 - applying their knowledge of simple spelling rules (e.g., using *-es* for plural nouns ending in *s*, such as *buses*);
- attempting some variety and precision in the use of adjectives, nouns, and verbs;
- forming all lower-case and upper-case letters correctly with increasing speed and automaticity;
- using appropriate text structures for text types such as simple recounts, descriptions, and reports;
- composing mainly simple and compound sentences, with some variation in their beginnings;
- using simple conjunctions correctly, with subject–verb agreement and noun–pronoun agreement;
- using full stops, question marks, or exclamation marks to end sentences and using capital letters correctly to begin sentences (and for familiar proper nouns).

¹² These lists are in Croft (1998). They are examples only, and teachers may refer to other reputable lists of high-frequency words.

AFTER THREE YEARS AT SCHOOL

READING

In their third year at school, students are beginning to use texts to meet the demands of learning across the curriculum as well as for instructional reading purposes.

After three years at school, students are reading, responding to, and thinking critically about a variety of texts at Gold level. They are preparing for the transition to the *School Journal* as their main source of instructional reading material. They confidently use a range of processing and comprehension strategies to make meaning from and think critically about longer and more complex texts.

When students at this level read, respond to, and think critically about texts, they:

- monitor their reading, drawing on a variety of strategies (at the sentence, paragraph, and whole-text level) when their comprehension breaks down;
- integrate and use a variety of comprehension strategies, including:
 - making connections between ideas in the text and their prior knowledge in order to make simple inferences
 - identifying and keeping track of ideas and information across longer sections of text and looking for connections between ideas and information
 - evaluating information and ideas within a text in terms of their purpose for reading
 - identifying a writer's purpose for writing and explaining how they identified it, using evidence from the text.

They draw on knowledge and skills that include:

- automatically reading all high-frequency words;
- articulating and using a variety of decoding strategies appropriately when they encounter unfamiliar words (e.g., by recognising syllables within words or by applying their knowledge of regular and irregular spelling patterns);
- knowing the meanings of some common prefixes (e.g., *un-*, *re-*, *in-*, *dis-*) and suffixes (e.g., *-s*, *-es*, *-ed*, *-ing*, *-ly*, *-er*, *-less*, *-ful*) and understanding how they affect the meanings of words;
- knowing the synonyms for, and multiple meanings of, many common words (e.g., *left*, *might*, *right*, *fine*);
- applying their knowledge of word families, collocations, and sentence or phrase structures to find the meanings of unknown words;
- looking for information in visual language features (such as text boxes in non-fiction texts);
- understanding the purpose of basic punctuation.



From "Night is a Blanket" by Barbara Hill,
Ready to Read (Gold)



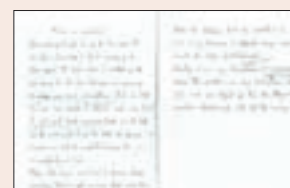
From *Sun Bears Are Special* by Philippa Werry,
Ready to Read (Gold)

... English language learners ... are better able to learn oral (and written) English when ... their teacher helps them to notice language items and language patterns ...

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Compost worms



Make a smoothie!

WRITING

In their third year at school, students create texts for instructional writing purposes as well as to meet other learning purposes across the curriculum. They write in order to think about, record, and communicate experiences, ideas, and information.

After three years at school, students independently create texts using a process that will help them achieve their specific purpose for writing. Where appropriate, their texts are clearly directed to a particular audience through appropriate choice of content, language, and text form. However, they may often assume that their audience is familiar with the context.

When students at this level create texts, they:

- use planning strategies to organise ideas for writing (e.g., by using lists and mind maps that distinguish main ideas from details) and to generate language for writing;
- create content, mostly relevant, that conveys several experiences, items of information, and/or ideas relating to the topic or task and that sometimes includes details and/or comment;
- revise and edit their writing for sense and impact and give their peers feedback on their writing;
- proofread their writing to check the spelling, grammar, and punctuation, drawing on their own developing knowledge about words and sentence construction and using classroom resources such as junior dictionaries;
- publish, where appropriate, in a variety of media, depending on their purpose and audience.

They draw on knowledge and skills that include:

- using increasingly specific words and phrases (e.g., adjectives and more precise nouns and verbs) that are appropriate to the content of the text;
- using their visual memory to spell personal vocabulary and high-frequency words (e.g., many words from essential lists 1–4 and some from list 5 and list 6¹³);
- encoding (spelling) unfamiliar words by:
 - using their knowledge of phoneme–grapheme relationships, along with their developing awareness of spelling conventions, to select correct spelling patterns for sounds in words (e.g., spelling the *k* sound correctly in both *catch* and *kitchen*)
 - applying their growing knowledge of useful spelling rules (e.g., the rules relating to adding simple plural suffixes such as those in *baby/babies* and *half/halves*) and their growing knowledge of morphology (e.g., adding a *d* to *hear* to make *heard*)
 - applying their expanding knowledge of graphemes (e.g., of graphemes such as *or*, *awe*, *oar*, and *oor*, which record similar sounds) to write words correctly;
- using simple written language features (such as alliteration) and visual language features (such as labelled diagrams) to support meaning;
- writing all upper-case and lower-case letters correctly, legibly, and fluently;
- using a basic text structure to organise their text effectively for its purpose (e.g., a story with a beginning, a middle, and an end);
- using both simple and compound sentences that vary in their beginnings and lengths (and in the simple conjunctions used) and that are usually grammatically correct;
- attempting to write complex sentences;
- constructing sentences in which the tenses are mostly consistent;
- using capital letters, full stops, question marks, and exclamation marks correctly.

¹³ These lists are in Croft (1998). They are examples only, and teachers may refer to other reputable lists of high-frequency words.

READING

Students in year 4 are reading texts for instructional reading purposes, and they are also increasingly required to use texts to meet the demands of the curriculum as an integral part of their regular classroom programme. Students read texts in order to locate and evaluate information and ideas about a range of subjects as they generate and answer questions to meet specific learning purposes.

By the end of year 4, students use their reading processing and comprehension strategies to read texts appropriate to this level accurately and fluently. They use and integrate a variety of comprehension strategies in order to understand, respond to, and think critically about these texts.

When students at this level read, respond to, and think critically about texts, they:

- have a strong sense of what they like to read as well as what they are able to read, and they know where to locate such materials;
- select from a variety of strategies to monitor their reading and to use when meaning breaks down (e.g., cross-checking, rereading, using what they know about words and sentence structure, and looking for clues to confirm their predictions and inferences);
- meet their purposes for reading by employing specific comprehension strategies, such as:
 - identifying and summarising main ideas (using their knowledge of text structure)
 - making and justifying inferences (using information that is close by in the text)
 - making connections between the text and their prior knowledge to interpret figurative language;
- read for sustained periods and sustain meaning in longer texts over time (e.g., when reading junior novels over several days);
- can discuss their responses to a variety of texts (e.g., by evaluating the effectiveness of a particular text for a particular purpose).

They draw on knowledge and skills that include:

- automatically reading all high-frequency words;
- automatically selecting an appropriate decoding strategy when they encounter unknown words;
- working out the meanings of new words, using strategies such as:
 - applying knowledge of the meanings of most common prefixes (e.g., *over-*, *mis-*, *sub-*, *pre-*, *inter-*, *semi-*, *mid-*) and most common suffixes (e.g., *-ist*, *-ity*, *-ty*, *-ion*, *-able/-ible*, *-ness*, *-ment*)
 - using reference sources (e.g., dictionaries and thesauruses) to find the meanings of new words
 - inferring word meanings from known roots and affixes (e.g., by using the known meaning of *tele-* and *-port* to infer the meaning of *teleport*);
- working out the meanings of unfamiliar phrases and expressions (e.g., figures of speech) by drawing on their oral language and the context;
- recognising the features and purposes of some common text types and using this knowledge to navigate and understand texts;
- using visual language features to support their understanding of the ideas and information in the text.

