



MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

Te Tāhuhu o te Mātauranga

The English Language Learning Progressions

Years 9–13

A resource for mainstream and ESOL teachers

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Introduction



This booklet describes the learning pathways that learners in years 9–13 typically follow as they acquire an additional language (New Zealand English).

English language learners in years 9–13 are usually between thirteen and eighteen years of age. This group will include new learners of English as well as learners who are progressing through the later stages of the English Language Learning Progressions (ELLP). Some learners may come from a refugee background and may have had disrupted schooling. The English language level of learners in years 9–13 may be at any stage of the English Language Learning Progressions, so this booklet includes examples of oral language, texts for reading, and learners' writing that are appropriate for this age group at all of the stages.

It is very important to check how much prior formal education newly arrived students in years 9–13 have had.

An English language learner's level of English is usually related closely to their education levels in their first language and their previous English language learning. (There are also many other factors that affect a learner's progress – see pages 6–8 of the introductory booklet for information about these.)

Secondary school programmes have higher academic language demands than those at earlier year levels. Year 9–13 learners who are at the early stages of the ELLP, in particular, need systematic support from their teachers to gain the English language skills they need for learning at their cohort (peer) level in all the curriculum areas. Teachers also need to adapt and modify curriculum content so that these learners are better able to understand it. This booklet can help you to decide how far to adapt the content of oral and written resources for each learner so that you can personalise learning for your diverse learners (as recommended in *Quality Teaching for Diverse Students in Schooling: Best Evidence Synthesis*).

It's therefore vital that the language-learning needs of learners in years 9–13 are diagnosed accurately so that they can get the kind of help they need. ESOL specialists (and other relevant specialists) should be involved in diagnosing each learner's language-learning needs and in selecting, adapting, or supplementing the content of learning resources to meet these needs.

English language learners in secondary schools need language support from subject area teachers too, including teachers of subjects like maths and science. The language support needs to be closely linked to curriculum content learning so that the new language students learn is useful and relevant to them. You can look at some successful ways of supporting English language learners in mainstream classes on the DVD series *Making Language and Learning Work 1: Integrating Language and Learning in Secondary Maths and Science* and *Making Language and Learning Work 2: Integrating Language and Learning in Secondary English and Social Science* and on ESOL Online (www.tki.org.nz/r/esol/esolonline/).

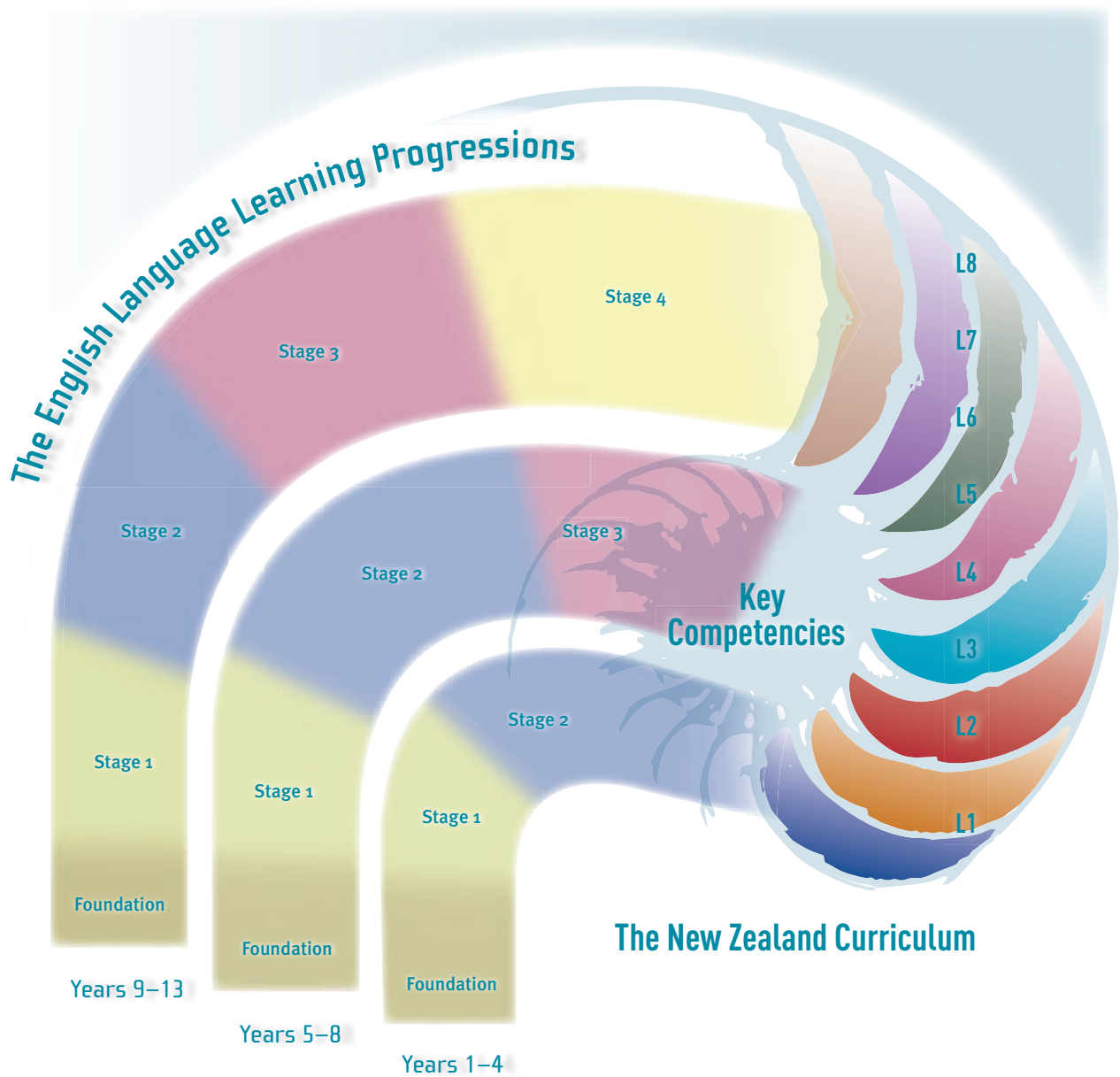
It's also important to reinforce the value of an English language learner's first language,¹ and learners in years 9–13 generally have a more developed knowledge of their first language than younger learners. Research shows that when a learner is encouraged to discuss concepts and tasks in their first language, their achievement is likely to be higher.

¹ Although the term "first language" is commonly used in the singular, some learners may have more than one first language.

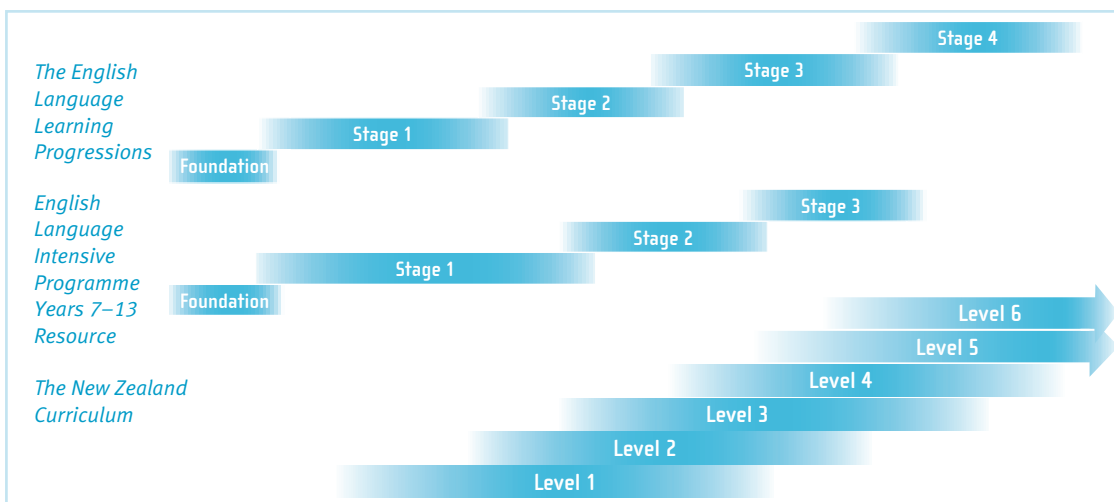
This booklet is arranged into three sections: Oral Language, Reading, and Writing, each relevant to teachers of learners in years 9–13. It also includes a section with learning prompts that are appropriate for this age group. The Record of Progress form on page 89 allows teachers to record the progress of individual learners.

The *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource* provides detailed models of texts for teaching oral language, reading, and writing. These texts are relevant to a number of curriculum areas and include descriptions of language features. The resource also suggests teaching approaches to support English language learners.

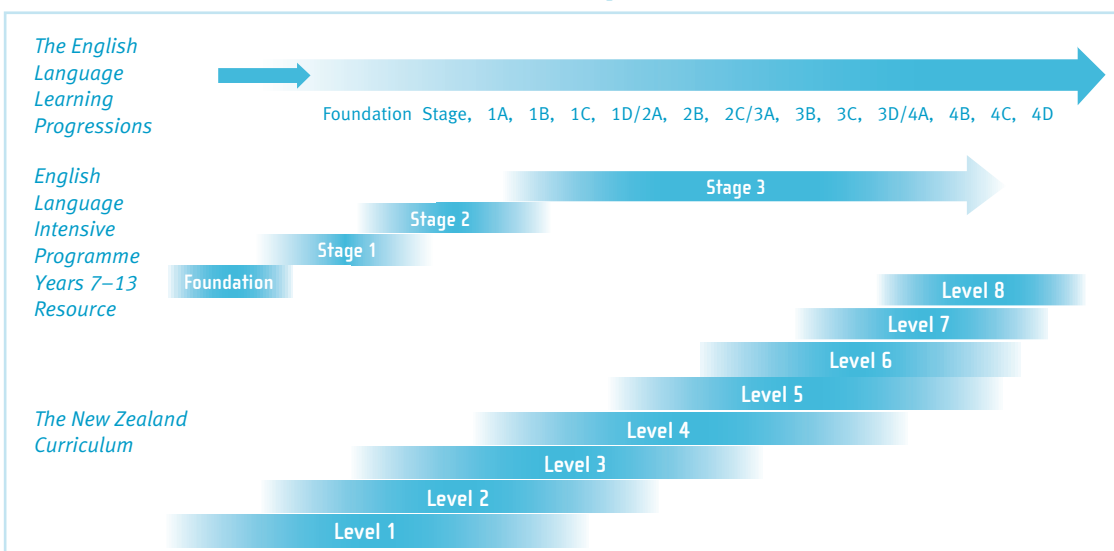
The English Language Learning Progressions and related resources



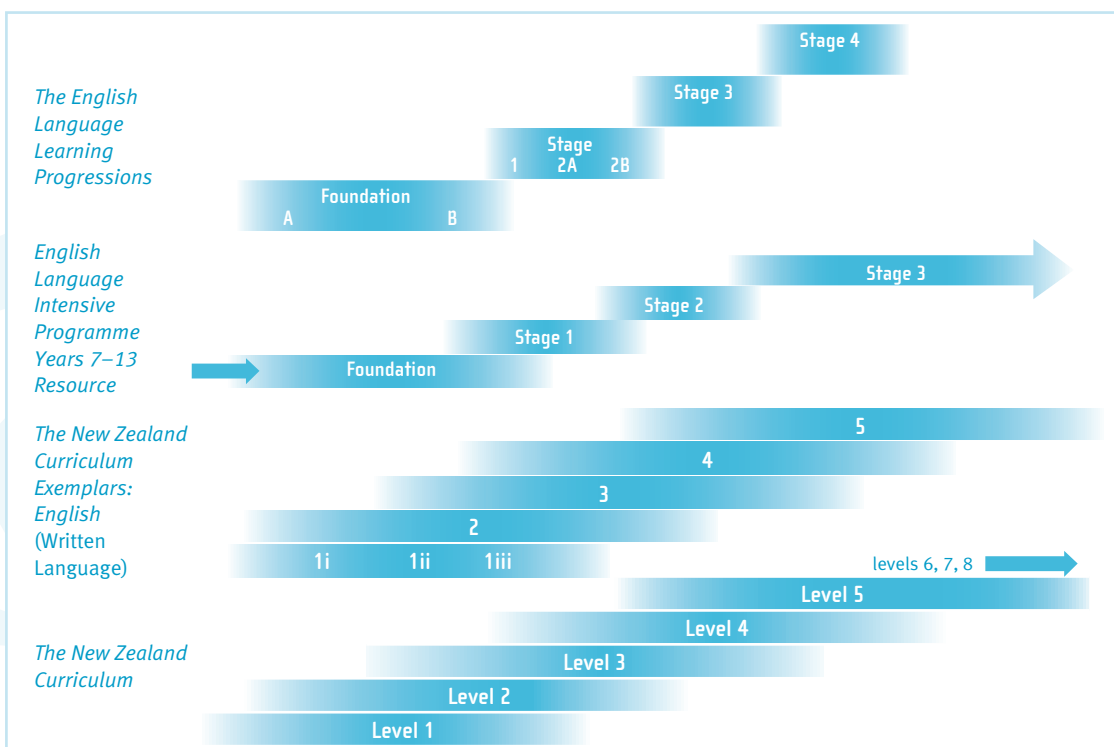
Oral language – speaking and listening



Reading



Writing



Relating the English Language Learning Progressions to other frameworks and resources

The oral language, reading, and writing progression diagrams on page 5 show the relationships between the stages of the English Language Learning Progressions (ELLP), the New Zealand Curriculum, and the *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource* (ELIP). For writing, the stages of the New Zealand Curriculum Exemplars for English (Written Language) are also shown.

The oral language progression diagram shows the relationship between the stages of the ELLP, the New Zealand Curriculum, and ELIP. The foundation stages of the ELLP and the ELIP begin at an earlier point than the levels of the New Zealand Curriculum. This reflects the difference between a native speaker of English who already has an oral language base in English before they start school and an English language learner who is just beginning to learn English.

The reading progression diagram shows the relationship between the stages of text development in the ELLP, the language outcomes of the ELIP, and the eight levels of the New Zealand Curriculum.

The writing progression diagram shows the relationship between the stages of writing development in the ELLP, the ELIP, and the New Zealand Curriculum Exemplars for English (Written Language), and the eight levels of the New Zealand Curriculum.

In the oral language, reading, and writing progression diagrams, there is no clearly defined beginning or end to any of the stages. A learner's performance varies in different contexts and always depends on what they bring to the task, their age, the demands of the task, their level of first-language literacy, and the quality and extent of the teacher's scaffolding. The progressions are not restricted to the English curriculum area: oral language, reading, and writing need to be developed in all the learning areas.

Oral language is sometimes assumed to be less complex than written language. Spoken language that occurs in face-to-face contexts and is about things that the learner can see is often easier to comprehend than written language that refers to abstract concepts or unfamiliar ideas. However, oral language can also involve abstract concepts and ideas that are new to the learner, and (unlike written language) it can't usually be reviewed by the listener. Oral language is often as complex as written language and is sometimes more difficult to process. It challenges the learner in different ways from written language.

Children learn to speak their first language before they learn to read and write it, and it's widely known that they will learn to read and write more easily if they have first developed a rich bank of oral language. However, unlike a **native speaker** of English, an English language learner hasn't necessarily established an oral language base in English as part of their development before they start school. An English language learner may, therefore, not have an existing basis in oral language on which to build English literacy skills.

What's different about speaking and listening in an additional language?

There are many interrelated factors that may influence an English language learner's proficiency in oral language, including:

- the content of their previous English language instruction (if any);
- the teaching approaches used in previous English language instruction (if any);
- the age at which they begin (or began) learning English;
- their level of confidence in speaking English.