Reading a wide variety of texts across the curriculum will enrich and extend students’ oral language.

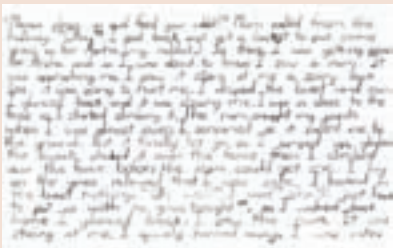
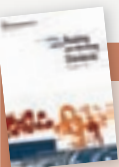


From “Camping down the Line”,
by Amanda Jackson
(School Journal, Part 2 Number 1, 2004)



Constructing meaning during discussion builds students’ metacognition and increases their awareness of the ways in which language is used to influence readers.

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‘The Ram’

WRITING

Year 4 students create texts as part of their instructional writing programme as well as writing for a range of different purposes to meet the demands of the New Zealand Curriculum. They write in order to think about, record, and communicate experiences, ideas, and information to meet specific learning purposes.

By the end of year 4, students independently create a variety of texts in a range of print and electronic media. They understand their purposes for writing and identify suitable writing processes to meet the purposes. Where appropriate, their writing demonstrates an awareness of their audience through appropriate choice of content, language, and text form.

When students at this level create texts, they:

- select and use tools (e.g., graphic organisers) and strategies (e.g., using headings) to plan and organise ideas and information to meet their purposes for writing;
- create content that is mostly relevant to the curriculum task, covers a range of ideas, experiences, or items of information, and often includes detail and/or comment that supports the main points;
- reread their writing at various stages to check for meaning and fitness for purpose;
- revise and edit their writing for clarity, impact, and fitness for purpose, often in response to feedback;
- proofread for accuracy of spelling, grammar, and punctuation;
- make choices, when appropriate, for publishing in a variety of media, including digital and visual media.

They draw on knowledge and skills that include:

- using language and a simple text structure that are appropriate for the purpose, e.g., an orientation, sequenced events described in the past tense, and linking words to show sequence (for a recount);
- using vocabulary (in particular, nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) that clearly conveys ideas, experiences, or information;
- encoding (spelling) by:
 - using their knowledge of diverse phoneme–grapheme relationships (e.g., *ship*, *chef*, *ocean*, *station*, *special*), of the meaning and spelling of morphemes (e.g., root words and affixes), and of common, reliable spelling rules and conventions
 - using their visual memory to help them spell personal vocabulary and high-frequency words correctly (the high-frequency words include most words from essential lists 1–4 and many from essential lists 5–7¹⁴);
- expanding their writing vocabulary by using strategies such as:
 - applying their knowledge of the meaning of most common prefixes (e.g., *un-*, *sub-*, *pre-*, *non-*) and most common suffixes (e.g., *-ful*, *-ly*, *-tion*, *-able/-ible*, and *-ment*)
 - using reference sources (e.g., dictionaries and thesauruses) to check the meanings of words and to find new words;
- using written language features (such as similes and onomatopoeia) and visual language features (such as illustrations and diagrams) to support meaning;
- using mainly simple and compound sentences, along with some complex sentences, that vary in their beginnings, structures, and lengths and are mostly correct grammatically;
- correctly using subject–verb agreement, tense agreement, and pronouns and prepositions;
- using capital letters, full stops, question marks, and exclamation marks correctly and using speech marks, commas for lists, and apostrophes for contractions correctly most of the time.

¹⁴ The lists of essential words are in Croft (1998). They are examples only, and teachers may refer to other reputable lists of high-frequency words.

BY THE END OF YEAR 6

READING

The transition into **year 5** brings with it a significant step up in terms of the demand for students to use their reading as an interactive tool for learning. Although they continue to read texts as part of their literacy learning programme, most of the texts that students are now required to read are instructional materials from across the curriculum. The texts and tasks are similar for students in year 5 and year 6. Students read in order to locate, evaluate, and integrate information and ideas within and across a small range of texts as they generate and answer questions to meet specific learning purposes across the curriculum.

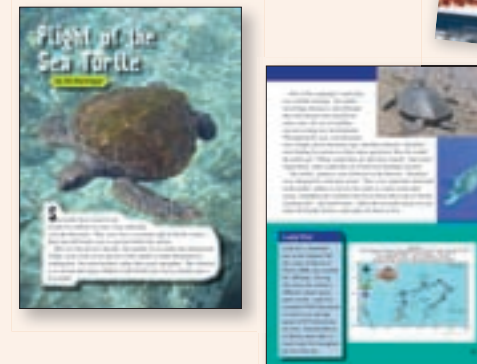
During these two years, students continue to develop their accuracy and fluency as readers of a variety of texts. They increase their level of control and independence in selecting strategies for using texts to support their learning. By the end of **year 6**, students are required to read longer texts more quickly and to select appropriate strategies for different reading purposes more effectively than students in year 5.

When students at this level read, respond to, and think critically about texts, they:

- monitor their reading for accuracy and sense, demonstrating that they have the confidence to adjust their reading (e.g., by varying the speed of reading, by rereading, and by attending to the most important information) when they encounter difficulties;
- understand how they select from and use their repertoire of comprehension strategies, which include:
 - making connections between their prior knowledge and the concrete examples in a text in order to understand abstract ideas in the text
 - locating and summarising ideas (e.g., by skimming or scanning, by identifying key words, topic sentences, and key questions, or by using subheadings)
 - drawing on several related items of information in order to infer ideas and information that are not directly stated in the text
 - evaluating and integrating ideas and information across a small range of texts;
- regularly read for sustained periods and sustain meaning over many days in longer texts (such as novels) and across a variety of texts on the same topic;
- identify and reflect on writers' purposes and on the ways in which writers use language and ideas to suit their purposes (e.g., by using vocabulary to set a scene or develop a mood).

They draw on knowledge and skills that include:

- decoding texts fluently and accurately, using a range of reliable strategies;
- finding and learning the meanings of unknown vocabulary by using strategies such as applying their knowledge of how words work or seeking explanations in the text or in illustrations;
- understanding that words and phrases can have figurative as well as literal meanings and that some words have different meanings depending on the context;
- recognising basic grammatical constructions and understanding how these affect meaning;
- identifying the specific language features and structures of many common continuous and non-continuous text types (including mixed text types);
- interpreting illustrations, photographs, text boxes, diagrams, maps, charts, and graphs.



From "Plight of the Sea Turtle", by Jill MacGregor
(School Journal, Part 3 Number 2, 2008)

Rich vocabulary instruction encourages students to develop word consciousness by thinking actively about word meanings, word structures, and how they might use and understand those words in different situations. page 73



'Bottle Submarine'

WRITING

The transition into **year 5** brings with it a significant step up in terms of the demand for students to use their writing as an interactive tool for learning. Although they continue to create texts as part of their instructional writing programme, most of the texts that students are required to write in years 5 and 6 are intended to meet the demands of the curriculum. The texts and tasks are similar for students in year 5 and year 6. They use their writing to think about, record, and communicate experiences, ideas, and information to meet specific learning purposes across the curriculum.

During these two years, students write about increasingly challenging subject matter. They increase their level of control and independence in selecting processes and strategies to write texts for a range of purposes that includes recounting, describing, narrating, reporting, arguing, and explaining. By the end of **year 6**, students are required to write more complex texts than students in year 5. They independently create texts that are appropriate for their purposes and audiences, choosing effective content, language, and text structures.

When students at this level create texts, they:

- understand their purposes for writing and identify writing processes that are appropriate for those purposes;
- use a variety of planning activities, such as constructing flow charts, for those writing tasks that need to be planned;
- generate content that is usually relevant to the task, supporting or elaborating their main ideas with detail that has been selected with some care;
- independently revise and edit their writing to clarify its meaning and add impact, often in response to feedback;
- proofread to check the spelling, grammar, and punctuation, using appropriate computer-based or print tools.