English language learners in New Zealand are learning English in a context where it's the everyday language of the majority of the community. All new English language learners face significant challenges when speaking and listening to New Zealand English. At the same time as they are learning the vocabulary and grammatical structures of the new language, they're also working to gain control over other features of oral language. They need to learn the sounds of English words, the subtle meanings conveyed by changes in tone and speed, and the differences in meaning that a change in stress can make. (For example, “*refuse*”, with the stress on the first syllable, is a noun that means “rubbish”, but “*refuse*”, with the stress on the second syllable, is a verb that means “to say no to something”.) These are called the **prosodic features**² of a language. Prosodic features combine with **non-verbal language** features, such as facial expressions, to create and convey meaning, and both are culturally determined dimensions of the language. It takes time to learn the significance of the prosodic features of a new language.

Some learners will need to adjust their prior learning of one variety of English (such as American English) in order to learn New Zealand English, which has its own distinct features of pronunciation and vocabulary. For example, New Zealand English includes some words from te reo Māori.

Some learners who can already read and write in their first language may learn to do the same in the new language before they are able to comprehend it orally. This is especially likely if they first learned English at school in a context where:

- English was not the language of the community;
- teachers focused more on written English than on oral English;
- there were few opportunities to listen to or speak with native speakers of English.

Why can some learners read and write in English before they learn to speak it?

² *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*, by David Crystal, discusses different aspects of spoken and written language. It explains how the prosodic features of each language differ and how they are interpreted and expressed in different cultures. Prosodic features are also described in *Exploring Language*, Ministry of Education, 1996.

Learners will generally understand more than they can say – their receptive language will be more advanced than their productive language.

Learners need to develop oral language in all the learning areas, not just in English.

Why should we wait longer before expecting a response from an English language learner?

English language learners need continuing access to oral input in their first language and encouragement and opportunities to think and talk in their first language.

Many English language learners who come to New Zealand schools are from backgrounds like this. Because they have some knowledge of the language structures and vocabulary, they have an initial advantage over those who have never learned English. However, these learners, in particular, will need their teachers to provide explicit support for their oral language development.

On the other hand, there are learners who can communicate effectively in English in social contexts but who have very little experience in understanding and speaking English in curriculum contexts. These learners will need their teachers to provide explicit support to help them extend their bank of spoken English to include the English vocabulary and structures needed for classroom learning.

There are also English language learners who will begin learning oral and written English at the same time. They will be learning the grammatical structures, vocabulary, sound system, and writing system of the new language all at once and will need explicit support in all aspects of language learning.

When English language learners begin to speak English, their first language is likely to have a strong influence on their grammar and pronunciation. But if they begin learning English at an early age, they may eventually show few if any indications (such as in stress patterns or accent) that it's not their native tongue.

Many factors can affect a learner's speaking proficiency. Each time a learner speaks, what they say will be affected not only by their knowledge of the language but also by the sociocultural context, for example, whether they know the person they are speaking to. The English language learner may also need to explore and discuss the differences between non-verbal and prosodic features of their first language (such as body language and intonation) and those of English, as these features are often culturally specific. Because of the complexity of oral language production, teachers (and other listeners) often need to allow additional "wait time" to give learners a chance to initiate, respond, and interact with others.

English language learners should be encouraged to continue to develop oral language skills in their first language and to use critical-thinking skills (and other oral language skills) in their first language to help them develop oral language in English. **Cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP)** develops better when the first language develops alongside the additional language.

When working with an English language learner in years 9–13, effective teachers provide continuing affirmation of their first language and opportunities for them to use their first language wherever possible. Effective teachers also help learners to make links between their use of written and oral language to ensure that both aspects of their language develop together. Teaching approaches such as shared and guided reading and writing and experienced-based learning support these very close links between reading, writing, and oral language. These links are further supported by the use of manipulative materials (for example, magnetic letters, picture cards and labels, and board games), audio materials, and digital media.

While much of the information in *Effective Literacy Strategies in Years 9 to 13* applies as much to English language learners as it does to native speakers of English, it's especially important for English language learners to be given a range of models of oral language and to be supported by explicit teaching of vocabulary and grammar. (See *Expanding Oral Language in the Classroom* [van Hees, 2007].)

The oral language progression

The oral language progression that follows is set out in two matrices. The first matrix (output) indicates the **verbal** and **non-verbal language** that learners are likely to produce at all five stages of the ELLP (Foundation Stage to Stage 4). Learners may produce only a selection of the suggested output at any one time, and whether what they say is appropriate or not will depend on the context and the purpose for speaking.

The second matrix (input) lists what learners at all five stages are likely to understand of what they hear with varying levels of support. At the early stages, processing all aspects of spoken language at the same time is a significant challenge because the listener can't review spoken language unless it's recorded or repeated. Teachers can use this matrix to help them to speak appropriately so that learners at each stage can understand them. Teachers can support learners to increase their comprehension of input by **elaborating on** or expanding oral text.

Output and input levels should not be seen as parallel because, for most learners of a new language, receptive understanding is usually ahead of production for quite a long time (as noted in the introductory booklet on pages 5 and 15).

For exemplars of oral language at the various stages, please see the accompanying DVD *Oral Language Exemplars for the English Language Learning Progressions*.

The oral language matrix: output

	Interpersonal context	Content	Delivery	Non-verbal responses	Language structures
<i>The learner may:</i>					
Foundation Stage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> respond in face-to-face social or curriculum contexts respond with a mixture of their first language and English participate in limited interactions in pair, small-group, and whole-class contexts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> say a few words in English give a formulaic but appropriate response use a gesture or facial expression to indicate that they do or don't understand remain silent or give an inappropriate response 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> not respond at all or pause for a long time before responding have pronunciation that is strongly influenced by their first language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> respond with a relevant action, gesture, or facial expression respond with silence, which may indicate respect for the speaker, a lack of comprehension, or a lack of confidence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> say single words echo phrases that they hear respond in their first language
Stage 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> respond with a mixture of their first language and English participate in limited interactions in pair, small-group, and whole-class contexts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> retell the main ideas or messages from their reading or listening and present one or two ideas use a gesture, facial expression, or phrase to indicate that they do or don't understand initiate communication (e.g., by making requests or comments or by offering information) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> pause and hesitate when speaking make some distinctions between minimal pairs in English (e.g., "pin" and "bin", "ship" and "sheep") have pronunciation that shows features of their first language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> follow an instruction or complete a task respond with silence, which may indicate respect for the speaker, a lack of comprehension, or a lack of confidence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> use mostly high-frequency words and leave out structural words use non-standard vocabulary and sentence structures use the subject-verb-object structure if they have had a chance to plan what they are going to say
Stage 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> respond in an appropriate or relevant way for the audience and the purpose for communicating participate in different interactive group situations, such as pairs, groups, and whole-class discussions use English confidently and appropriately in a range of situations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ask questions, give instructions, negotiate disagreements, buy something in a shop, arrange appointments, or explain a problem 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> use a larger vocabulary and give detailed responses speak fluently, with occasional pauses and hesitation pronounce most words in a way that is usually clear to the listener, although they may retain some features of their first language make distinctions between minimal pairs in English (e.g., "pin" and "bin", "ship" and "sheep") 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> begin to make use of non-verbal features of the English language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> include structural vocabulary to produce fairly coherent and accurate standard English rely less on formulaic chunks and use more independently generated language structures
Stage 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> respond in a way that is appropriate or relevant for the audience and the purpose for communicating choose appropriate vocabulary (e.g., making distinctions between technical, formal, and informal vocabulary) speak in a variety of contexts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> take turns, initiate conversations, and talk for a long time, both when they have had time to plan what they will say and when they speak spontaneously use language devices (e.g., puns and irony) appropriately for effect 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> pronounce words so that the listener can usually understand them easily (although depending on the speaker's age and other factors, their pronunciation may retain some features of their first language) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> consciously choose non-verbal features of the English language to use in their own communication 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> use increasingly varied and complex language structures in standard English, with few inaccuracies use features of natural spoken language (e.g., saying "coming" instead of "I am coming")
Stage 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> choose appropriate language for different audiences, purposes, contexts, and effects (e.g., making distinctions between formal and informal contexts). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> take turns, initiate conversations, and talk for a long time, both when they have had time to plan what they will say and when they speak spontaneously use sophisticated language devices, such as irony, satire, and euphemisms, appropriately for effect. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> pronounce words clearly and speak accurately and fluently. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> use non-verbal features of spoken language, such as pauses, changes in pitch or volume, and gestures for effect. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> use increasingly varied and complex standard English language structures, with few inaccuracies.

The oral language matrix: input

	Interpersonal context	Content	Delivery	Language structures	First-language support
	<i>The learner may understand:</i>				<i>The learner needs:</i>
Foundation Stage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – language use in face-to-face contexts, often with support from pictures or objects – limited interactions in pairs (student to student and student to teacher) – limited interactions in small-group contexts – limited interactions in whole-class contexts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – basic concepts expressed in simple English (e.g., colours, shapes, time, dates, numbers, body parts, feelings) – some basic instructions and simple questions – models of different types of oral texts (see <i>English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource</i>) – words that are significant to or for them 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – slow and clear speech, using simple language – direct address, with key words repeated often – gestures and facial expressions that accompany simple instructions, information, or questions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – individual words and some short chunks of language (formulaic chunks) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – extensive first-language support (e.g., through bilingual helpers or bilingual picture dictionaries and first-language texts)
Stage 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – limited interactions in pairs (student to student and student to teacher) – limited interactions in small-group contexts – limited interactions in whole-class contexts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – curriculum content that reflects what their peers are learning in mainstream classes – simple, repetitive texts, such as songs, rhymes, poems, and raps – one or two clusters of ideas in familiar curriculum and social contexts – carefully scaffolded texts in unfamiliar curriculum contexts – simple oral texts, which may be presented on CDs, CD-ROMs, or DVDs (e.g., the CD <i>Junior Journal 34 and 35</i>) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – the meaning of gestures, facial expressions, and changes in volume or tone – slow and clear speech, using longer phrases of simple language, with key ideas repeated – standard New Zealand English, including slang and idioms that are limited and/or explained 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – simple sentences and longer common phrases – short passages of natural speech, such as in conversations and instructions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – extensive first-language support (e.g., through bilingual helpers or bilingual picture dictionaries and first-language texts)
Stage 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – interactions in pairs (student to student and student to teacher) – interactions in small-group contexts – interactions in whole-class contexts – interactions through extended speech (e.g., listening to a debate) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – curriculum content that reflects what their peers are learning in mainstream classes – some commonly used colloquial expressions and some Māori words and phrases – extended speech in familiar curriculum and social contexts – extended speech in unfamiliar contexts with support – oral texts, which may be presented on CDs, CD-ROMs, or DVDs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – short passages of standard New Zealand English in a range of accents, spoken at a natural speed – extended speech that allows pauses for them to process what they have heard – the meaning of non-verbal language features (body language and prosodic features) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – some complex sentences – complete and incomplete sentences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – continued first-language support wherever possible, from bilingual helpers, bilingual dictionaries, and first-language texts
Stage 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – extended passages of natural speech – multiple speakers in interactive contexts (e.g., a group or panel discussion) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – a wide range of curriculum and social content – extended passages of natural speech in familiar and unfamiliar curriculum and social contexts – extended oral texts, which may be presented on CDs, CD-ROMs, or DVDs (e.g., the Choices audiobook <i>Danger!</i>) – figurative language, as long as it is clearly defined and explained (e.g., puns and metaphors) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – a range of accents, including those of speakers for whom English is an additional language – the purpose and effect of non-verbal language features – both standard and colloquial language – language spoken at a natural pace 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – connected text with several ideas or text sequences – longer passages of speech spoken at a natural pace and without planned pauses (e.g., talks by visiting speakers) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – continued first-language support wherever possible, from bilingual helpers, bilingual dictionaries, and first-language texts
Stage 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – multiple speakers in interactive contexts (e.g., a group or panel discussion) – multimedia texts presented without interpersonal support (e.g., a video with no teacher support). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – a wide variety of texts, including multimedia texts – long and complex speech in a wide range of familiar and unfamiliar contexts – speech in situations that have an immediate context (e.g., a workshop or sports game) and in situations that don't have an immediate context (e.g., a history documentary) – sophisticated language devices, such as irony, satire, and euphemisms, as long as these are clearly identified and explained. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – the purpose and effect of non-verbal language features. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – complex, extended speech with a wide variety of structures at levels similar to a native speaker. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – continued encouragement to use their first language to enrich their learning.



Learning to read in a new language is different from learning to read in a first language, and it's important to have specific knowledge about the differences in order to teach English language learners effectively.

For learners in years 9–13 who have had interrupted or no formal education in their own language or in English, it will be especially important to establish and consolidate skills and knowledge for learning to read and then reading to learn. Learners who have had formal education in years 1–8 will already have gained some of these skills and knowledge.

Many English language learners in years 9–13 will have developed and be able to draw on concepts about print in their first language. However, text in their first language may be significantly different from text in English. For example, the script of their first language may be read in a different direction (right to left) or in vertical columns. Beginners, therefore, may need explicit instruction about how to approach books in English, in addition to information about how to **decode** in a different script or about different letter–sound relationships if their first language is in the same script as English.

English language learners will often have come from countries and cultures that are significantly different from New Zealand and so will need their knowledge of the unfamiliar culture and concepts built up through reading. At the same time, it's also important to use fictional and factual reading materials that include contexts and concepts that will be familiar to them.

Levels of text complexity

As a learner makes progress in reading (either in additional or first languages), they're able to comprehend increasingly complex texts. It's important for teachers to be able to recognise what makes a reading text easy or difficult for a particular learner so that they can choose the right text for that learner. There are many aspects of texts that may be considered when determining their level of complexity, including topic, vocabulary, sentence length and construction, **cohesion**, layout, length, and support from illustrations.

What makes a text easy or difficult for a learner?

One system of text levelling (used in the Ready to Read series) is the colour wheel. There are suggested levels for shared, guided, and independent reading printed on the colour wheel on the back of Ready to Read books. The colour wheel is divided into nine colour segments that indicate a gradient of complexity, beginning with Magenta (the emergent level), which is followed by Red, Yellow, Blue, and Green (the early levels), and Orange, Turquoise, Purple, and Gold (the fluency levels). Each text's colour wheel level is determined by considering a wide range of features, such as the amount of text, the vocabulary, the support from illustrations, the complexity of the sentences, the number of characters, the familiarity of the context, the text structure, the layout, and so on. Ready to Read books are used mainly by junior classes in primary schools.³

There are also a number of other ways to determine the complexity of a text. Many of these involve analysis of vocabulary, for example, the Elley Noun Count, which is used to assign “reading age” levels to *School Journal* texts.

³ This series is designed for younger learners but some texts may be appropriate for older beginners.

Most of these methods analyse text features that are relevant for English language learners. However, there are aspects of these interpretations of complexity that are inappropriate for these learners (such as the assumption that a very simple text must be for a very young reader). Teachers also need to consider some other text features, for example, idioms and other kinds of colloquial language, which may be difficult for an English language learner.

Making the most of a text

When teachers carefully choose a text, build on learners' experiences linked to the text, and engage in meaningful conversations about the concepts in the text, learners are able to engage more purposefully in building their understanding and their knowledge of new structures and vocabulary. It's important to draw specific attention to text features in a deliberate and explicit way when teaching English language learners how to read in English.

Teachers need to plan the steps in reading instruction carefully to ensure that pre-reading, during-reading, and after-reading activities are appropriate and effective. English language learners need to be able to respond thoughtfully and to be actively engaged in a range of text-based experiences. Pre-reading instruction and activities are particularly important for English language learners as they can help to activate the learners' prior knowledge, not only of the topic but also of the relevant vocabulary. Pre-reading instruction also enables teachers to highlight language demands in all areas of the curriculum. Elaborating on meaning in a text by providing supplementary visuals or explanations can often increase comprehension for learners.

Reading for different purposes

Reading a text to gain information or for other curriculum purposes requires a different approach from reading for personal interest or recreation. Within any curriculum area, learners are required to read different types of texts for different purposes. The different ways of reading texts for different purposes need to be explicitly taught. Teachers can find guidance on how to foster reading for personal interest, how to approach "reading to learn", and how to teach reading comprehension in the publications listed on page 95.

Text-processing strategies

Effective readers, including English language learners, decode, make meaning, and think critically.

In order to be successful readers and writers, students need to learn the code of written text (so that they can translate written language into spoken language and vice versa), to make meaning from texts, and to think critically about the messages in the texts.

Effective Literacy Strategies in Years 9 to 13, page 53

Right from the start of learning to read in English, learners should focus on the three key aspects of reading: decoding, making meaning, and thinking critically. These aspects need to be integrated when learners are reading for a purpose. Decoding in itself is not reading, so if a learner is able to decode a text but can't read for meaning, they can't yet read. In order to read effectively and efficiently, English language learners need a repertoire of reading processing strategies. They need to be able to attend and search, predict, cross-check, confirm, and self-correct (see *Effective Literacy Practice in Years 5 to 8*, pages 36–37). Learners who have limited control of the strategies may sometimes apply a processing strategy in a way that is not appropriate for their reading purpose. For example, they may sound out every single word when their purpose for reading is to gain a general understanding of the main ideas in the text.

By the end of the Foundation Stage, learners will be able to decode and make meaning from simple texts, and they will use critical-thinking skills appropriate to their age. They're likely to rely on support through their first language to aid their comprehension. Learners in years 9–13 who are literate in their first language are able to draw on their existing reading skills and knowledge.

Learners at the end of Stages 1 and 2 will have developed the ability to gain meaning and identify the main ideas of phrases rather than just individual words. They will have gradually developed confidence, fluency, and depth of comprehension as they read increasingly complex texts in an increasing variety of contexts. They will master a wider range of vocabulary and gain an understanding of increasingly complex language structures.

Through Stages 3 and 4, learners will show increasing proficiency in all aspects of reading. They will decode text fluently, sometimes pausing to use strategies such as inferring the meaning of an unknown word from the context or consulting a dictionary. They will develop ways to gain more meaning from text, for example, by distinguishing between facts and opinions. They will think more critically about texts, for example, to consider how the text constructs the world or why it uses irony.

English language learners who have literacy skills in their first language should be encouraged to continue reading in their first language and to use critical-thinking skills (and other skills used for reading) in their first language in order to better access and process concepts in English. Cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) develops better when the first language develops alongside the additional language.

English language learners need access to dictionaries and reading materials in their first language, and they need encouragement to think and talk in their first language about new ideas. They also need texts in English about culturally familiar topics as well as about less familiar topics.

Drawing on sources of information

Learners need to draw on various sources of information in order to make sense of what they read. They draw on:

- their prior knowledge, including their background knowledge and experience and their literacy-related knowledge;
- visual and grapho-phonetic sources of information in the text, using knowledge about printed text (and especially about the relationship between particular written shapes and spoken sounds);
- syntactic sources of information in the text (using their knowledge about the structure of the English language);
- semantic sources of information in the text (using their knowledge of the meanings of words and images).

(See *Effective Literacy Strategies in Years 9 to 13*, page 54.)

Learners need to be able to draw on, integrate, and co-ordinate information from these sources simultaneously in order to decode and make meaning from text.

When a learner has limited prior experience of a context or lacks specific knowledge of a concept, they may have difficulty in reading texts on some topics. They may rely heavily on one source of information (for example, their grapho-phonetic knowledge or their prior experiences) without fully understanding the text. For example, a recent immigrant from an urban Asian background may have difficulty in making sense of a text about sheep shearing in Central Otago. On the other hand, when reading about a topic they are very familiar with, a learner may rely on their background knowledge to make sense of the text rather than fully comprehending it.

Factors affecting progress

A learner's level of literacy in their first language strongly influences their rate of progress in reading in English.

English language learners develop proficiency in reading at very different rates. There are many factors that affect the starting point for learners and that have a strong influence on their rates of progress. Perhaps the most important factor, especially for learners beyond the first two or three years of schooling, is the level of literacy that they have attained in their first language. Learners who have had no previous formal education and who can't read or write in their first language will take much longer to learn written English than learners who are literate in their first language. The older an English language learner is when they begin schooling, the greater and more noticeable the gap will be between them and their native-speaker peers and the greater their need will be for intensive, long-term support.

Assessing and reporting on reading

Judgments about progress can only be made over time and based on a variety of assessment methods.

The primary purpose of assessment is to improve students' learning and teachers' teaching. By focusing on giving useful feedback (a key component of formative assessment) throughout the learning process, teachers can work with their English language learners to close the gap between their current performance and what is expected of their native-speaker peers. A teacher can assess and report on a learner's progress in reading by using standardised tests conducted at regular intervals and by making informal judgments about the learner's comprehension of reading texts at different levels of complexity. It's unwise to make broad judgments about "reading ages" or "reading levels" based on the occasional use of a reading assessment tool. Reading proficiency is influenced by many factors (such as the learner's familiarity with the content of the texts, the cultural knowledge required to understand the texts, the quality of the teacher's scaffolding, and the learner's motivation). A single assessment provides only a snapshot of a learner's proficiency in relation to the task at the time, although it may also indicate areas of strength and weakness in reading.

Making decisions about a learner's progress is complex because it requires ongoing diagnostic assessment to gain information about what a learner needs, integrated with summative assessments that define a point the learner has reached. Assessment of reading development should include making informal observations about the learner's attitudes and approaches to both extensive reading and reading for deeper understanding, how much reading they are doing, their ability to choose appropriate reading materials for different purposes, and their awareness of reading strategies. For further information on reading assessment, see the *ESOL Progress Assessment Guidelines*.

The reading progression

The following matrix gives a broad overview of the features of texts that are suitable for learners at each stage of the ELLP. There is no matrix provided to indicate reading behaviours at the various stages because the interplay between the level of complexity of a text, factors affecting text difficulty for individual learners, and learners' text-processing skills is too complex to be presented in this way. A learner will be able to read more complex texts when they receive a lot of support from the teacher, already know something about and are interested in what they are reading, and feel confident. The same learner will cope with reading less complex texts when they are reading independently, have little background knowledge, feel insecure, and/or are not very interested in the text.

The matrix is indicative only; it is not a complete inventory of text features, and some features of later-stage texts may occur in texts at earlier stages.

The reading matrix

	Topic development	Language structures	Vocabulary	Layout	Examples can be found on:
Foundation Stage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts are very short. They contain one or two simple ideas and use a lot of repetition. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts contain single words or short sentences, usually in the subject–verb–object order. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts use repeated high-frequency words and some words that are lower frequency and topic-specific and that are strongly supported by the context. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts have only a few words per page and are well supported by illustrations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – pages 22–23
Stage 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts are short and often present ideas in a simple sequence. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts contain simple and compound sentences with a variety of sentence beginnings. There are usually no more than two clauses per sentence. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts use varied high-frequency words and some words that are lower frequency and topic-specific and that are strongly supported by the context. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts have about three sentences per page and are well supported by illustrations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – pages 24–31
Stage 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Topics are developed in more depth and assume more background knowledge. – Text types are more varied: they may be reports, arguments, procedures, explanations, recounts, or mixtures of these. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts contain simple, compound, and some complex sentences. Sentences are sometimes expanded with prepositional phrases or other structures. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts use varied high-frequency words and some words that are lower frequency and topic-specific or technical, and that should be clear from the context. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts have several sentences or short paragraphs per page and may be supported by illustrations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – pages 30–35
Stage 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Topics are developed to more complex levels in a variety of ways, using connectives to signal the relationship of ideas, e.g., cause and effect or sequence. – Texts may interweave more than one text type. – Comprehension requires more inference. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts contain a variety of sentence types, some of which may be more complex. They may include passive constructions and direct speech. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts use some lower-frequency and technical words that are not easy to infer from the context. – They may use some idiomatic language. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts are arranged in paragraphs and may be supported by diagrams, illustrations, or photographs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – pages 34–43
Stage 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Topics are developed in great depth and may be very technical. – Texts may include many different time settings or multiple voices. – Texts may interweave more than one text type. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts include a variety of sentence structures. They may include embedded and relative clauses and passive constructions. – Each sentence may contain several concepts. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts use low-frequency words and technical vocabulary. – They may use similes, metaphors, and idiomatic language without explanation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts are arranged in paragraphs and may use subheadings. – There may be no illustrations, or there may be some that require high-level interpretation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – pages 40–51



Sample texts for reading

The following progression of sample texts is arranged according to the stages of the matrix but is further divided into Foundation, 1A, 1B, 1C, 1D/2A, 2B, 2C/3A, 3B, 3C, 3D/4A, 4B, 4C, and 4D Stages. There is some overlap between the stages, as indicated by the labels 1D/2A, 2C/3A, and 3D/4A. Each text is analysed in terms of its topic development, language structures, vocabulary, and layout.

The analyses include vocabulary tables, which indicate the percentage of high- and low-frequency words that are found in each text. (Note that the vocabulary tables do not include the title and refer only to the words in the excerpt given, not to all the words in the whole text.) High-frequency words are words that occur often in oral and written text. Low-frequency words are those that occur less often. Some topic words are high frequency, for example, “wind” and “sun”, and some are low frequency, for example, “battery”. Most words in a simple text are found in a list of the first thousand high-frequency words. Many words in a complex text are found in an academic word list or are not in the lists. (See pages 44–45 and 54–55 in the introductory booklet for sources of the lists.) For further information about vocabulary, refer to the introductory booklet on pages 39–46.

The vocabulary analysis tables⁴ include two types of percentages. They give the percentages for the number of running words (all of the words that occur in the text) and the percentages for the number of word types (different words). For example, “I bought some milk and eggs. Jane bought some eggs and some bread” has thirteen words but only eight word types because “bought”, “some”, “eggs”, and “and” are repeated. Simple texts generally have a lower ratio of word types to running words because they use more repetition.

⁴ The vocabulary analysis program used in ELLP is available online at www.vuw.ac.nz/lals/staff/paul-nation/RANGE.zip. Note that vocabulary analyses may count running words in different ways, for example, when counting contractions such as “I’ve”, or numbers, or dates.

Foundation Stage

The following sample text is at the Foundation Stage because it is short and highly repetitive – only one word changes per page. The text contains simple sentences.

Texts at the Foundation Stage tend to have the following characteristics:

- only a few words per page;
- good support from illustrations;
- lots of repetition;
- use of high-frequency words and only a few topic words;
- very little **idiomatic** language;
- use of single words and/or short, simple sentences.

Other examples of texts at Foundation Stage include some of those found in the Selections series and in the *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource*. When choosing simple texts for older learners, it's best to avoid texts with illustrations and subject matter more suited to young children. Non-fiction texts may be a good starting point.

Sample text

Text: Tu'akoi, Feana (2000). *Going to the River*. Ready to Read series. Wellington: Learning Media.

Topic: Some animals go to the river and run away when the lion comes.

Text type: Narrative

Audience: An emergent reader of any age

Topic development

The text is short, and the ideas are simple and repetitive. One character acts at a time. The actions are presented in sequence. The reader needs some background knowledge or needs to use inference to distinguish between prey and predator.

Language structures

The sentences are simple clauses (subject–verb–object). They are highly repetitive (only the first word changes until the last page).

The **verb phrases** are mostly in the third-person-singular present continuous form – *is going*.

There is an **imperative verb** repeated twice on the last page.

The **noun phrases** are single nouns used as names for the animals – *Zebra*, *Buffalo*. There are no adjectives. (In grammatical terminology, a noun phrase can be a single word or a group of words that has a noun as the main part of the phrase and does not include a **finite verb**. For example, in the sentence “The fox loved children”, “The fox” is a noun phrase and “children” is also a noun phrase.)

Going to the River

Elephant is going to the river.
Zebra is going to the river.
Monkey is going to the river.
Hippopotamus is going to the river.
Buffalo is going to the river.
Lion is going to the river.
Run! Run! Run!

Vocabulary

The text contains a limited range of vocabulary. Most words are high-frequency words, but there are some low-frequency nouns with meanings that are easy to infer from the illustrations. The text is very repetitive – only twelve different words are used in the forty-three-word text. Most of the words are phonologically easy to unpack and pronounce.

Vocabulary analysis

	Percentage of words in each list	Percentage of word types in each list
List One (first 1000 high-frequency words)	86%	50%
List Two (second 1000 high-frequency words)	4.7%	16.7%
List Three (academic word list)	0	0
Others (not in any list)	9.3%	33.3%
Total number	39 running words	12 word types

Text layout

There is one line of text per page, accompanied by an illustration that supports the meaning of the text.



Stage 1A

The following sample text is at Stage 1A because it has only one short sentence per page. The sentences are structurally repetitive and are simple sentences.

Texts at Stage 1A tend to have the following characteristics:

- only one short sentence per page;
- good support from illustrations;
- repetition of language structures;
- use of high-frequency words and some topic words that are strongly supported by the context;
- very little idiomatic language;
- mainly simple sentences with only one clause.

Other examples of texts at Stage 1A include some of those found in the Selections series and at Stage 1 of the *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource* (for example, “Afghanistan” in Stage 1:8[c]). When choosing simple texts for older learners, it’s best to avoid texts with illustrations and subject matter more suited to young children. Non-fiction texts may be a good starting point.

Sample text

Text: Cowley, Joy (1994). *The Water Boatman*. Ready to Read series. Wellington: Learning Media.

Topic: Describing the features of an insect and a fish

Text type: Scientific description

Audience: Emergent readers

Topic development

The text is short, and the ideas are simple and repetitive. There are two main ideas: the characteristics of the water boatman and the characteristics of the mudfish. The last page brings the two together in a predator–prey relationship.

Language structures

The sentences are mostly simple clauses made up of a noun phrase (*The water boatman*), a verb (*lives*), and a prepositional phrase (*in a pond*). They are fairly repetitive, with only a few changes in each sentence.

The verb phrases are in the third-person singular present tense (*swims, holds, eats*) because they present information that is always true, in this case scientific facts. The verbs denote actions, describing what the water boatman and the mudfish do.

The Water Boatman

The water boatman lives in a pond.
It swims with its back legs.
It holds on with its middle legs.
It eats with its front legs.
A mudfish lives in the pond, too.
It swims with its fins and tail.
It eats water boatmen!

[In diagram:]

Compound eye, wings, front leg, middle leg, back leg, fine hairs
A water boatman is this big.

The noun phrase at the start of the first sentence is made up of the definite **article** (*The*) and the compound noun *water boatman*. “The” is used to define the water boatman as a class of insects. The **pronoun** *It* is used in the following sentences to refer to the water boatman. (A similar pattern is used in the sentences about the mudfish.) Note that the plural form of the noun (*-men*) is used on the last page, and the article is omitted. The indefinite article (*a*) is used for the first sentence about the mudfish, which has not previously been introduced. Each prepositional phrase (*with its back legs*) contains a noun phrase (*its back legs*), and some of the noun phrases contain an adjective (*back*).

Vocabulary

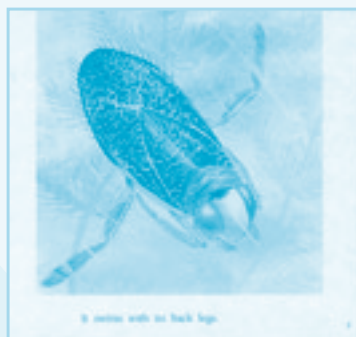
The text contains a limited range of vocabulary. Most words are high-frequency words, but there are some low-frequency, technical nouns that are easy to understand from the illustrations – *fins*, *compound eye*. Most words are phonologically easy to unpack and pronounce.