They draw on knowledge and skills that include:

- using an overall text structure that is appropriate for their purpose, e.g., an orientation, a problem, a climax, and a satisfying resolution (for a narrative) and an introduction, a series of main points, and a logical conclusion (for a report);
- selecting vocabulary that is appropriate to the topic, register, and purpose (e.g., academic and subject-specific vocabulary appropriate for specific learning areas or precise and descriptive words to create a mental image);
- using written language features (such as emotive vocabulary) and visual language features (such as headings, charts, or maps) to extend or clarify meaning and to engage their audience;
- using their knowledge of how words work (e.g., knowledge of diverse phoneme-grapheme relationships, of common, reliable spelling rules and conventions, and of the meanings and spellings of morphemes), along with their knowledge of word derivations, to fluently and correctly encode most unfamiliar words, including words of many syllables;
- correctly spelling all high-frequency words¹⁵ used in their writing;
- organising related ideas into paragraphs (e.g., paragraphs comprising a topic sentence with supporting detail) and beginning to use cohesive devices to link paragraphs;
- using simple and compound sentences that are correct grammatically and have a variety of structures, beginnings, and lengths and using some complex sentences that are mostly correct grammatically;
- using basic punctuation that is mostly correct (e.g., when punctuating dialogue);
- attempting some complex punctuation (e.g., using apostrophes for possession, commas for clauses, or semicolons).

¹⁵ High-frequency words at this level could, for example, include all those in the lists of essential words in Croft (1998).

READING

When students enter **year 7**, they encounter increasing demands in terms of the complexity of the texts they read in all areas of the curriculum, including English. They are supported in developing their reading expertise by deliberate and explicit literacy instruction that uses these texts. The text and task demands of the curriculum are similar for students in year 7 and year 8. Students read in order to locate, evaluate, and synthesise information and ideas within and across a range of texts as they generate and answer questions to meet specific learning purposes across the curriculum.

During years 7 and 8, students continue to develop their accuracy, fluency, and independence in reading and in using texts to support their learning. This expertise includes reading at a rate that is appropriate to the text and the task. By the end of **year 8**, students need to be confidently and deliberately choosing the most appropriate strategies to suit their purposes for reading in different learning areas.

When students at this level read, respond to, and think critically about texts, they:

- use appropriate skills and technologies to locate and use a range of texts for specific purposes;
- increasingly control a repertoire of comprehension strategies that they can use flexibly and draw on when they know they are not comprehending fully, including such strategies as:
 - using their prior knowledge, along with information in the text, to interpret abstract ideas, complex plots, and sophisticated themes
 - identifying and resolving issues arising from competing information in texts
 - gathering, evaluating, and synthesising information across a small range of texts
 - identifying and evaluating writers' purposes and the ways in which writers use language and ideas to suit their purposes;
- apply some criteria to evaluate texts (e.g., accuracy of information; presence of bias).

They draw on knowledge and skills that include:

- decoding texts with such automaticity that they do not need to decode all words;
- working out more complex, irregular, and/or ambiguous words by using strategies such as inferring the unknown from the known;
- recognising and understanding the features and structures of a wide variety of continuous and non-continuous text types and text forms;
- recognising and understanding a variety of grammatical constructions and some rhetorical patterns (e.g., cause and effect; comparing and contrasting);
- making links across a text by recognising connectives or adverbial clauses;
- using their growing academic and content-specific vocabulary to understand texts;
- interpreting metaphor, analogy, and connotative language.

WRITING

When students enter **year 7**, they encounter new demands as they engage with the breadth and depth of the content they need to learn across the curriculum. Students continue to develop their writing knowledge and skills through their instructional writing programme in English, but most of their writing is done to meet the demands of learning across other areas of the curriculum.

As in earlier years, students in years 7 and 8 use their writing to think about, record, and communicate experiences, ideas, and information. Because the writing demands in curriculum activities are often implicit, students need to develop greater independence and flexibility in deciding on processes and in choosing text structures and language that are appropriate to specific tasks.

In years 7 and 8, students create texts choosing content, language, and a clear and logical text structure to meet the requirements of the curriculum task (for example, when writing personal narratives, poems, arguments, feature articles, character profiles, research reports, essays, responses to literature, and short answers). By the end of **year 8**, students need to be confidently and deliberately choosing the most appropriate processes and strategies for writing in different learning areas.

When students at this level create texts, they:

- understand their purposes for writing and how to achieve those purposes (e.g., by using different ways to examine and present their own thinking and knowledge);
- plan effectively, where appropriate, by using strategies such as mind mapping or skills such as information-literacy skills to find and record the information they need for their writing;
- create content that is concise and relevant to the curriculum task, often including carefully selected detail and/or comment that supports or elaborates on the main points;
- craft and recraft text by revising and editing, checking that the text meets its purpose and is likely to engage the intended audience, and proofreading the text to check the grammar, spelling, and punctuation;
- actively seek and respond to feedback on their writing.

They draw on knowledge and skills that include:

- deliberately choosing a clear and logical text structure to suit their purpose and audience, sometimes innovating in order to achieve this;
- using language that is appropriate to the topic, audience, and purpose (e.g., expressive, academic, or subject-specific vocabulary) and discussing these language choices using appropriate terms, such as *register* and *tone*;
- deliberately using written language features (e.g., rhetorical questions and metaphors) and visual language features to engage the audience and/or convey meaning;
- fluently and correctly encoding most unfamiliar words (including words of many syllables) by drawing on their knowledge of how words work (e.g., in terms of diverse phoneme-grapheme relationships, common and reliable spelling rules and conventions, and the meanings and spellings of morphemes) and their knowledge of word derivations;
- organising their writing into paragraphs in which the ideas are clearly related and linking these paragraphs;
- using a variety of sentence structures, beginnings, and lengths for effect;
- using complex sentences that are grammatically correct;
- using basic punctuation correctly and attempting some complex punctuation (e.g., using semicolons, colons, and parentheses).

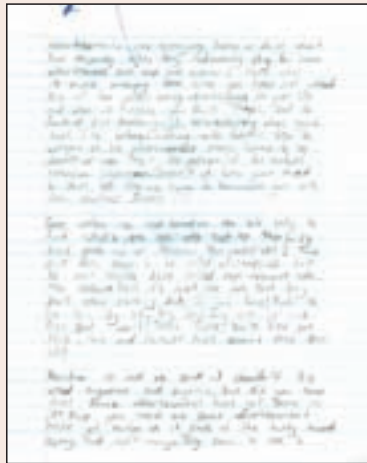


From "The Gestapo's Most Wanted", by Feana Tu'akoi
[School Journal, Part 4 Number 2, 2009]



When students discuss word meanings and grammar or talk about how language choices and modes of delivery vary according to purpose, they build awareness of their language use and gain greater control of it.

page 78



'No Advertisements'

BY THE END OF YEAR 10

READING

When students enter **year 9**, they are required to read and write a wide range of texts¹⁶ in order to meet a variety of specific learning purposes across the curriculum. Increasingly, the language and forms of these texts are subject-specific.

Most curriculum tasks at this level require students to use both their reading and their writing, to a greater or lesser extent. Students read a single text or multiple texts on a topic in order to locate, analyse, evaluate, and synthesise information and ideas. They write to develop and shape their thinking as well as to record information, reveal their understanding, and communicate their ideas. Often, the main purpose of their reading and writing is to support an oral- or visual-language task, for example, to prepare for an oral presentation on a specific topic or to record their response to a visual text or a practical task.

The texts students read

In years 9 and 10, students are required to read continuous and non-continuous texts in electronic and print media, for example: reference materials (including primary source materials); digital materials with hypertext; printed novels, poetry, plays, and textbooks; historical documents; manuals and procedural texts; mathematics problems; and newspapers and magazines. These texts often include:

- complex ideas and multiple items of information (in both longer texts and short, information-dense texts);
- sophisticated themes, complex plots and relationships, and unfamiliar settings;
- ideas and information written for a general adult audience rather than a specialist audience;
- academic and content-specific vocabulary that expresses abstract concepts relating to a range of topics within and across curriculum areas;
- terminology, text structures, and conventions that may have different meanings or function differently in different curriculum areas;
- literary devices such as personification, metaphor, and repetition;
- non-sequential organisation, which may include complex sections and graphics that are not clearly linked to other parts of the text.