Vocabulary analysis

	Percentage of words in each list	Percentage of word types in each list
List One (first 1000 high-frequency words)	67.3%	60%
List Two (second 1000 high-frequency words)	20%	20%
List Three (academic word list)	1.8%	3.3%
Others (not in any list)	10.9%	16.7%
Total number	55 running words	30 word types

Text layout

There is one line of text per page, accompanied by an illustration that contributes to the meaning of the text. On the inside back cover is a scientific diagram, presenting some new vocabulary as well as some from the text.



Stage 1B

The following sample text is at Stage 1B because it is fairly short and conceptually simple, with ideas presented in a simple sequence. The sentences are simple, compound, or complex, with repetitive structures.

Texts at Stage 1B tend to have the following characteristics:

- only a few short sentences per page;
- a variety of sentence beginnings;
- ideas presented in a simple sequence;
- good support from illustrations;
- use of high-frequency words and some topic words that are strongly supported by the context;
- use of simple or compound sentences.

Other examples of texts at Stage 1B include some of those found in the Selections series and at Stage 1 of the *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource* (for example, “Bangladesh” in Stage 1: 14[c] and “Chinese New Year” in Stage 1: 12[c]). When choosing simple texts for older learners, it’s best to avoid texts with illustrations and subject matter more suited to young children. Non-fiction texts may be a good starting point.

Sample text

Text: Meharry, Dot (2004).
Purr-fect! Ready to Read series.
Wellington: Learning Media.

Topic: A cat flatters a bird until the bird flies close enough to be caught.

Text type: Narrative

Audience: An early-stage reader

Topic development

The text is a classic fable with a moral, in which one character is flattered into becoming the victim of another. The reader needs to infer that the cat eats the bird at the end of the story.

Language structures

The text has a repetitive structure – the cat makes a statement, the bird acts, and the cat says, “Purr-fect.” This sequence is repeated four times.

The sentence structures vary, ranging from simple to compound and complex. The reader needs to know the conventions for writing direct speech to recognise that a character is talking.

Purr-fect!

One morning, a cat saw a bird in a tree.
“Hello, bird,” she said. “I like your song.”

The bird was pleased that the cat liked his song. He sang for the cat.

“Purr-fect,” said the cat. “And I like your feathers.”

The bird was pleased that the cat liked his feathers. He flew closer to the cat and fluffed up his feathers for her to see.

“Purr-fect,” said the cat. “And I like the way you fly.” The bird was pleased that the cat liked his flying, so he flew round the cat.

“Purr-fect,” said the cat. “But ... I wish I could fly like you.” The bird was pleased that the cat wanted to fly like him. He flew down to the cat.

He sang his song. He fluffed up his feathers.

The cat jumped!

“Purr-fect,” she said, and she washed her face.

The text repeats the phrase *The bird was pleased that the cat liked ...*

The verb phrases are in the simple past tense in the narrative – *flew, washed*. There are some phrasal verbs – *fluffed up*. The verbs that are part of the direct speech are in the simple present – *like, fly*. Some complex verb phrases are included – *wanted to fly*. The verbs show what the bird and cat do (*said, sang, flew, jumped*) and how they feel (*was pleased, liked*).

The noun phrases relate to the central characters (*The bird, the cat*) and the attributes of each (*his song, his feathers, his flying, her face*). The masculine pronoun *he* and the feminine pronoun *she* are used, and the reader has to recognise which character each pronoun refers to.

Linking words are used to connect ideas – *The bird was pleased that the cat liked his flying, so he flew round the cat*.

Vocabulary

The word “Purr-fect” is very important to the story – it’s a pun involving the words “purr” and “perfect”. It’s in the title, it’s repeated throughout the book, and it starts the last sentence. Readers will need support in understanding the pun before reading.

The text contains mostly high-frequency words. Because it’s repetitive, there’s a low ratio of word types to running words. There are two words (*fluffed* and *Purr-fect*) that are not in the lists, but “perfect” is in List Two, and so “purr-fect” is analysed as such.

Vocabulary analysis

	Percentage of words in each list	Percentage of word types in each list
List One (first 1000 high-frequency words)	81.9%	85.7%
List Two (second 1000 high-frequency words)	16.7%	12.2%
List Three (academic word list)	0%	0%
Others (not in any list)	1.4%	2%
Total number	144 running words	49 word types

Text layout

The text is laid out with two to four short sentences on each page. The two characters are shown in the illustrations on each page – except for the last page, which shows a feather and the cat licking her lips to imply the fate of the bird.



Stage 1C

The following sample text is at Stage 1C because it is fairly short and the sentences are mostly simple or compound.

Texts at Stage 1C tend to have the following characteristics:

- about three sentences per page;
- a variety of sentence beginnings;
- ideas presented in a simple sequence;
- good support from illustrations;
- little repetition;
- use of high-frequency words and some lower-frequency, topic-specific words;
- use of simple and compound sentences.

Other examples of texts at Stage 1C include some of those found in the Selections series and at Stage 1 of the *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource*. When choosing simple texts for older learners, it's best to avoid texts with illustrations and subject matter more suited to young children. Non-fiction texts may be a good starting point.

Sample text

Text: Quinn, Pat and Gaynor, Bill (1995). *Wind Power*. Ready to Read series. Wellington: Learning Media.

Topic: The generation of electricity through wind power, using a wind turbine

Text type: Explanation

Audience: A reader who wants to know about wind turbines

Topic development

The text begins with a personal description and then moves into the explanation. The narrator describes the location of the wind turbine, why it's there, what it looks like, and how it works. Although it is a personal account, the text is also technically accurate and informative. There is a diagram on the inside back cover.

Language structures

The sentences are sometimes simple, but these are often expanded through **adverbial phrases** of time, place, or manner – *We love to walk **up the hill behind our house***. They are sometimes complex, with at least two clauses – *It sounds like a windmill (**main clause**) as the blades twirl around (**subordinate clause**)*.

Wind Power

We love to walk up the hill behind our house.
You can see the whole city.
You can see right out to the ocean.

The wind blows there most of the time.
It blows the grass flat.
It's too windy for trees to grow.

At the top of the hill there is a big machine.
A wind turbine.

The turbine looks like a windmill.

It sounds like a windmill as the blades twirl around.
Swoosh! Swoosh! Swoosh!

The wind blows the blades around.
The blades turn the generator.
The generator makes electricity.

And we use electricity every day,
for all kinds of things ...

There is also a sentence fragment (*A wind turbine*), which is used to name the big machine. The sentences are sometimes structurally repetitive.

The verb phrases are mostly simple, with action in the simple present. Mainly action verbs (*blows, turn*) or **sensory verbs** (*love, sounds*) are used.

The noun phrases are fairly simple – *trees* (noun), *a windmill* (a determiner and a noun), *the whole city* (a determiner, an adjective, and a noun). First- or second-person pronouns (*We, You*) and third-person pronouns (*It*) are used. There are some pronouns that are used close to the noun they refer to – *The wind ... It, The turbine ... It*.

Vocabulary

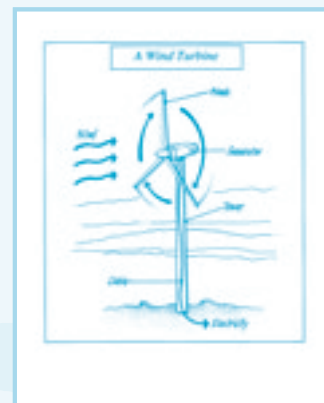
The text contains a high percentage of relatively high-frequency words (within the first 1000 words) and a few words beyond the first 1000, for example, *whole, ocean, Swoosh*. There is a significant number of technical words related to the topic (ten word types). These technical words are supported by large, clear illustrations and by the context.

Vocabulary analysis

	Percentage of words in each list	Percentage of word types in each list
List One (first 1000 high-frequency words)	81.6%	83.1%
List Two (second 1000 high-frequency words)	7.8%	10%
List Three (academic word list)	0%	0%
Others (not in any list)	10.7%	8.5%
Total number	103 running words	59 word types

Text layout

Large, brightly coloured illustrations support the printed text. They also support exploration of meaning beyond the text. The book uses a relatively small font and generous line spacing.



Stage 1D/2A

The following sample text is at Stage 1D/2A because it contains expanded sentences and quite a lot of topic vocabulary.

Texts at Stage 1D/2A tend to have the following characteristics:

- around three or more sentences per page;
- little repetition;
- support from illustrations;
- use of high-frequency words and some lower-frequency, technical, or topic words;
- use of simple, compound, and some complex sentences;
- sentences that are expanded with prepositional phrases or other structures.

Other examples of texts at Stage 1D/2A include some of those found in the Selections series and at Stage 2 of the *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource* (for example, “Antarctica” in Stage 2: 11[d]). When choosing simple texts for older learners, it’s best to avoid texts with types of illustrations and subject matter more suited to young children. Non-fiction texts may be a good starting point.

Sample text

Text: Ministry of Education (2003). “The Beginning of Digestion”. *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource*. Auckland: Ministry of Education, Stage 2: 8[d].

Topic: The process of digestion

Text type: Explanation

Audience: A reader who wants to know about the body

Topic development

The text begins with a general statement about the human mouth and then continues with the next stages of the process of digestion. The text is also technically accurate and informative.

Language structures

The sentences are sometimes simple, but they are often expanded through adverbial phrases of time, place, or manner – *The teeth physically break up our food into smaller pieces*. They are sometimes complex, with at least two clauses – *Saliva from the salivary*

The Beginning of Digestion

The adult human usually has 32 teeth, of four basic types. The teeth physically break up our food into smaller pieces.

The tongue is made of muscle. It moves food around the mouth to meet the teeth. Saliva from the salivary glands wets the food when it is in the mouth. Saliva makes the food easy to swallow. It contains salivary amylase, which is an enzyme that starts to break down any carbohydrate in the food.

After the food is chewed it is swallowed and passed through the food pipe (oesophagus) to the stomach. This process is called peristalsis.

glands wets the food (main clause) *when it is in the mouth* (subordinate clause). The sentences are sometimes structurally repetitive.

The verb phrases are mainly simple, with action in the simple present representing scientific facts. Both action verbs (*break up, wets, is swallowed*) and other verbs showing relationships and attributes (*is, has, contains*) are used. Some of the verbs are in the passive form (*is chewed, is called*), which is common in scientific texts.

The noun phrases are fairly simple – *Saliva* (noun), *any carbohydrate, This process* (a **determiner** and a noun), *The adult human* (a determiner, an adjective, and a noun). The third-person pronoun (*It*) is used. There are some pronouns that are used close to the noun they refer to – *Saliva makes ... It* (refers to saliva) *contains*.

Vocabulary

The text contains a high percentage of relatively high-frequency words (within the first 1000 words) and some words beyond the first 1000, for example, *pieces, muscle*. There is a significant number of technical words related to the topic, for example, *peristalsis, oesophagus* (which is explained in more common language as *food pipe*). These technical words are supported by the context. In this case, there is no diagram, but there are often diagrams in this sort of text to aid comprehension.

Vocabulary analysis

	Percentage of words in each list	Percentage of word types in each list
List One (first 1000 high-frequency words)	75.5%	66.7%
List Two (second 1000 high-frequency words)	8.8%	11.1%
List Three (academic word list)	2.9%	4.8%
Others (not in any list)	12.8%	17.5%
Total number	102 running words	63 word types

Text layout

This text is presented in paragraphs. It has no illustrations in the *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource*, but this type of text is often supported by a diagram.

Stage 2B

The following sample text is at Stage 2B because it uses varied sentence types that are often expanded.

Texts at Stage 2B tend to have the following characteristics:

- several sentences per page;
- little repetition;
- some illustrations;
- use of varied high-frequency words and some technical or topic words;
- topics that are developed in depth or that assume background knowledge;
- use of simple, compound, and complex sentences;
- sentences that are expanded with prepositional phrases or other structures.

Other examples of texts at Stage 2B include some of those found in the Selections series and at Stage 2 of the *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource*.

Sample text

Extract: Holt, Sharon and Yu Su, Miao (2003). "Becoming a New Zealander". *Branching Out*. Choices series. Wellington: Learning Media, pages 30–31.

Topic: Describing the process of becoming a New Zealand citizen

Text type: Recount

Audience: A general reader

Topic development

The text begins with a statement about the citizenship ceremony, then recounts some of the writer's past, describes where she lives now, and explains some aspects of her family life, contrasting her past life with her present.

Becoming a New Zealander

Today, I became a New Zealander. People who are not born here have to go through a special ceremony if they want to become New Zealand citizens. That's what my family did today.

I was born in Taiwan, and I moved to New Zealand with my family five years ago when I was eleven years old. Now, we live in a place called Kihikihi, which is just south of Te Awamutu.

Our brick home in Kihikihi is nothing like my home in Taiwan. We live on a citrus fruit orchard, and our neighbours have geese and sheep in their backyards.

In Taiwan, we lived in a five-storey apartment building in the city. It was surrounded by other tall buildings that were full of families just like ours. No one had backyards, and there were certainly no farm animals nearby!

My parents moved to New Zealand because it is less crowded than Taiwan. They believed that my brother and I would have better opportunities in New Zealand than we would have in Taiwan.

I miss my friends and other family members, but we often have Taiwanese visitors staying with us, and I use the Internet to keep in touch with friends.

Even though we have been here for five years, we still speak Mandarin and Taiwanese in our home. My mother still cooks traditional Chinese meals, and we have kept all of our cultural traditions, such as celebrating the Chinese New Year and other Chinese festivals.

Language structures

There are many different sentence types, including compound and complex sentences. The sentences are often expanded with prepositional phrases (*in a five-storey apartment building in the city*). They do not use repetitive structures.

There are many different types of connectives signalling the types of relationships between the ideas. Contrast is signalled by *but*, *Even though*. Some ideas are expanded with examples – *such as celebrating the Chinese New Year and other Chinese festivals*.

The verb phrases use mostly past and present simple verb forms (*became, moved, live, have*). But there are some passive forms (*was born, was surrounded*) and some other complex verb phrases (*would have, have been*). Some of the verb phrases denote actions (*moved, use the Internet to keep in touch*) or feelings (*believed, miss*).

The text describes people, places, and cultures, so it uses **proper nouns** and adjectives formed from these – *New Zealand, Chinese*.

The text expresses a personal viewpoint and uses lots of pronouns to refer to people and places – *I, we, it*.

There are several ways of noting comparison (*nothing like, less crowded, better*), requiring the reader to understand that two places are being compared throughout the text.

Vocabulary

The text uses mainly high-frequency **general vocabulary**, with one technical phrase – *citrus fruit orchard*. There is some repetition of vocabulary.

Vocabulary analysis

	Percentage of words in each list	Percentage of word types in each list
List One (first 1000 high-frequency words)	83.3%	78.8%
List Two (second 1000 high-frequency words)	3.3%	5.8%
List Three (academic word list)	1.2%	2.2%
Others (not in any list)	12.2%	13.1%
Total number	246 running words	137 word types

Text layout

The text is presented in various fonts on different backgrounds, in a magazine style. It is supported by photographs.



Stage 2C/3A

The following sample text is at Stage 2C/3A. It describes and explains a technical process. The sentences are mostly compound or complex.

Texts at Stage 2C/3A tend to have the following characteristics:

- ideas arranged into paragraphs;
- support from diagrams, illustrations, or photographs;
- topics that are developed in depth, using linking words to connect ideas;
- varied high-frequency words and some technical or topic words that are not easy to infer from the context;
- simple, compound, or complex sentences, sometimes containing passive constructions or direct speech.

Other examples of texts at Stage 2C/3A include some of those found in the Selections series and at Stages 2 and 3 of the *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource* (for example, “Whale Rider” in Stage 2: 24(d)).

Sample text

Extract: Gibbison, Sue (2003). “Moving Old Houses”. *Junior Journal* 28. Wellington: Learning Media, page 17.

Topic: Explaining how a house is moved to a new location

Text type: Explanation

Audience: A reader of any age

Topic development

The topic is developed with a question (as a heading at the top), which is answered in the text below. The text preceding this excerpt answers the questions “Where do the old houses come from?” and “Why do people move old houses instead of building new ones?” This section of the text explains how the old houses are moved.

Language structures

The sentences are mostly complex, for example, *Then it is joined together again* (main clause) *when all the pieces get to the new section* (subordinate clause), or compound complex (*If a house is too wide for the road, it can be cut in half or thirds and moved in pieces*).

Moving Old Houses

Wouldn't a house get damaged from being loaded on and off trucks?

Houses built from wood are very flexible and can bend quite a lot. If a house is too wide for the road, it can be cut in half or thirds and moved in pieces. Then it is joined together again when all the pieces get to the new section.

Sometimes there are accidents, and windows get broken or parts of a house fall off. These things are fixed up when the house is safely on its new piles. Fireplaces are always taken out before the house is moved. They are put back again when it's on its new section.

Adverbial phrases indicate the sequence of events (*then, when ..., before ...*) and conditional events (*Sometimes, always*). There is **ellipsis of relative pronouns** and verbs – *Houses [that are] built from wood*.

The verb phrases are often complex – *is joined together*. They include passive constructions – *can be cut in half, is joined, are fixed up*. Phrasal verbs are also included – *are fixed up, are taken out*.

The noun phrases include very few adjectives. The determiners *a* (indefinite article) and *the* (definite article) are used to indicate nouns that are generic (*a house*) and specific (*the house*). Some pronouns are distant from the nouns that they refer to – *Fireplaces ... They*.

Vocabulary

The text contains a significant number of high-frequency words, many of them repeated, and some lower-frequency words that are explained in the text – *flexible and can bend quite a lot*. There is some technical vocabulary (*piles*), with no clear context clues to help the reader infer the meaning.

Vocabulary analysis

	Percentage of words in each list	Percentage of word types in each list
List One (first 1000 high-frequency words)	90.1%	85.7%
List Two (second 1000 high-frequency words)	5.4%	8.6%
List Three (academic word list)	2.7%	2.9%
Others (not in any list)	1.8%	2.9%
Total number	111 running words	70 word types

Text layout

The article is laid out with a photograph at the top of each page, followed by a question that is used as a heading, which is answered by the text below it. The images aid comprehension.



Wouldn't a house get damaged from being loaded on and off trucks?

Houses built from wood are very flexible and can bend quite a lot. If a house is too wide for the road, it can be cut in half or thirds and moved in pieces. Then it is joined together again when all the pieces get to the new section.

Sometimes there are accidents, and windows get broken or parts of a house fall off. These things are fixed up when the house is safely on its new piles. Fireplaces are always taken out before the house is moved. They are put back again when it's on its new section.

Stage 3B

The following sample text is at Stage 3B because it contains compound and complex sentences. It requires some background knowledge and inference to understand what's happening.

Texts at Stage 3B tend to have the following characteristics:

- ideas arranged into paragraphs;
- support from diagrams, illustrations, or photographs;
- topics that are developed in depth, using linking words to connect ideas;
- some technical or topic words that are not easy to infer from the context;
- some idiomatic language;
- long sentences;
- simple, compound, or complex sentences, sometimes containing passive constructions or direct speech.

Other examples of texts at Stage 3B include some of those found in the Selections series and at Stage 3 of the *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource* (for example, "Tattooing and Body Piercing on Minors" in Stage 3: 9[d]).

Sample text

Extract: Hart, John (2003). "Mussel Time". *School Journal*, Part 3 Number 1, 2003. Wellington: Learning Media, page 9.

Topic: Cooking mussels at school for lunch

Text type: Recount

Audience: Primary or secondary school students, particularly those who have a strong interest in the cultural context

Mussel Time

Longosai keeps gently stirring the mussels to make sure that the ones on the bottom don't open too much and that the ones on top are being cooked. If they're cooked for too long, they become chewy, and that's not how the boys like their kai. The mussels must be soft, hot, tender, and dripping with coconut cream.

"Mmm, I could stand here all day smelling this beautiful, sweet kai," jokes Longosai, "but if I do, there'll be no flavour left in the mussels!"

The coconut cream starts to simmer – and the mussels begin to open. When all the shells are open, it's time for action.

"Over here with the tray and serving tongs, chefs," calls Longosai.

"Three for me, one for you two," teases Filimone as he helps lift the mussels out of the pot.

When the tray is loaded, the boys carry it to the staffroom balcony. They've invited a special guest to share their meal – Mrs Howe, the principal. They've chosen her because of her love for the schoolchildren and because her presence gives honour to the occasion.

"Quiet, please," whispers Painga. "Heads down and arms off the table."

Topic development

The text is an excerpt from a narrative about cooking and eating mussels. This part goes into some detail about the cooking and serving process. The reader needs to use inference to understand the last paragraph (that is, the boys are about to say grace before eating).

Language structures

The sentences use a variety of structures, including compound (*The coconut cream starts to simmer – and the mussels begin to open*) and complex (*When all the shells are open, [subordinate clause] it's time for action [main clause]*).

The verb phrases are complex and include adverbs (*keeps **gently** stirring*), present perfect verb forms (*They've **invited***), and **modal verbs** (*must be*). Present verb forms invite the reader into the immediacy of the occasion (*jokes, starts*), and a variety of alternatives to “says” build the mood (*jokes, calls, teases, whispers*). Contracted verb forms reduce the formality of the text – *They've*.

The noun phrases are often complex (*the ones on the bottom, all the shells*) and include adjectives (*this beautiful, sweet kai*).

Cohesion involves some words being substituted for nouns (*the ones* [mussels]), some ellipsis characteristic of informal spoken language ([Put your] *Heads down* and [take your] *arms off the table*), and pronouns that are sometimes distant from the nouns they refer to – *the mussels ... they're*.

Vocabulary

The text contains a high percentage of high-frequency vocabulary but also some lower-frequency vocabulary – *balcony*. Vocabulary associated with cooking is used – *cooked, chewy, kai, soft, hot*. There are also some colloquial expressions (*time for action*) that help establish the informal tone of the text.

Vocabulary analysis

	Percentage of words in each list	Percentage of word types in each list
List One (first 1000 high-frequency words)	74.4%	68.3%
List Two (second 1000 high-frequency words)	9.7%	13%
List Three (academic word list)	0.5%	0.8%
Others (not in any list)	15.4%	17.9%
Total number	195 running words	123 word types

Text layout

The photographs complement the text and create a picture of the participants and their actions.



Stage 3C

The following sample text is at Stage 3C because it is a mixture of text types and uses a large amount of technical or topic vocabulary. The sentences are mostly compound or complex.

Texts at Stage 3C tend to have the following characteristics:

- ideas arranged into paragraphs;
- support from diagrams, illustrations, or photographs;
- topics that are developed in depth, using linking words to connect ideas, and more than one text type;
- sentences that require inference to understand the ideas;
- some lower-frequency, technical, or topic-specific words that are not easy to infer from the context;
- some idiomatic language;
- long sentences;
- simple, compound, or complex sentences, sometimes containing passive constructions or direct speech.

Other examples of texts at Stage 3C include some of those found in the Selections series and at Stage 3 of the *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource* (for example, “Sustainable and Renewable Energy” in Stage 3: 3[d]).

Sample text

Extract: Lilleby, Maggie (2001). *Paddle Power*. School Journal Story Library series. Wellington: Learning Media, pages 4 and 9.

Topic: Sea kayaking

Text type: Description and recount

Audience: Readers who enjoy sport or adventure

Topic development

Most of the book this text is taken from is a factual description of kayak design, interwoven with the “core” text of Brett and Valerie preparing for and going sea kayaking. Both text types develop the theme of sea kayaking. The inclusion of Brett and Valerie makes the text more personal and helps to engage the reader.

Paddle Power

A kayak is a long, narrow boat specially designed for sea travel.

Its shape (wide in the middle and narrow at the ends) makes it stable in rough water. But if it does tip over, water can be emptied out of the cockpits using a bilge pump.

A traditional kayak is made from a light, wooden frame covered with sealskin, with a hole in the middle where the paddler sits. For centuries, the Inuit people of Greenland, North America, and Canada used this kind of kayak for fishing and sealing.

A modern kayak is usually made of fibreglass, Kevlar (a woven fabric that is stronger than fibreglass), or plastic. It can be a single (for one person) or a double (for two people). In a double kayak, each person sits in a separate cockpit, one at the front and one at the back.

...

In the narrow tunnel, the waves are much stronger. Water smashes against the walls and slurps back again to the other side. Brett and Valerie both have to work hard to stop the kayak from crashing into the sides of the tunnel.

It’s dark and spooky inside. The kayak pitches wildly up and down, and Brett is loving every minute. But what will happen if they’re washed up onto those sharp rocks?

Language structures

The sentences have a variety of beginnings and are mostly compound (*The kayak pitches wildly up and down, and Brett is loving every minute*) or complex (*But if it does tip over, water can be emptied out of the cockpits using a bilge pump*). They vary in length from short to long.

The verb phrases include the verb “to be”, which is often used in the technical or scientific description, in both the active and the passive forms – *A kayak is* (active); *A traditional kayak is made* (passive). There are some present-tense action verbs (*sits, pitches*) and onomatopoeic verbs in the recount passage (*smashes, slurps*). The verb phrases are sometimes complex (*can be emptied, have to work*) and include some phrasal verbs (*tip over, are washed up*). Some future forms are used with conditionals (*what will happen if ...*), and modals such as *can* are used for predictions or warnings.

The noun phrases vary from simple (*A kayak, water, A traditional kayak*) to complex (*a long, narrow boat specially designed for sea travel; a light, wooden frame covered with sealskin*). The pronoun “it” is used to refer to nouns that either follow it or precede it and also to refer to concepts or processes (*It’s dark and spooky inside*).

Vocabulary

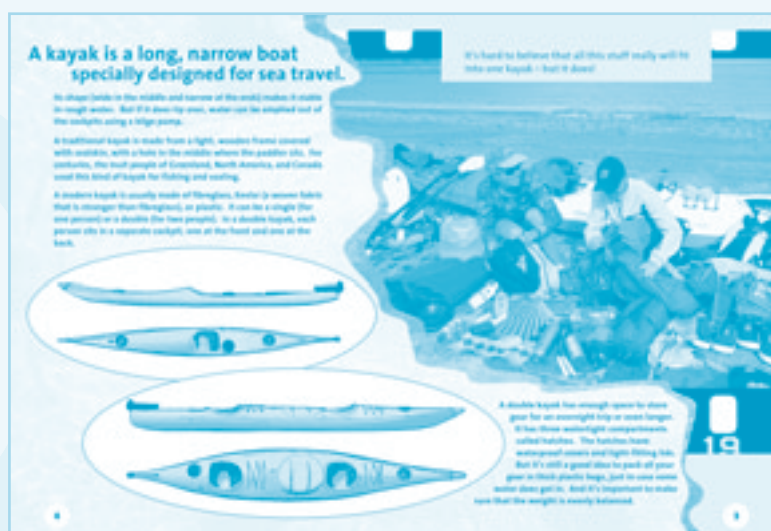
The text contains topic-specific technical vocabulary in almost all sentences – *bilge pump, wooden frame covered with sealskin, paddler, modern kayak, pitches*. There are colloquial expressions – *spooky inside*.

Vocabulary analysis

	Percentage of words in each list	Percentage of word types in each list
List One (first 1000 high-frequency words)	76.9%	70.1%
List Two (second 1000 high-frequency words)	7.4%	10.2%
List Three (academic word list)	1.4%	2.4%
Others (not in any list)	14.4%	17.3%
Total number	216 running words	127 word types

Text layout

The text is set out in two interwoven sections – the technical information and the personal recount. Photographs and diagrams support the technical description, and photographs support the recount.



Stage 3D/4A

The following sample text at Stage 3D/4A describes and explains a technical process. The sentences are mostly compound or complex.

Texts at Stage 3D/4A tend to have the following characteristics:

- topics that are developed in depth and may be technical;
- diagrams, illustrations, or photographs;
- lower-frequency, technical, or topic-specific words that are not easy to infer from the context;
- use of more complex figurative language, such as similes and metaphors;
- wider use of idiomatic language;
- ideas that are arranged into paragraphs, sometimes using subheadings;
- a variety of sentence structures, including embedded clauses and passive constructions.

Other examples of texts at Stage 3D/4A include some of those found in Part 4 of the *School Journal*, in the Choices and Selections series, and at Stage 3 of the *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource*.

Sample text

Text: Quinn, Pat (2003). *The Distinction between Plastics and Metals*. *Charged! MacDiarmid's Electroplastic*. Applications series. Wellington: Learning Media, page 3.

Topic: The difference between plastics and metals

Text type: Scientific explanation

Audience: A science student

Topic development

The text is set out as two paragraphs with a subheading at the beginning of each. The first paragraph defines plastics and describes some of their properties. The second paragraph does the same for metals.

The Distinction between Plastics and Metals

What Is a Plastic?

A plastic is an organic material that can be moulded into shape when soft. It then sets to become rigid or slightly elastic. Plastics can usually be reshaped by applying heat or pressure. They are made from organic polymers. A polymer is a long molecule made of many repeating units, each known as a monomer. (The prefix “poly-” means many, and the prefix “mono-” means single.) Monomers do not usually exist as separate molecules. Rather they are joined together in long chains like beads on a necklace. Each polymer has characteristic properties that make it suitable for particular uses. Nearly all polymers are poor conductors of heat and electricity. Polymers are everywhere in the modern world – in fabrics, films, foams, paints, and fibres. Most modern technologies use polymeric materials in some way.

What Is a Metal?

A metal is a chemical element that is typically hard, shiny, malleable (able to be hammered or pressed into shape without breaking), fusible (able to be fused or melted easily), and ductile (able to be drawn out into a thin wire). Metals are good conductors of heat and electricity. However, not all metals have all these properties.

Language structures

The sentences are of varied types, but most are simple.

The verb phrases are often passive – *can usually be reshaped, are made from, are joined together*.

There are several uses of simple linking verbs (*is, are, have*) to state properties.

The noun phrases are mostly simple when they are the subject of the sentence (*A plastic, Polymers, A metal*), but there are some complex noun phrases – *Most modern technologies*.

Adjectives and adverbs are used to qualify ideas (*slightly, usually, Most, typically*) so that the reader knows that the statements don't apply to all plastics or metals all the time. Lists of adjectives are used to show properties – *hard, shiny, malleable*.

Vocabulary

Many of the words are highly technical, **academic**, and topic specific, but there are many high-frequency words as well. The difficult vocabulary is made easier for the reader by in-text definitions (*ductile [able to be drawn out into a thin wire]*) and by the information about the prefixes *poly-* and *mono-*. Linking words are used to signal relationships between ideas – *Rather, However*.

Vocabulary analysis

	Percentage of words in each list	Percentage of word types in each list
List One (first 1000 high-frequency words)	74.9%	66.4%
List Two (second 1000 high-frequency words)	6.4%	9.6%
List Three (academic word list)	2%	3.2%
Others (not in any list)	16.8%	20.8%
Total number	203 running words	125 word types

Text layout

There are subheadings for sections of the text to help the reader focus on the main idea. The text is supported by diagrams.