By the end of **year 10**, students confidently select texts according to their reading purpose and control their rate of reading depending on the nature of the text, their purpose for reading, and the time available (for example, reading a complex text slowly and carefully or reading rapidly to cover a lot of material in a short time or when scanning for specific information).

¹⁶ The progressions for years 9 and 10 include characteristics of the texts that students read and write. For years 1–8, the lists of text characteristics are available in the reading and writing standards.



Didymo aka rock snot

The alga didymo (*Didymosphenia geminata*) has been causing problems in the South Island. Didymo is part of the algal family of single-celled aquatic plants known as diatoms. Their cell walls contain silica, and the blooms are silky to touch, although they look slimy – didymo feels like wet cotton wool. Like other algae it is invisible to the naked eye until it blooms to form dense colonies.

Didymo contains chlorophyll which enables it to make its own food by using energy from the sun. However, it also contains other pigments which give it a range of colours from beige or brown to white.

The population grows mainly by asexual cell division, with occasional sexual reproduction to exchange genetic material and restore cell size. When the alga blooms, its cells ooze mucilage that attaches the didymo to underwater surfaces. Young colonies look like small dimples on the surfaces of river rocks, but as the bloom progresses the dimples grow to form stalks and then impenetrable mats with thick strands which can cover any underwater surface, including other plants, rocks and debris. It attaches itself firmly and does not fall apart when rubbed between your fingers.

Didymo prefers cool to warm water with a neutral or slightly alkaline pH, in moderately flowing rivers with a firm, stable river bed exposed to plenty of sunshine. It was first found in the lower Waiau and Mararoa Rivers in Southland in October 2004, although it was possibly living undetected in some South Island rivers before then. In 2005, didymo was found in the upper reaches of the Buller River, and various rivers in Otago and Southland. In January 2006, NIWA confirmed it was growing in Canterbury's Waitaki River where it now poses a threat to hydropower generation.

"Didymo aka rock snot" (Alpha 128, Royal Society of New Zealand)



CoMMon RoadBlocks

How long that takes depends on you. Some of the common roadblocks are:

- Fear of being friends**
It can be really hard if your friends and enemies continue to make you feel like you're not. You could try to get them to talk with you or try hanging out with people who don't make you feel like you're not. (Remember that it's not your fault.)
- Fear of failing**
It's not like you're the only one who's not. You could try to get them to talk with you or try hanging out with people who don't make you feel like you're not. (Remember that it's not your fault.)
- 'We're all going to die some time'**
This is a common roadblock. You could try to get them to talk with you or try hanging out with people who don't make you feel like you're not. (Remember that it's not your fault.)

Fact
Three out of four Marlboro men have died from cancer.

Whatever happened to the Marlboro Man?

In the early 1980s David McLean was hired to portray the Marlboro Man in TV and print advertising. He had already been a smoker for over 20 years, having started at 12. During the taping of the commercials, McLean was obliged to smoke Marlboro cigarettes. Sometimes he smoked up to five packs per day to get the actors to feel a certain way, the smoke to rise perfectly etc.

Afterwards McLean continued to smoke Marlboro cigarettes, and he continued to receive free cigarettes. In 1985, McLean began to suffer from emphysema due to smoking. In 1988, McLean's doctors found a tumour in his right lung and he was diagnosed with lung cancer. He had surgery but the cancer spread to his brain and spine and he died in 1995.

Another Marlboro Man, Warren McCarty, became an anti-smoking crusader after developing lung cancer in 1982. McCarty, a radio host, actor and Hollywood stuntman, was hired in 1979 to appear in Marlboro magazine and billboard ads.

A week before his death McCarty said his pack-and-a-half-a-day habit had caught up with him. 'I've spent the last month of my life in an hospital and I'm telling you it's just not worth it.'

Following his death his mother said 'We bought a hard bottle. Some of his last words were: 'Take care of the children. Tobacco will kill you, and I'm doing proof of it.'

page 5

From Break Free magazine (Ministry of Health, March 2000)

When students at this level read, respond to, and think critically about texts, they:

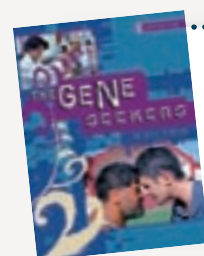
- find, select, and use a range of texts for specific learning purposes in different areas of the curriculum, making decisions, as they read, about the usefulness of the text for the purpose (e.g., by using a variety of criteria to evaluate the readability, accuracy, relevance, and status of the information and ideas they find);
- read flexibly to find and/or understand information that is not readily accessible and/or that is organised in unfamiliar ways;
- have control of a repertoire of comprehension strategies that they use deliberately and flexibly, depending on their purpose for reading;
- monitor their understanding as it develops during their reading, and adjust their strategies to address any comprehension problems;
- use strategies to analyse ideas and information and to reflect critically on the meaning they are gaining from their reading;
- evaluate writers' purposes and consider how they have used structure and language to suit these purposes.

They draw on knowledge and skills that include:

- decoding words, including unfamiliar words, quickly and automatically;
- applying their knowledge of the features of a wide variety of text types and text forms and of how these text types and forms are used in different subjects and curriculum areas;
- recognising different grammatical constructions (e.g., constructions that express cause and effect) and using this knowledge to understand dense and complex text;
- having a large vocabulary that is connected to their own knowledge of the world and that includes academic, subject-specific, and technical terms;
- using strategies such as skimming, scanning, note-taking, annotating, mapping, coding information, and rephrasing in order to locate, evaluate, analyse, and summarise information and ideas within texts and across a range of texts.