The Distinction Between Plastics and Metals

What is a Plastic?
A plastic is an organic material that can be reshaped into shape when soft. It then sets to become rigid or slightly elastic. Plastics can usually be reshaped by applying heat or pressure. They are made from organic polymers. A polymer is a long molecule made of many repeating units, each known as a monomer. (The prefix "poly-" means many, and the prefix "mono-" means single.) Monomers do not usually exist as separate molecules. Rather they are joined together in long chains like beads on a necklace. Each polymer has characteristic properties that make it suitable for particular uses. Nearly all polymers are poor conductors of heat and electricity. Polymers are everywhere in the modern world – in fabrics, films, foams, paints, and fibres. Most modern technologies use polymeric materials in some way.

What is a Metal?
A metal is a chemical element that is typically hard, shiny, malleable (able to be hammered or pressed into shape without breaking), ductile (able to be bent or twisted easily), and ductile (able to be drawn out into a thin wire). Metals are good conductors of heat and electricity. However, not all metals have all these properties.

The Periodic Table of Elements

The atomic structure of copper: with the outer electrons of each atom free to move and conduct a charge.

Stage 3D/4A

The following sample text is at Stage 3D/4A because it describes and expresses complex ideas and emotions. The sentences are mostly compound or complex.

Texts at Stage 3D/4A tend to have the following characteristics:

- topics that are developed in depth and may be technical;
- diagrams, illustrations, or photographs;
- lower-frequency, technical, or topic-specific words that are not easy to infer from the context;
- use of more complex figurative language, such as similes and metaphors;
- wider use of idiomatic language;
- ideas that are arranged into paragraphs, sometimes using subheadings;
- a variety of sentence structures, including embedded clauses and passive constructions.

Other examples of texts at Stage 3D/4A include some of those found in Part 4 of the *School Journal*, in the Choices and Selections series, and at Stage 3 of the *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource*.

Sample text

Extract: Roberts, Megan (2003). "And Then I Grew Up ...". *This Other Place*, Journal of Secondary Students' Writing, 2003. Wellington: Learning Media, page 32.

Topic: A teenager's childhood memories of her grandparents' house

Text type: A literary description

Audience: A general audience, but particularly young people (because the text is written by a teenager)

Topic development

The text has two major stages – the first part reflects on the past, while the second part contrasts the present and past. The change in verb form helps the reader understand when the narrator is talking about the past and when about the present.

Language structures

The sentences include a variety of structures, including compound and complex sentences. They include some complex embedded clauses

And Then I Grew Up ...

On the back porch, dozens of boots lay scattered, camouflaged by gooey mud, and the smell of fresh cowpat seemed to be everywhere. When I finally left the warm haven of Grandma's kitchen to venture out into the icy beyond, I felt like a snowman. As I stood waiting with anticipation for Grandpa's ancient, mustard Land Rover to appear, I was filled with a great sense of excitement and exhilaration. The cobwebs on the fenceline clothed in icy dew reminded me of lace. Grandpa told us they were fairies' lace, so we regarded them as untouchable. However, the thin ice covering each puddle was a temptation we couldn't resist. There was something wonderfully rewarding hearing the cracking of shattering ice as a muddy gumboot was thrust into each tiny frozen lake.

My grandparents seem so little now – their backs are stooped, and their skin is shrivelled and sunken. Although I still sleep under the same pink eiderdown, it doesn't seem so huge anymore, nor is it so shiny. At last I, too, have an electric blanket, and so the green hottie hangs lonely and forgotten behind the bathroom door.

with expanded prepositional phrases – *There was something wonderfully rewarding hearing the cracking of shattering ice as a muddy gumboot was*

The verb phrases are often complex – *stood waiting, couldn't resist*. They include some sensory verbs (*regarded, hearing, seem*) and some action verbs (*left, thrust*). The verb phrases are sometimes expanded using adverbial phrases – *As I stood waiting **with anticipation** for*

The noun phrases are often very complex and include **modifiers** both before and after the noun – ***The cobwebs on the fenceline clothed in icy dew, the thin ice covering each puddle.***

Cohesion is created through the use of words that indicate the sequence of ideas (*When, At last*) and words that signal different types of logical relationships (*However, Although, so, nor*). Cohesion is also created by the repetition of words like *mud, icy, Grandpa*.

Vocabulary

The text contains some low-frequency vocabulary – *camouflaged, exhilaration, untouchable*. It also contains evocative connotative vocabulary (*warm haven, lonely and forgotten*), similes (*like a snowman*), and metaphors (*they were fairies' lace*). There are complex strings of related words, like *icy, cracking, frozen*, to establish atmosphere. There are also antonyms that contrast the inside and outside settings – *icy, frozen* versus *warm, electric blanket*.

Vocabulary analysis

	Percentage of words in each list	Percentage of word types in each list
List One (first 1000 high-frequency words)	68.3%	59.1%
List Two (second 1000 high-frequency words)	13.8%	16.8%
List Three (academic word list)	1.1%	1.5%
Others (not in any list)	16.9%	22.6%
Total number	189 running words	137 word types

Text layout

The running text is set out in paragraphs under a heading with an “author byline”. There is a stylised portrait of a girl (presumably a portrait of the female narrator) and a large, brightly coloured illustration – an abstract representation of “memory”.

And Then I Grew Up ...
Helen Brown - Part 2 - 80-100 Years Old

I remember walking up to Grandpa's giant window. It always seemed to be snow when you were at the house. I would jump over the huge glass onto cushions and study the trees on the window pane. It was like looking on a wedding cake. My teacher would be in the often bed to always feel the bed with the electric blanket – and I had to sleep with a heater! Grandma kept the "green one" for me. We would study the air glass and decide what presents we could make of Mother Nature's hand. He seemed to see trees and grass, while I only saw leaves and flowers.

The house like in the kitchen was always social – a lovely collection of pictures saved during two world wars. There were hundreds of them in an old box which used contained my books.

On the dark path, dozens of trees in scattered, camouflaged by green mud, and the smell of fresh concrete seemed to be everywhere. When I finally left the warm house of Grandma's kitchen to return the tree to the forest, I saw like a snowman. As I stood waiting with anticipation for Grandma's answer, instead I had to go to school. I was filled with a great sense of excitement and anticipation. The school was the teacher clothed in icy dew surrounded me of love. Grandma told us that my father was so we regarded them as snowflakes. However, the film for creating each puddle was a masterpiece we couldn't miss. There was something wonderfully something hearing the cracking of shattering ice as a muddy gumboot was there on each tree from then.

My grandparents were so little now – their backs are straight, and their skin is stretched and wrinkled. Although I still sleep under the same giant cushions, it doesn't seem so huge anymore, but it is so shiny. As last I, too, have an electric blanket, and so the green ferns surge softly and lazily behind the bathroom door.

Now it's not looking through the same door their orange bubble, mixed with the green. Grandpa's of these greenhouses. It is so very important to make the same same like Grandma's always been.

The tree was now something Grandma and I played in the house garden in one small cell against the clear turquoise sky, and sleep out in the long stages of shade can across the green grass. The house in their teacher looks a world away as childhood memories find no more.

Stage 4B

The following sample text is at Stage 4B because the sentences use a variety of structures, including compound and complex sentences and passive constructions. The text moves between the present and the past.

Texts at Stage 4B tend to have the following characteristics:

- topics that are developed in depth and may be technical;
- design that may or may not include illustrations;
- some long sentences containing several concepts;
- technical, topic-specific, or low-frequency words;
- use of more complex figurative language, such as similes and metaphors;
- wider use of idiomatic language;
- a variety of verb forms;
- ideas that are arranged into paragraphs, sometimes using subheadings;
- a variety of sentence structures, including embedded and relative clauses and passive constructions.

Other examples of texts at Stage 4B include many of those found in mainstream classes at peer level (for example, Bill O'Brien [2001], *The Gene Seekers*, Applications series, Wellington: Learning Media).

Sample text

Extract: Wong Ng, Eva (2003). "Righting the Wrongs – Poll Tax in New Zealand". *School Journal*, Part 4 Number 2, 2003, page 23.

Topic: Explaining the historical background to the Government's recent apology for the poll tax on Chinese immigrants

Text type: Explanation

Audience: Students of history

Topic development

The text is part of an article explaining the history of the poll tax in New Zealand. The article also explains the reasons for the government of today making a formal apology

Righting the Wrongs – Poll Tax in New Zealand

What is a poll tax?

The Prime Minister was apologising to the Chinese community of New Zealand for a law called the 1881 Chinese Immigrants Act. It was passed by the government of that time, and it singled out Chinese people. The intention of the law was to limit the number of Chinese coming to New Zealand by making each of them pay a £10 entry fee called a poll tax. It was a racist and discriminatory law because only Chinese had to pay the fee.

What were the reasons for the poll tax?

The New Zealand government of 1881 believed that each nation had the right to decide what sort of people should settle in their country. The 1881 government argued that Chinese people were an undesirable class of immigrant for British colonies because morally, religiously, racially, and culturally they were at odds with the larger population. Their presence would bring only downfall and ruin to the colonies.

Not everyone thought this way. Those against charging a poll tax argued that it was unjust, cruel, and unfair.

to representatives of the Chinese community. The text moves between a recent period in New Zealand history (the twenty-first century) and the distant past (the nineteenth century).

Language structures

The sentences use a variety of constructions, including compound and complex sentences, and include passive constructions – *It was passed by ...*

The verb phrases are mainly simple – *Not everyone thought this way*. They include some complex verb phrases (*was apologising, would bring*) and some phrasal verbs (*singled out*). The verbs are predominantly linking verbs (*was*) rather than action verbs because most of the information is contained in noun phrases and adverbial phrases. The verbs sometimes convey mental processes – *believed, argued, thought*.

The adverbial phrases are complex and use unusual word order – *because morally, religiously, racially, and culturally they were at odds with ...*

There are some complex noun phrases – *the Chinese community of New Zealand, The New Zealand government of 1881*.

The cohesive devices include the ellipsis of relative pronouns and verbs – *those [who were] against charging a poll tax*. There is sometimes some distance between pronouns and the nouns that they refer to – *Chinese people ... they*.

Vocabulary

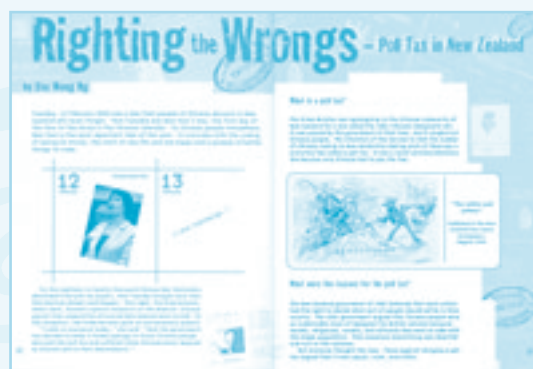
The text contains mainly general rather than topic-specific or technical vocabulary, but there are some low-frequency words – *colonies, discriminatory, immigrant*. There is some idiomatic language (*at odds with*) and metaphorical language (*ruin*). Some of the text has a rhetorical tone – *only downfall and ruin*.

Vocabulary analysis

	Percentage of words in each list	Percentage of word types in each list
List One (first 1000 high-frequency words)	79.3%	75.8%
List Two (second 1000 high-frequency words)	5.2%	6.6%
List Three (academic word list)	4.6%	7.7%
Others (not in any list)	10.9%	9.9%
Total number	174 running words	91 word types

Text layout

A great deal of background knowledge is required in order to understand what the images (such as the related historical documents) mean and to see their relevance to the text. The subheadings orient the reader to the topic of each segment and indicate the structure of the article.



Stage 4C

The following sample text is at Stage 4C because the sentences use a variety of structures, mainly complex with embedded clauses. The text includes low-frequency vocabulary.

Texts at Stage 4C tend to have the following characteristics:

- topics that are developed in depth and may be very technical;
- topics that require extensive knowledge of vocabulary and ideas;
- a design that may or may not include illustrations;
- some long sentences containing several concepts;
- technical, topic-specific, low-frequency, and academic words;
- use of more complex figurative language, such as similes and metaphors;
- wider use of idiomatic language;
- a variety of verb forms;
- ideas that are arranged into paragraphs, sometimes using subheadings;
- a variety of language structures, including embedded and relative clauses and passive constructions.

Other examples of texts at Stage 4C include many of those found in mainstream classes at peer level (for example, Karen Goodare and Bryan Chapple [1995], “Fiscal Policy”, in *Inflation: A Sixth Form Resource*, Wellington: Learning Media for the Reserve Bank of New Zealand, page 47).

Sample text

Extract: Author unknown (2003). “Money Trees”. *New Zealand Education Gazette*, 6 October, page 14.

Topic: A science, technology, and maths perspective on a new scientific process

Text type: Explanation and recount

Audience: Students of science

Money Trees

At last, scientists have been able to confirm that money really does grow on trees.

After six years of arduous research, Chris Anderson at Massey University emerged from his experimental greenhouse with a range of fast-growing herbs that can extract minute gold particles from the soil.

Using a garden-variety mustard, Dr Anderson has been able to show that the plants can pull tiny gold particles from gold-rich soil, along with the other soil-bound nutrients they need to grow. So far the tests have been only on a small scale, culminating with a field trial in Brazil earlier this year. The next step is to do full-scale field trials.

“The conclusion of our initial research is that the plants really can extract gold from the ground. Now we need about 5000 tonnes of gold-rich soil spread over a hectare of land for the next stage of our field work. We’ve learnt we need to have a certain concentration of gold in the ground to make it feasible. We’re aiming to recover a kilogram of gold per hectare using our plants. But we’re also looking at niche-market uses for the gold mined by the plants, which may change the economics and make it feasible at 250 gm a hectare.”

Dr Anderson says mining gold with trees is easy, and inexpensive. Extracting the gold from the plant biomass is the difficult part of the process. “Early in the research we developed a processing system using chemical solvents that works in the lab. We need to expand that to pilot scale and refine it.”

Working with collaborators in the United States and the Netherlands, Dr Anderson is also looking at alternative processing options. “We may be able to grind up the plant material, add it to water and make a slurry. If we spin the slurry in a centrifuge, it may form a band of gold. A simple extraction process like that would also change the economics.”

The gold can exist in the plants as nanoparticles of pure gold, which may have potential in the medical and electronics industries, or as industrial catalysts. At present, an expensive chemical process is used to convert traditionally mined gold into small enough particles to be used in these industries – Dr Anderson says plant mining could do that process naturally.

Topic development

The text is the first section of an explanation and recount of a scientific experiment. It contains passages of direct speech, but the reader must infer that the speaker is Dr Anderson.

Language structures

The sentences are mainly complex with embedded clauses – *After six years of arduous research, Chris Anderson at Massey University emerged from his experimental greenhouse with a range of fast-growing herbs that can extract minute gold particles from the soil.* They often contain relative clauses – *that can extract minute gold particles from the soil.*

The verb phrases are often complex – *has been able to show.*

There are many prepositional phrases – *on trees, from the soil.*

The noun phrases are complex and often use compound adjectives – *fast-growing, garden-variety, gold-rich, full-scale, niche-market.* The nouns may be modified before or after they occur – *a field trial in Brazil earlier this year, A simple extraction process.*

The cohesive devices include frequent use of ellipsis – *nutrients [that] they need [in order] to grow.* Adverbial phrases show the time sequence of the experiment – *At last, After six years of arduous research, So far, Now.*

The text requires some background knowledge of horticulture, mining, and chemistry. The reader also needs to know the proverb “Money doesn’t grow on trees.”

Vocabulary

The text contains many technical words and phrases from the fields of both science and marketing. There are several compound adjectives – *soil-bound nutrients*, *full-scale field trials*, *niche-market uses*. Low-frequency academic vocabulary is used to condense information – *arduous*, *culminating*, *feasible*. The text repeats words relating to key ideas, such as money and mining. There are some complex, interwoven strings of related words – *trees, fast-growing herbs, plants; gold, mining, slurry*.