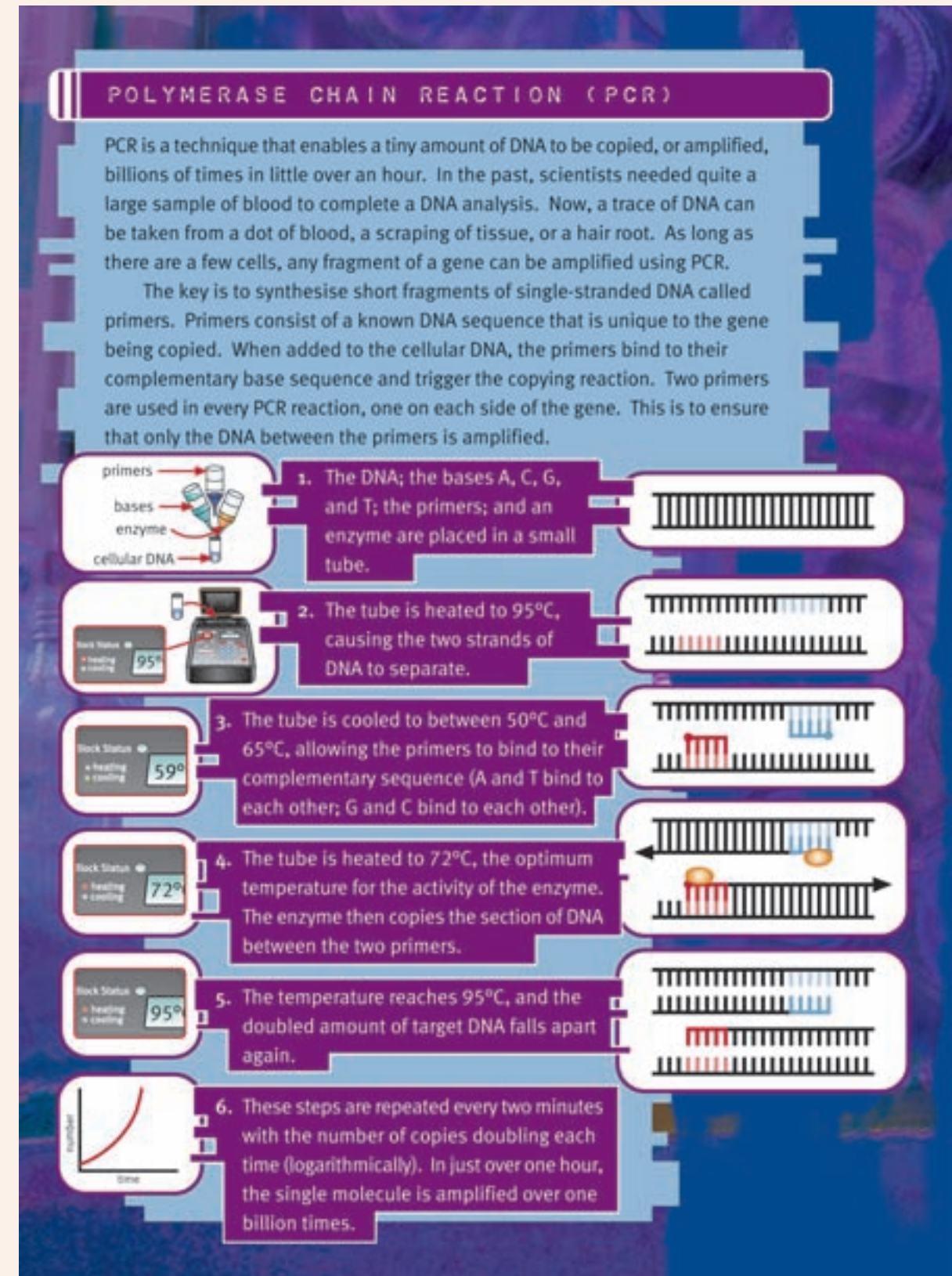


From *The Gene Seekers* by Bill O'Brien
(Applications series, 2001)



Applications series books use exciting, real-life stories to present science and technology concepts and language within meaningful contexts for years 9–11.

Reading and writing float on a sea of talk.
James Britton, educationist
(cited in www.bbc.co.uk/cbeebies/grownups/about/howchildrenlearn/listening_speaking_literacy_02.shtml)



The texts students write

During **years 9 and 10**, students continue to develop their writing in order to think about, record, and communicate experiences, ideas, and information on a wide range of topics and themes. They are required to write (often using electronic media) a wide range of texts, such as essays, reports, narratives, blogs, feature articles, character profiles, responses to literature, and short answers or explanations.

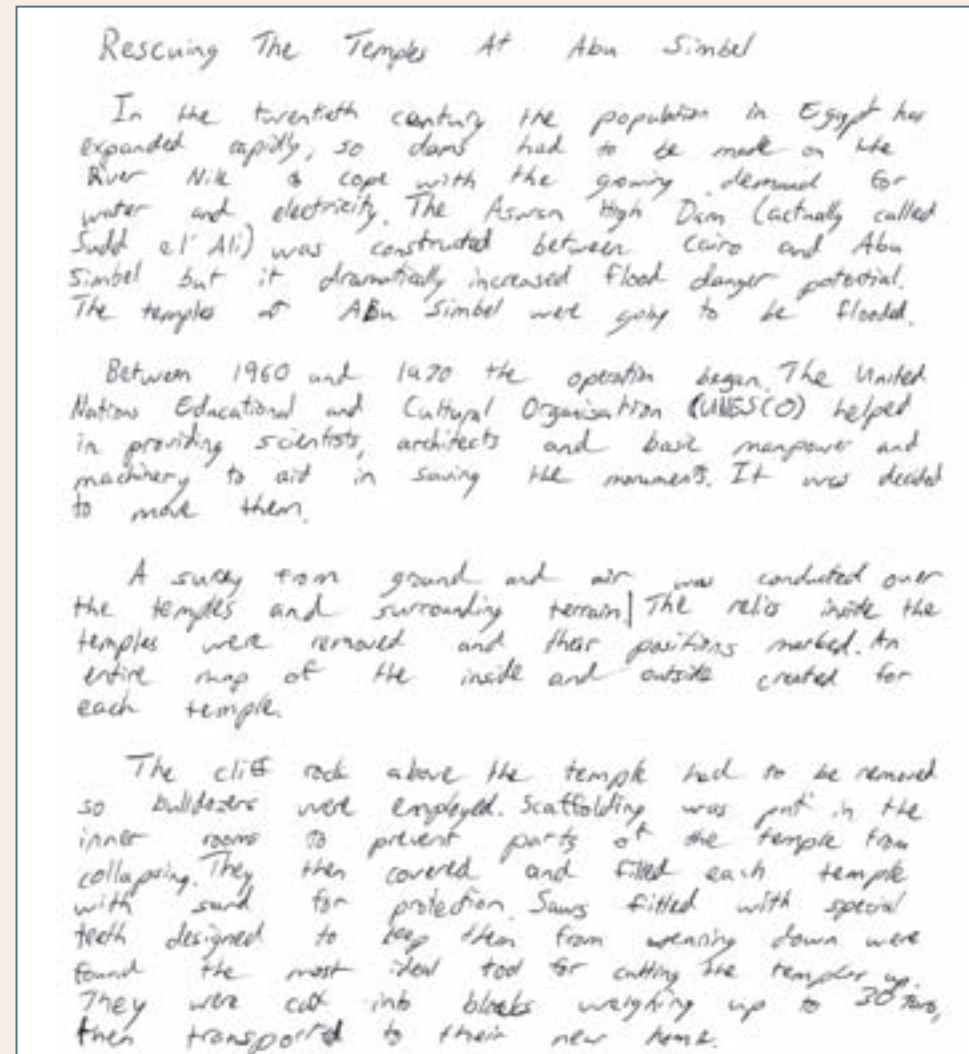
The texts that they create often include:

- a complex range of ideas expressed concisely (e.g., in short answers);
- description or explanation of concepts, processes, phenomena, theories, principles, beliefs, and opinions (their own and other people's);
- specialised vocabulary that relates to a range of topics within and across curriculum areas, including vocabulary that expresses abstract concepts;
- a variety of grammatical constructions in more complex and varied sentences and with greater paragraph elaboration;
- features and structures that are appropriate to specific text types, such as instructions and arguments;
- rhetorical patterns, such as: classifying; comparing and contrasting; defining; and describing cause and effect;
- clearly marked sections and paragraphs that use headings and subheadings (where appropriate) and that also use other organising devices, such as topic sentences.

By the end of **year 10**, students use language and text forms flexibly to meet the demands of different curriculum areas. They interpret the requirements of a writing task and select an appropriate process for their purpose.

When students at this level create texts, they:

- select from their repertoire of planning strategies according to their purpose;
- deliberately use their writing to develop their ideas;
- use their writing to explain concepts, processes, phenomena, theories, principles, beliefs, and opinions (their own and other people's) that are relevant to the curriculum task;
- use language, text structures, and media that are appropriate for their purpose;
- understand a complex notion of audience (e.g., the teacher and an imagined audience) and know how to write for such an audience, selecting appropriate voice, tone, and register;
- review their text to ensure that it meets its purpose (e.g., by identifying and addressing problems, adding detail, or modifying tone);
- use a range of strategies for editing and proofreading their text to check meaning, accuracy, legibility, and conformity to any expected standards.



"Rescuing the Temples at Abu Simbel" at www.tki.org.nz/r/assessment/exemplars/eng/explanation/wpp_5h_e.php

Reading and writing float on a sea of talk.

James Britton, educationist

(cited in www.bbc.co.uk/cbeebies/grownups/about/howchildrentlearn/listening_speaking_literacy_02.shtml)

They draw on knowledge and skills that include:

- knowing a wide variety of text types and text forms, knowing the specific features and structures associated with each, and using appropriate text types and text forms flexibly in different subject areas;
- achieving coherence and cohesion in paragraphs or in longer sections of their writing (e.g., by inserting a subheading, by using a topic sentence, or by using discourse markers such as *although* and *furthermore* to make meaning clear and to link clauses);
- having a large productive vocabulary that includes academic, subject-specific, and technical terms and some low-frequency words and phrases;
- using nominalisation to express increasingly abstract and complex ideas that conform with academic conventions (e.g., *The reduction of traffic was a major factor ...*) and to create links that increase the conciseness and coherence of their writing (e.g., by forming the noun *decision* from the verb *decide* in order to write *The government decided ... This decision*);
- knowledge of the generative principles of word formation (based on roots, prefixes, and suffixes) and the ability to apply this knowledge to extend their productive vocabulary;
- using a wide range of text conventions (including grammatical, spelling, and punctuation conventions) appropriately and with increasing accuracy;
- correctly acknowledging sources of information, of quotations, and of reproduced visual material.

GLOSSARY: DEVELOPING A SHARED LANGUAGE

Academic language or vocabulary: terms that are commonly used in the classroom and in learning contexts but not often in everyday contexts (or with a different meaning in everyday contexts). Academic vocabulary includes the vocabulary required for classroom discussion and curriculum work, e.g., *define*, *method*.

Access: the opportunity or ability to use a resource, such as the curriculum

Ako: a Māori concept describing a teaching and learning relationship where the educator is also learning from the student. The concept incorporates the linked ideas that educators' practices are informed by the latest research and are both deliberate and reflective; that educators need to know about and respect students' language, identity, and culture; and that educators, students, whānau, hapū, and iwi share knowledge in productive partnerships.

Alphabetic principle: the idea or understanding that letters of the alphabet represent specific sounds in speech

Automaticity: the automatic processing of information as, for example, when a reader or writer does not need to pause to work out words as they read or write

Blend: to join sounds together. *See also* segment.

Chunk: a sound or a group of letters, within a spoken or written word, that includes more than one phoneme or grapheme. Teachers encourage students to identify familiar chunks in unfamiliar words in order to help them decode.

Cognitive resources: the knowledge, strategies, and awareness that students draw on to make meaning as they read and write. As reading and writing develop, some aspects of reading and writing become automatic, freeing up cognitive resources to deal with other aspects of tasks.

Cohesive device: a language feature used to make connections within a text or to draw attention to existing connections, e.g., the use of linking words such as *because* and *however*, the repeated use of pronouns (*Mere ... she ... she ...*), and the use of demonstratives such as *this* and *that*

Collocation: a set of two or more words that are often used together as a pair or word cluster that may have its own meaning, e.g., *place value*; *white lie*

Competencies: *see* key competencies

Competing information: information in a text that doesn't match the reader's purpose for reading and tends to distract the reader

Complex sentence: a sentence that has a main clause and at least one subordinate clause, which begins with a subordinating conjunction such as *when*, *how*, *because*, *although*, and so on – e.g., *She could paint amazing pictures [main clause] although she was only six [subordinate clause]*. The subordinate clause is dependent on the main clause and cannot stand alone.

Compound sentence: a sentence consisting of at least two main clauses. The clauses are independent of each other (each one could stand alone) and are linked by a co-ordinating conjunction such as *and*, *but*, or *or*, e.g., *I mowed the lawn, but you trimmed the edges*.

Connotations: the particular associations that certain words and phrases evoke in readers' minds, which affect the way in which readers interpret the text

Constrained reading skills: *see* page 4

Content (of a text): the ideas or information contained within a text. *See also* context.

Content-specific vocabulary: *see* topic words

Context: the surrounding text, topic, conditions, or activities that affect how we understand specific words, sentences, and ideas within a text. *See also* content.

Continuous texts: texts in which sentences are usually organised into paragraphs, e.g., in narrative, exposition, description, or argument. *See also* non-continuous texts.

Denotation: the literal meaning of a word; the use of words to name or symbolise particular things, e.g., *Labrador* denotes a certain breed of dog

Dialogue: speech in written form. In the context of early reading, dialogue means direct speech using speech marks.

Discourse marker: a word or phrase in a text that helps the reader (or listener) to follow the relationships between the parts of the text, e.g., *Of course, but, Firstly ... finally*

Evaluating (by students): considering selected ideas and information in the text in relation to their purpose for reading or writing. Students generalise from the ideas and information in the text and make judgments about them by drawing on their own knowledge and experience.

Expressive vocabulary: vivid, lively, and/or emotive words and terms

Features: *see* text features

Figurative language: language that uses images to build meaning without literal description and often without direct comparison, e.g., by using metaphor, as in *Night is a Blanket*

Fluency: the ability to speak, read, or write rapidly and accurately, focusing on meaning and phrasing without having to give laborious attention to the individual words or the common forms and sequences of the language. The term *fluency* is also used to refer to the upper levels of the Ready to Read colour wheel. Refer to “A note on fluency in written language”, on page 24 of *Effective Literacy Practice in Years 5 to 8*, for more information about the concept of fluency.

Grapheme: a written unit that represents one phoneme, e.g., *f, th, o, ee*

Grapheme–phoneme relationships: *see* phoneme–grapheme relationships

Hypertext: a system that allows extensive cross-referencing in digital media. It allows sections of text to be read in different sequences as readers choose their own paths to the information they seek.

Independently, largely by themselves: with minimal support. The amount of support given and the way the student responds will help the teacher to make a professional judgment about the extent of control the student has over their own reading or writing.

Integrating (by the student): bringing ideas and information together and considering how they link to other ideas, features, or structures and to their own prior knowledge and experience

Interactive tools (reading and writing): tools that readers and writers can use to interact reflectively with texts, tasks, and the world to achieve learning purposes across the curriculum. Students use reading and writing to learn from experience, to deal with change, and to think critically about the texts and tasks of the curriculum.

Key competencies: capabilities for living and lifelong learning. They are the key to learning in every area. The key competencies are specified in *The New Zealand Curriculum*.

Language features: text features that relate directly to the words and how they are used in the text, e.g., the vocabulary, syntax, and figurative language

Largely by themselves: *see* independently, largely by themselves

Letter–sound relationships: *see* phoneme–grapheme relationships

Level: a term used for the colour wheel levels of the Ready to Read series, the year levels of school classes, and the eight levels of learning that structure the New Zealand Curriculum. The term is also used in this book more generally, e.g., to refer to levels of text difficulty or of expertise.

Locating (by students): searching for and finding information and ideas for specific purposes related to curriculum tasks

Making notes: writing notes in order to keep a record of relevant information while reading. *See also* note-taking.

Metacognition: a person's awareness of how they think and learn; the process of thinking about one's own learning

Morphology: the study of the forms of words and how they are constructed in terms of parts that have meaning

Nominalisation: forming a noun from a verb or adjective

Non-continuous texts: texts that do not usually contain sentences organised into paragraphs, e.g., charts and graphs, tables and matrices, diagrams, maps, forms, information sheets, advertisements, vouchers, and certificates

Note-taking: writing notes in order to keep a record of what a speaker is saying. *See also* making notes.

Personal vocabulary: words and phrases that have personal meaning for the reader or writer, such as familiar names and words for places, activities, actions, and feelings that are important to that person

Phoneme: the smallest segment of sound in spoken language

Phoneme-grapheme relationships: the relationships between spoken sound units and the written symbols that represent them

Phonological awareness: an overall understanding of the sound systems of a language, e.g., an awareness that words are made up of combinations of sounds

Processes: *see* writing processes

Productive vocabulary: the words and phrases a student knows and can produce by saying or writing them. *See also* receptive vocabulary.

Progressions (in the context of this book): the learning steps or pathways that students take in their learning. This document and the National Standards for reading and writing reflect a cumulative model of literacy development, in which the student builds new learning on their existing knowledge and skills by engaging with increasingly complex texts and tasks, guided by expert instruction.