Vocabulary analysis

	Percentage of words in each list	Percentage of word types in each list
List One (first 1000 high-frequency words)	76.8%	64.1%
List Two (second 1000 high-frequency words)	2.9%	4.4%
List Three (academic word list)	8.4%	12.5%
Others (not in any list)	12%	19%
Total number	383 running words	184 word types

Text layout

The text is in newspaper-style paragraphs and includes some direct speech in quotation marks. There is no accompanying visual support.

Stage 4D

The following sample text is at Stage 4D because the sentences use a variety of structures, mainly complex, and often include several concepts. The text includes low-frequency and academic vocabulary.

Texts at Stage 4D tend to have the following characteristics:

- topics that are developed in depth and may be very technical;
- topics that require extensive knowledge of vocabulary and ideas;
- sentences or phrases that require inference in order to understand them;
- a design that may or may not include illustrations;
- long sentences containing several concepts;
- technical, topic-specific, low-frequency, and academic words;
- use of more complex figurative language, such as similes and metaphors;
- wider use of idiomatic language;
- a variety of verb forms;
- ideas that are arranged into paragraphs, sometimes using subheadings;
- a variety of language structures, including extended noun phrases, complex verb phrases, embedded and relative clauses, and passive constructions.

Other examples of texts at Stage 4D include many of those found in mainstream classes at peer level (for example, Robyn Baker [1991], *Tuatara: A Resource for Sixth and Seventh Form Biology*, Wellington: Learning Media for the Ministry of Education).

Sample text

Extract: Statistics New Zealand (1995). *New Zealand Now: Asian New Zealanders*. Wellington: Statistics New Zealand, page 6.

Topic: Chinese immigration in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries and legal discrimination (the poll tax)

Text type: Historical recount and explanation

Audience: Students of economics, geography, or history

New Zealand Now: Asian New Zealanders

The number of people in New Zealand who were born in China peaked at 5,033 in 1881. By that year, growing public prejudice against Chinese immigrants resulted in restrictions on entry to New Zealand by the imposition of a poll tax, initially of £10, but raised progressively to £100 in 1896 and with severe limitations on the number of immigrants per vessel. The poll tax remained in force until 1944. In 1899, the Immigration Restriction Act limited immigration to British subjects, although other people could come to New Zealand if they had special approval and had a working knowledge of a European language. New Zealand imposed this “literacy test” for all new Asian arrivals.

Early 20th century

The second period of Chinese immigration covers the first half of this century, to the end of World War II. Most Chinese in New Zealand were still Cantonese, although there were a small but growing number of Fukienese. In this period, gold-mining had slumped and most Chinese were now involved in businesses (laundries, market gardening, and the grocery trade).

The 1916 Census recorded 2,147 Chinese in New Zealand, the lowest number living here since the 1860s. Where the Chinese lived in New Zealand also changed. By 1916, 42 percent were living in Auckland, 34 percent in Wellington and only 16 percent in Otago. The proportion living in Westland and Canterbury had fallen to under 6 percent in each region. The Chinese had become a predominantly urban population.

Until around 1936, the Chinese community continued to have a very high sex ratio (males per 100 females), and a very high level of mobility. Even as late as 1921, around half of the Chinese population had been living in New Zealand for fewer than 20 years. They remained aliens throughout this period. This started to change when a policy shift allowed wives and families of local Chinese to emigrate to New Zealand between 1939 and 1952, but the numbers recovered only slowly after the end of World War II, reaching nearly 5,000 in 1945.

Topic development

The text is part of a chapter in a book on New Zealand demographics. This part deals with the influence of the poll tax on the demographics of Chinese New Zealanders in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The information is arranged in chronological order.

Language structures

The sentences are simple (*New Zealand imposed this “literacy test” for all new Asian arrivals*), complex (*In 1899, the Immigration Restriction Act ... a European language*), and compound complex (*By that year, growing public prejudice ... per vessel*). Adverbial phrases are placed at the beginning of many sentences to indicate time – *In 1899, By 1916, Until around 1936*. There are often several concepts in one sentence, such as mobility and gender – *Until around 1936, the Chinese community continued to have a very high sex ratio (males per 100 females), and a very high level of mobility*.

The verb forms indicate shifts from the past to the present. The simple present is used to describe an unchanging characteristic (*The second period ... covers*), the simple past to describe past events (*The poll tax remained ...*), and the past perfect to locate events further back in time, prior to another event or time (*The proportion living ... had fallen to*). The verb phrases are simple (*limited*) or complex (*started to change*). They sometimes use modal verbs to indicate permission – *could come to New Zealand*.

The noun phrases are often complex (*The second period of Chinese immigration*) and include embedded relative clauses (*The number of people ... **who were born in China***). They are sometimes unusual in construction – ***Where the Chinese lived in New Zealand*** also changed.

The cohesive devices include pronouns that can be difficult to link with the nouns they refer to – *This* [view of the Chinese as aliens] *started to change* ... There is ellipsis that requires the reader to infer information – *the proportion* [of Chinese] *living in Westland and Canterbury*.

Vocabulary

The text contains some metaphorical expressions (*gold-mining had slumped*), some technical words (*Census, aliens*), some low-frequency vocabulary (*vessel*), and some mathematical words (*number, percent, proportion, ratio*). There is repetition of vocabulary for the key ideas – *Chinese, immigration, percent*.

Vocabulary analysis

	Percentage of words in each list	Percentage of word types in each list
List One (first 1000 high-frequency words)	74.1%	66.9%
List Two (second 1000 high-frequency words)	2.5%	4.3%
List Three (academic word list)	8.5%	11.7%
Others (not in any list)	14.9%	17.2%
Total number	316 running words	163 word types

Text layout

This part of the text has no illustrations. Subheadings separate the information into chunks.



There are many similarities between the ways in which native speakers and English language learners develop writing skills. However, there are also noticeable differences in their patterns of progress. (For example, native speakers hardly ever misuse the articles “a”, “an”, and “the”, but this is a common error for English language learners.) The differences result from English language learners bringing different knowledge, approaches, and experiences to writing in English.

It’s important to remember that progress is individual and depends on a number of factors specific to the learner and the context of each task. Factors that affect progress include the English language learner’s previous education in their first language, their prior experiences, and culturally specific ways of representing the world through writing. As with reading and oral language, writing development in years 9–13 will reflect developmental stages appropriate to the learner’s age.

The better English language learners are prepared for writing, the better their writing will be. Like all writers, they need to understand the purpose for writing and know who their audience will be. They need to be reminded of what they already know about the topic and to have time to plan ideas, including time to plan in their first language. They need to be familiar with the typical features of the kind of text they’re planning to write, and they need to have a bank of **general vocabulary** and vocabulary for curriculum contexts that is appropriate to the writing task. English language learners should also have opportunities to unpack model texts to see how the English language works in a variety of written texts – first in a group context and later independently.

Writers often produce more accurate, comprehensive, and effective texts when they are writing on a familiar topic. Texts on unfamiliar or complex technical topics are likely to have more errors and to communicate a less effective message.

Some errors in an English language learner’s writing may be attributable to their developmental stage and some to their level of proficiency in English. The attitude of the learner towards editing and proofreading their work will also have an impact. The nature and quality of their English language instruction will be another factor affecting a learner’s writing development.

English language learners should be encouraged to continue writing in their first language and to use critical-thinking skills (and other writing skills) in their first language to help them develop their writing in English. Cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) develops better when the first language develops alongside the additional language.

Writers produce better texts when they are clear about their purpose and the audience and know about the features of effective texts and the writing process.

English language learners need continuing opportunities and encouragement to think, talk, read, and write in their first language about new ideas. They also need opportunities to write in English about culturally familiar topics as well as about less familiar topics.

The writing progression

Pages 57–83 contain descriptors of texts written by English language learners, followed by samples of their writing. These are arranged to show a typical progression in writing development that illustrates the first four stages of the writing matrix on page 55. For examples of texts at Stage 4, refer to the NCEA and asTTle websites for descriptors of advanced writing.

A learner makes progress in writing in many ways, including by:

- increasing their awareness of their purpose and audience;
- learning to develop topics in more depth;
- learning to use a wider range of text types appropriately;
- increasing their use and control of language structures;
- learning more vocabulary;
- increasing their control of script;
- improving their spelling;
- using a wider range of appropriate punctuation.

As a learner's writing improves, they become able to produce longer texts in a wider range of forms.

In some ways, the sample texts in the early stages are similar to those in the early levels of *The New Zealand Curriculum Exemplars: English (Written Language)*, which represent the writing of native speakers of English. (For learners in years 11–13, other examples can be found on ESOL online as NCEA exemplars.) However, although there are many parallel features between the writing development of English language learners and that of native speakers of English, there are also many differences. The nature of these differences depends on a range of factors, including the learner's age, their level of literacy in their first language, and the characteristics of their first language.

The samples have been analysed to highlight some typical features of English language learners' writing at the Foundation Stage and Stages 1–3 and to demonstrate how to notice both writing strengths and learning needs in a piece of writing. Using the writing progression descriptors, teachers can make judgments about the stages that their learners have reached. More importantly, teachers can see where their learners should be heading and what priorities they should set for teaching and learning.

Surface and deeper features of texts

The texts have been analysed in terms of both deeper features (topic development, language structures, and vocabulary) and surface features (script control, spelling, and punctuation). There is a crossover between some deeper and surface features. For example, if a learner leaves “-ed” off a verb or adds it inappropriately, this may be interpreted as a spelling error, which is usually seen as a surface feature. However, it may indicate lack of knowledge of the past tense form of the verb, which is a deeper feature. Similarly, punctuation is usually categorised as a surface feature, but if a text includes run-on sentences or “sentences” with no main verb, it's likely that the writer lacks knowledge about the structure of an English sentence.

Deeper features also include text organisation, sentence structure, and the extent to which the text fits the purpose for writing. The writer's choice of vocabulary may fall into either category – deep if it indicates lack of knowledge of word families or surface if it's just a spelling mistake.

Teachers need to analyse errors carefully to discover what is causing them.

Best fit

Judgments about what stage a learner is at can never be “absolutely accurate”; they can only indicate the “best fit” for that learner.

Assigning a text to a stage is complex and requires careful judgment and a “best fit” approach, based on a range of criteria. A learner’s written text may have some features that seem to fit into a lower stage and some that seem to fit into a higher stage.

The decisions that a teacher makes about where a learner’s text fits are generalisations, but they should always be informed by the teacher’s knowledge about language. Teachers need to make their judgments on the basis of an analysis of the text at whole-text, sentence, and word levels, taking into account both deeper and surface features.

Information about supporting writing development can be found in *Effective Literacy Strategies in Years 9 to 13*, *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource*, *The New Zealand Curriculum Exemplars: English (Written Language)*, *asTTle: Assessment Tools for Teaching and Learning*, the DVD series *Making Language and Learning Work 1: Integrating Language and Learning in Secondary Maths and Science* and *Making Language and Learning Work 2: Integrating Language and Learning in Secondary English and Social Science*, and ESOL Online.

There are many different ways of describing progress in writing. The following very broad matrix is generalised to all types of text. It gives an overview of important aspects of English language learners’ writing progress rather than identifying every aspect in detail. Teachers also need to be aware that a learner’s writing will always be affected by the context of the writing task and by the prior knowledge and skills the learner brings to it.

Specific indicators for different text types can be identified, for example, in the asTTle Writing Progress Indicators.

This matrix focuses mainly on how writers within each broad stage of development typically organise and develop a text. It indicates the ways that a learner’s writing develops as they move through the Foundation Stage and Stages 1–3,⁵ in terms of their use of structures (at whole-text, paragraph, sentence, and phrase levels) and word forms in their texts. Appropriateness (in terms of purpose and audience) of content, vocabulary, and stylistic choices are also important indicators of progress.

⁵ The matrix refers teachers to NCEA and asTTle for descriptions of writing at Stage 4.

The writing matrix

	Topic development	Sentence development and language structures	Vocabulary development	Script control	Editing, spelling, and punctuation
Foundation Stage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts may be exact copies of a model. – Original texts are very short (two or three ideas) with minimal topic development. – Ideas may be presented randomly. – Towards the end of the Foundation Stage, ideas may be organised in an order appropriate to the text type. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Sentences show frequent or repeated use of a restricted range of modelled (learned) structures. – Sentences are simple or compound (e.g., linked with “and”). – There may be a range of different errors, some attributable to the learner’s age and some to their proficiency in English. These errors may include a lack of agreement of subject and verb (“he go”), incorrect word endings, omitted or overused articles (“the China”), incorrect verb forms, or overgeneralised use of a grammar rule (“I broked it”). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Most words are high frequency, and there is little topic-specific vocabulary (unless it has been provided). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Letter formation is developing but is often variable. – Towards the end of the Foundation Stage, writing usually shows appropriate use of upper- and lower-case letters. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The writing may show evidence of self-correction. – Some words are spelt correctly, and there are attempts to spell words as they sound. – There are often errors in the use of simple punctuation.
Stage 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts are longer (at least 6–8 sentences), with some organisation of the ideas. – The main ideas may be expanded with details. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Sentences are mainly simple or compound (e.g., linked with “and”). – The writing shows a reduced reliance on formulaic structures. – Words like “because” indicate that the learner is beginning to expand texts by using complex sentence structures. – Texts include linking words to signal the development of ideas (such as markers of time in a narrative or of cause and effect in an explanation). – Errors in words and structures are likely to be frequent and obvious. – Texts by learners who are literate in their first language may show attempts to use more complex structures but will often have intrusive errors. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts use a greater range of vocabulary. Most familiar vocabulary is likely to be accurately spelt or show phonemic awareness. Attempts to use unfamiliar vocabulary show evidence of phonemic awareness. – Texts use some learned topic-specific vocabulary. Words may be chosen to create an effect. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The script is generally readable. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – There is some evidence of editing, usually teacher-directed. – Many high-frequency words are spelt correctly, but there may be intrusive errors. – Writing may show some awareness of additional punctuation features and control over full stops.
Stage 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Topics are developed in stages, using an appropriate paragraph structure. – Ideas are linked and organised, although they may simply be listed at times. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts include a range of different sentence beginnings and structures (such as use of relative clauses). – The writing shows an increasing use of subordinate clauses. – The writing may use modal verbs (e.g., “might”, “should”). – A range of errors in language forms and structures is likely to be evident (e.g., run-on sentences or inaccuracies in, or omissions of, elements of a complex verb phrase). – Texts may show overuse of a recently learned structure. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The writing shows a strong personal voice developing through deliberate choice of appropriate vocabulary. – There may be some evidence of less appropriate language choices, perhaps from direct translation, e.g., use of “companion” instead of “friend”. – Texts may have insufficient topic-specific or formal vocabulary for the task or context. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The script is controlled and legible. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The text shows some evidence of accurate editing. – The writing shows evidence of attention to specific points, such as distinguishing between homonyms (“their” and “there”; “to”, “too”, and “two”; and so on). – Contractions are used appropriately.
Stage 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Topics are developed according to the purpose of the task. – Topics are sustained and organised logically and coherently in stages. Ideas are linked with appropriate use of a range of connectives (e.g., “however”, “therefore”). – Texts may follow a model closely. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Texts include varied and complex sentence structures and/or sentence types appropriate to the writing purpose, often with errors. – Some incorrect structures are still likely to be seen at times, such as inaccurate use of articles or lack of subject–verb agreement. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Words are chosen from an expanding bank of general, technical, and academic vocabulary in a range of curriculum and topic areas. In less familiar topic areas, the vocabulary may revert to more general or vague word choices (e.g., “things”). – Words are mostly chosen appropriately to meet the purpose for writing and to create specific effects, such as using literary devices for humour or consciously choosing features of persuasive language. – Direct translations may lead to inappropriate word choices. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The writing style is now established, and there is little likelihood of the learner changing how they form their letters. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The writing shows evidence of independent, accurate editing. – Surface features are generally controlled consistently, although in unfamiliar topic areas or under time pressure in formal assessments, control may be reduced.
Stage 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – See the NCEA and asTTle websites for descriptions of advanced writing. 				