Readability: the level or reading age at which the text can be read. Readability levels for *School Journal* texts are based on the Elley noun frequency method. (Note that the concept of reading age provides only a rough guide to the complexity of a text, and the term is not a valid way to describe a student's level of reading expertise.)

Reading comprehension strategies: those strategies that enable students to build and enhance their understanding of the text they read and to think critically about it. *See Effective Literacy Practice in Years 1 to 4*, pages 131–135, and *Effective Literacy Practice in Years 5 to 8*, pages 141–151.

Reading processing strategies: the “in the head” ways in which readers make use of the sources of information in the text to decode words. These strategies include attending and searching, predicting, cross-checking and confirming, and self-correcting. *See Effective Literacy Practice in Years 1 to 4*, pages 38–39, and *Effective Literacy Practice in Years 5 to 8*, page 36.

Receptive vocabulary: the words and phrases a student recognises when they read them or hear them spoken; a student's receptive vocabulary will generally be greater than their productive vocabulary. *See also* productive vocabulary.

Register: the language features associated with a particular kind of audience or occasion, including use of the specialist vocabulary associated with specific audiences, topics, or text forms

Rime: the sound that follows the onset (initial sound) in a syllable, e.g., *sh-op*, *scr-ap*, *f-ish*

Segment: to separate sounds out. *See also* blend.

Simple sentence: a sentence containing only one main clause, e.g., *A kererū perched on the branch* or *Mi'i is six today*.

Standard: a reference point or benchmark that describes the performance desired at a specific stage

Subject-specific vocabulary: words that are used in the context of a specific subject, e.g., *alliteration*, *chemical reaction*, *communities*

Synthesising (by students): drawing two or more pieces of information together to create new understanding. In doing this, the student selects and uses information according to their purpose for reading or writing.

Tasks: the planned reading, writing, oral, or practical activities through which students engage with the curriculum for an identified learning purpose

Text: a piece of spoken, written, or visual communication that is a whole unit, e.g., a conversation, a poem, a web page, a speech, or a poster

Text features: a general term for all the written, graphic, and interactive characteristics that make one text similar to or different from another. Text features include the generic structure of the text (which is linked to its purpose); the layout of the text; the use of visual language features (such as headings, maps, diagrams, and illustrations); the language used; and the voice and register.

Text form: the essential structure of a text type with characteristic features, e.g., a poem, a magazine article, or a letter to the editor

Text type (genre): a particular kind of text, with features and conventions linked to the text's purpose, e.g., an illustrated article to explain how something works, a letter written to argue a case, or a narrative written to entertain

Tone (in writing): the phrasing and/or vocabulary used to express the emotion or perspective that the writer wants to convey

Topic: an identified theme or subject

Topic words: words specific to a topic (although they may also be used in other contexts); e.g., *muster* and *drafting* are specific to the topic of sheep shearing

Unconstrained reading skills: see page 4

Visual language features: text features that consist of graphic elements (e.g., headings, text boxes, maps, charts, diagrams, illustrations, and photos as well as links, menus, and buttons, as found in web pages). See also written language features.

Vocabulary: a set of words and other terms (including phrases or idioms that have a single meaning), e.g., *activate*, *exercise book*, and *bury the hatchet* are all vocabulary items (or lexical items)

Voice: the personal characteristics in a text (including tone, register, style, and text features) through which the reader can identify either a particular writer or the kind of person that the writing suggests the writer is

Word-solving strategies: strategies used by readers to work out (decode) unfamiliar words, e.g., looking for known chunks; and using knowledge of grapheme–phoneme relationships. Strategies for working out word meanings include looking for definitions or explanations and using prior knowledge or morphemes such as *-ful*.

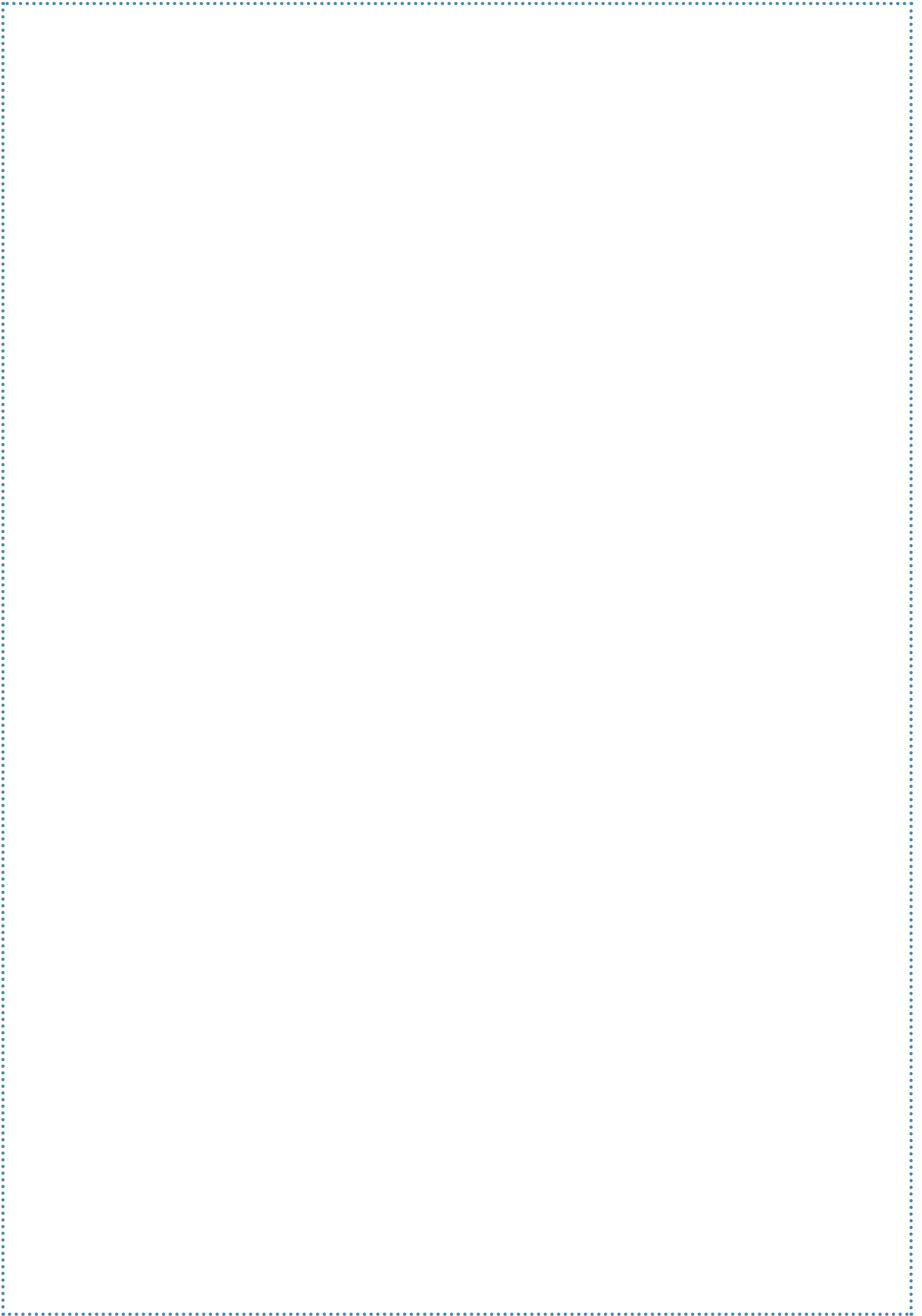
Writing processes: the many different ways in which writing is developed from the original idea to recording in print or other media. The processes selected depend on the writing purpose and on the writer's own style and thought processes and may range from simply jotting down or dictating ideas for a reminder list through to planning, drafting, revising, and publishing a text. See *Effective Literacy Practice in Years 5 to 8*, page 153.

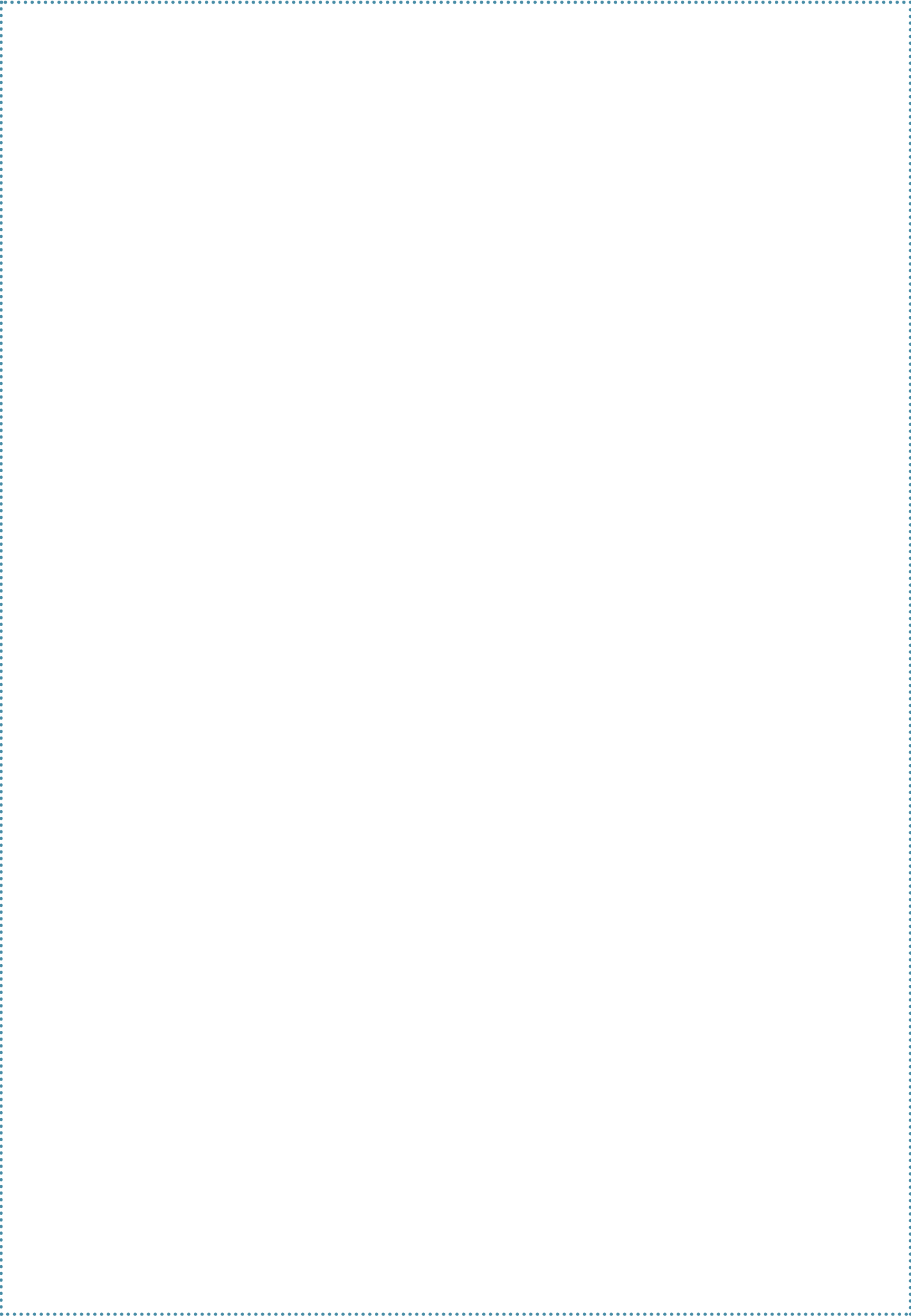
Written language features (in contrast to visual language features): text features that consist of verbal elements in written texts. This includes all kinds of language features, including vocabulary, sentence structures, and figurative language.

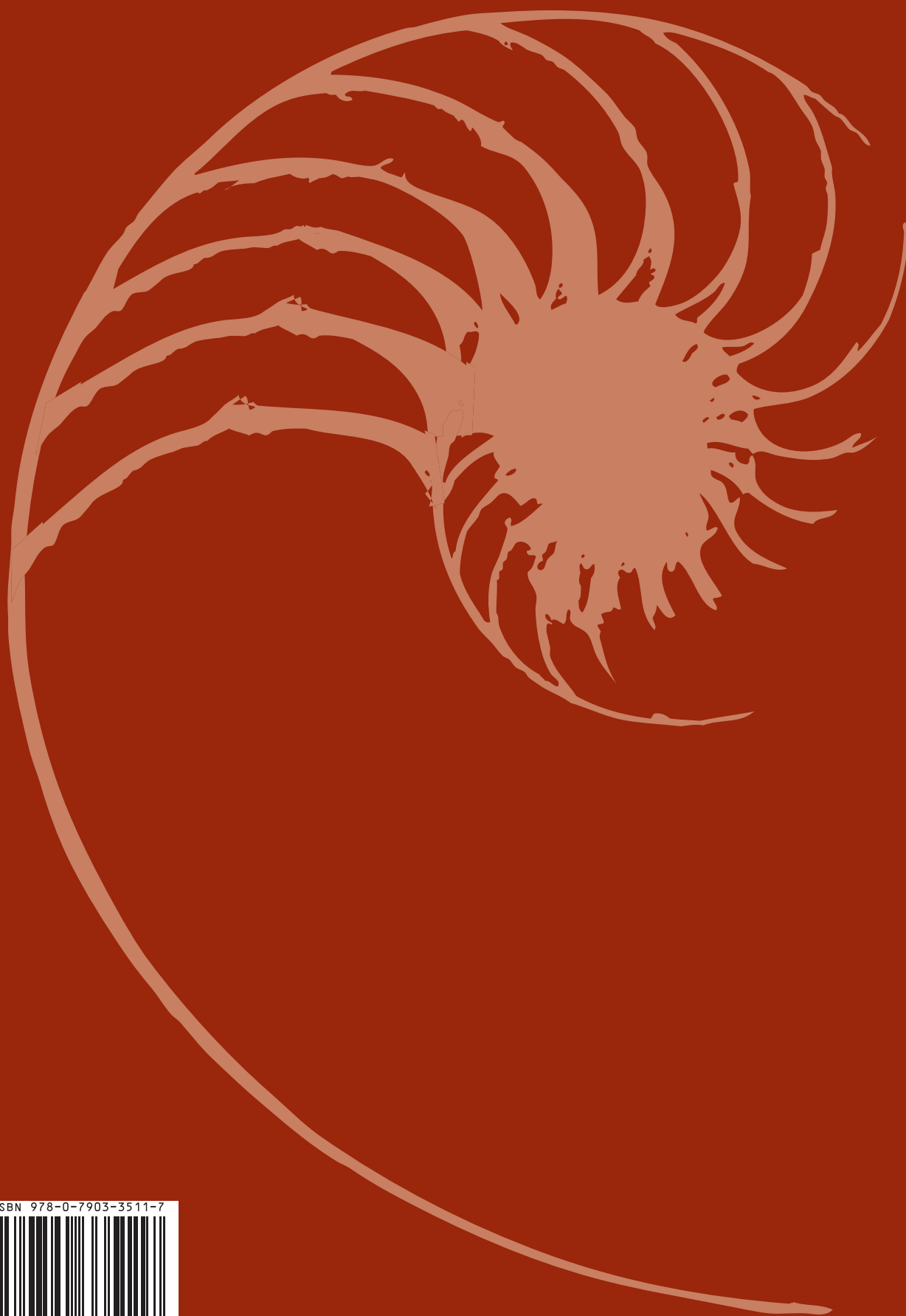
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