Samples of learners' writing

Foundation Stage

The Foundation Stage contains two bands of texts that illustrate emergent writing. Foundation learners are beginning to master the basics of surface features of writing, such as the direction of print, how to form letters, the difference between upper- and lower-case letters, separation of words, and simple punctuation. Generally, beginners initially find it more difficult to master the written form of English if the script of their first language does not use the Roman alphabet.

Learners who are beginning to write in English are often frustrated by their lack of knowledge of English vocabulary and language structures. Those writers in years 9–13 who have no literacy skills in their first language are getting a sense of the purposes for writing, deciding what they want to say, working out how to organise their ideas, and (in some cases) finding it challenging to move from oral language to writing.

The first text in the samples of writing at the Foundation Stage is an example of a teacher-written text that the learner has copied by writing each word underneath the word in the teacher's model. This process is sometimes called "mirror writing". Learners who are in the first stages of developing literacy will benefit from this sort of support until they have learned to write letters and words and have sufficient linguistic resources to be able to convey meaning in their writing.

Typical features of writing at Foundation Stage A

Topic development

- Texts may be exact copies of a model.
- Original texts are very short (two or three ideas) with minimal topic development, constrained by a limited vocabulary.
- Ideas may be presented randomly.

Sentence development and language structures

- Sentences show frequent or repeated use of a restricted range of modelled (learned) structures.
- Sentences are simple or compound (for example, linked with "and").
- There may be a range of different errors, some attributable to the learner's age and some to their proficiency in English. These errors may include a lack of agreement of subject and verb ("trees is"), incorrect word endings ("we *celebration*"), omitted or overused articles ("to *the* work"), incorrect verb forms ("was *can ran* fast"), or overgeneralised use of a grammar rule.
- Learners are beginning to develop the standard sentence structures of English and show some knowledge of standard English word order.
- Learners use some incorrect structures.
- Because learners don't yet use linking words or phrases, sentences are unlikely to flow well.

Vocabulary development

- Most words are high frequency, and there is little topic-specific vocabulary (unless it has been provided).
- Simple repetition of vocabulary is common.
- There is often no linking vocabulary.

Script control

- The writing shows variable letter formation, including slope, and may be on and off the lines.
- Some writing shows inappropriate use of upper- and lower-case letters.

Editing, spelling, and punctuation

- The writing may show evidence of self-correction.
- Some words are spelt correctly, and there are attempts to spell words as they sound. However, learners have limited **phonological knowledge**.
- There are often errors in the use of simple punctuation.

Where to next?

Teachers could help learners to:

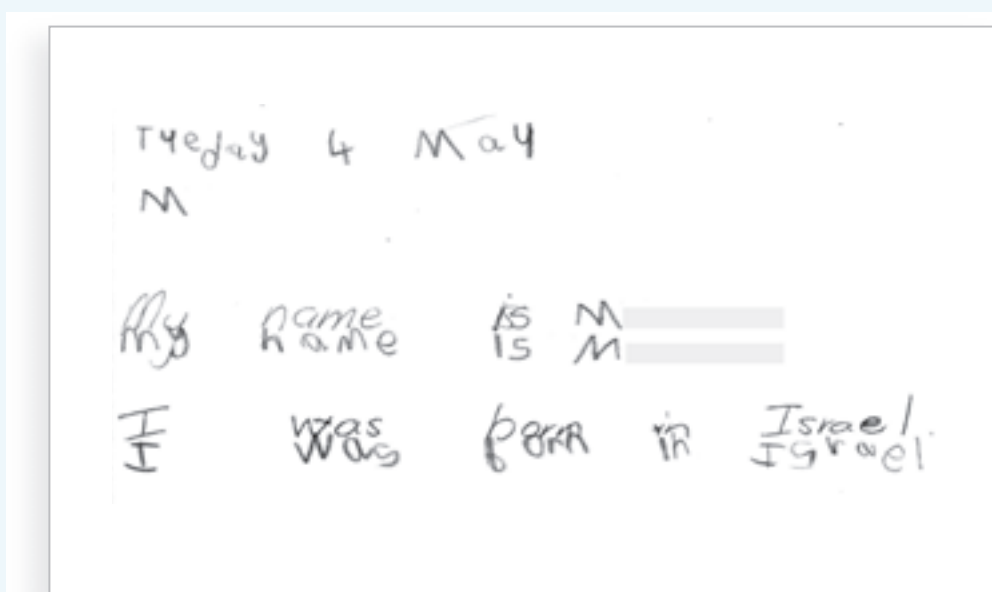
- use oral language to identify, develop, and practise language for ideas and concepts and to build the context, vocabulary, and sentence structures for fluency and confidence;
- say each sentence out loud before writing.

Teachers could:

- guide and scaffold as learners write, paying attention to basic punctuation, high-frequency vocabulary, vocabulary enrichment and accuracy, and letter formation and position;
- encourage rereading for sense;
- use the shared and guided writing approaches to scaffold learning, for example, when co-constructing or co-editing a text. (See *Effective Literacy Strategies in Years 9 to 13*, pages 136–146, and the *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource*, for further information about approaches to writing.)
- use simple dictation tasks to model correct language structures.

Samples of learners' writing at Foundation Stage A

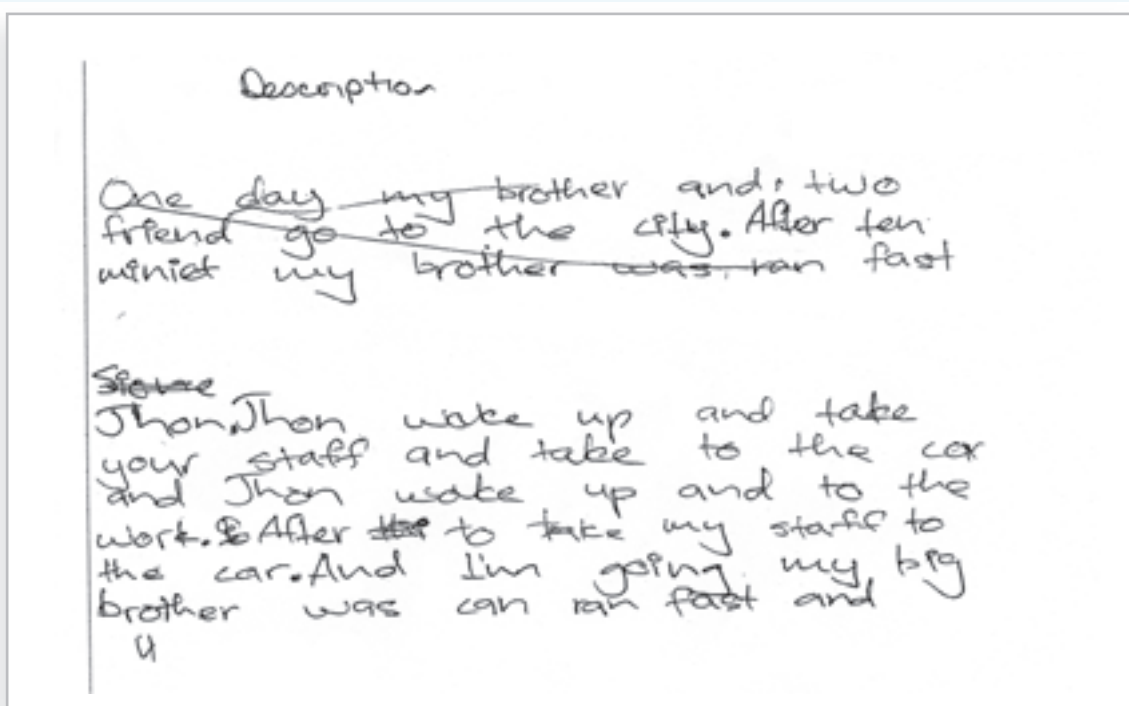
About Me (1)



This text is an example of “mirror writing”, where the learner has copied what the teacher has written. This technique can be used with very new writers. The learner’s script is on and off the lines, but their letter formation is clear.

Recount

Task: To write a recount



Topic development	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- The text is short, and there is minimal topic development.- The writer has not finished the task.
Sentence development and language structures	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- The writer uses some simple verb forms correctly – <i>Jhon wake up and take your staff</i> [stuff] (this appears to be direct speech). But there are errors with many other verb phrases – <i>take [it] to the car, wake [woke] up and [went] to the work, to take [I took], was can ran fast</i> [could run fast].- A few phrases are repeated – <i>wake up, take ... stuff, to the car</i>.- The ideas are connected with <i>and</i>.- The writer uses correct word order for simple constructions (<i>Jhon wake up</i>) but has difficulty with phrasing more complex ideas (<i>And I'm going my big brother was can ran fast</i>).
Vocabulary development	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- The writer uses the definite article incorrectly – <i>the work</i>.- The writer's vocabulary is limited, and the words are high frequency.
Script control	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- The script is legible.- Capital letters are used correctly.
Editing, spelling, and punctuation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- The text shows evidence of editing.- Most words are spelt correctly, except for <i>Jhon</i> [John] and <i>staff</i> [stuff]. The writer uses a contraction – <i>I'm</i>.- The writer uses full stops.

Typical features of writing at Foundation Stage B

Topic development

- Original texts are short, with minimal topic development.
- There is some logic behind the organisation of ideas, and readers are able to follow this.
- Texts are more coherent when learners are writing on a familiar topic.
- Most sentences are relevant to the topic and are clearly connected.
- Ideas are not arranged into paragraphs.
- Texts may be presented as lists of ideas.

Sentence development and language structures

- Learned (modelled) sentence structures are used effectively.
- All sentences are statements.
- Sentences are simple or compound (for example, linked with “and”).
- Compound and complex sentences are sometimes attempted, to expand ideas and to give more detail.
- There may be a range of different errors, some attributable to the learner’s age and some to their proficiency in English. These errors may include a lack of agreement of subject and verb (“trees *is*”), incorrect word endings (“we *celebration*”), omitted or overused articles (“to *the* work”), incorrect verb forms (“*was can ran* fast”), or overgeneralised use of a grammar rule.
- The writing is less like transcribed speech – there is evidence that the learner is developing a consciousness of being a writer.
- Learners are beginning to develop control of the sentence structures of standard English.
- Sentence beginnings are often repetitive.
- Learners are beginning to use linking words.

Vocabulary development

- Most words are high frequency, and there is some attempt to use lower-frequency, topic-specific vocabulary.
- Repetition of vocabulary is common.
- High-frequency vocabulary is used correctly.

Script control

- The form and position of letters is generally appropriate, and the script is easily readable.
- The writing shows generally correct use of upper- and lower-case letters.

Editing, spelling, and punctuation

- Some words are spelt correctly, and there are attempts to spell words as they sound. However, learners have limited phonological knowledge.
- Learners are developing control over simple punctuation, although errors may still be frequent.
- Writing may show evidence of self-correction.

Where to next?

Teachers could help learners to:

- identify ideas and organise them into a basic sequence, initially shaping their ideas and concepts into well-structured sentences orally and then transferring them into print;
- build a greater variety of sentence structures, especially at the beginning of sentences;
- add details to sentences and expand sentences that elaborate on a core idea;
- expand their use of high-frequency vocabulary and increase their use of lower-frequency, topic-specific vocabulary.

Teachers could:

- support learners in applying phonological knowledge to spelling unknown words;
- model spelling words that are not easily worked out phonologically;
- continue to use the approaches suggested for Foundation Stage A.

Samples of learners' writing at Foundation Stage B

My Special Time

Task: To describe a time that is special for you and your family

The best day in my life is my family find jobs also
 the best day in my life is my birthday. The best day
 in my life is ~~I~~ and my family ~~be~~ very happy in N.Z.
 The best day in my life is ~~I~~ can speak English nearly.

~~I~~ very happy when ~~I~~ came to the New Zealand and
~~I~~ very glad when ~~I~~ came to the lyn field College and ~~I~~ have
 friends now.

Topic development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – There are two paragraphs. The first lists “best days” and the second mentions two happy times.
Sentence development and language structures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – In the first paragraph, the phrase <i>The best day in my life is</i> is repeated at the beginning of most sentences. The writer often incorrectly follows it with a main clause (a sentence) instead of a relative clause or noun phrase – <i>The best day in my life is I can speak English nearly.</i> – All sentences are statements. – Sentences are simple or compound (linked with <i>and</i>). – Compound and complex sentences are sometimes used to expand ideas and to give more detail – <i>I very happy when I came to the New Zealand and I very glad when I came to the lynfield College and I have friends [friends] now.</i> – The writer sometimes omits the verb <i>to be</i> – <i>I very happy, I very glad.</i> – The writer uses some linking words – <i>also, and.</i>
Vocabulary development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The writer doesn't seem to understand the word “best” – four different events are described as <i>best</i>. – Most words are high frequency and are used correctly.
Script control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The script is legible. – Capitals are mostly used correctly.
Editing, spelling, and punctuation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – The writing shows evidence of editing. – Most words are spelt correctly, with the exception of <i>friends</i> [friends]. – The writer uses full stops.

The Food Cycle

Task: To write a scientific description of the food cycle

Korean y10
Beom Joo, Kim Hae

18th June 2007

The food cycle

The small bugs eat tree and flower --- some bugs eat small bugs and big bugs. birds eat bugs and seeds, big birds eat small animal and some birds. (rabbit ---). The animals die and dead matter. (tree, flower ---) big animals (tiger or lion ---) eat many animals. That's really so many animals not lost. That's a good. But people are every thing eat and kill. people are kill.

<p>Topic development</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The ideas are organised in a logical sequence but are not arranged into paragraphs. - The writer adds examples in brackets. - The writer uses a diagram to illustrate the food cycle.
<p>Sentence development and language structures</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The writer mostly uses subject-verb-object word order correctly - <i>birds eat bugs and seeds</i>. But there are still errors - <i>But people are every thing eat and kill</i> [But people kill and eat everything]. - The writer uses some simple linking words to connect ideas - <i>But, and</i>. - The writer uses some simple verbs correctly, and they agree with their subjects - <i>bugs eat, animals die, people are</i>. Sometimes verbs are omitted - <i>and</i> [become] <i>dead matter, many animals</i> [are] <i>not lost</i>. - The writer mostly uses singular and plural forms correctly, but there are a few errors - <i>small bugs eat tree and flower, big birds eat small animal</i>.
<p>Vocabulary development</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - High-frequency vocabulary is used correctly. - The writer attempts to use two lower-frequency or technical terms - <i>dead matter, replay</i>.
<p>Script control</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The letter formation is not always clear or consistent. - Capital letters are not always used correctly.
<p>Editing, spelling, and punctuation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There is a little evidence of editing. - Most words are spelt correctly (except for <i>rabit</i>). - The writer uses brackets, ellipses, commas, full stops, and apostrophes.

Stage 1

Stage 1 texts are written by learners who have developed enough knowledge of vocabulary and language structures in English to begin to write short original texts.

Typical features of writing at Stage 1

Topic development

- Texts are longer (at least 6–8 sentences), with some organisation of ideas.
- Ideas are not generally arranged into paragraphs.
- The main ideas may be expanded with details and will generally be clear to the reader.

Sentence development and language structures

- Sentences are mainly simple or compound (for example, linked with “and”).
- The writing shows a reduced reliance on formulaic structures.
- Sentence beginnings are likely to be repetitive.
- Words like “because” indicate that the learner is beginning to expand texts by using complex sentence structures.
- Texts include linking words to signal the development of ideas (such as markers of time in a narrative or of cause and effect in an explanation).
- Errors in words and structures are likely to be frequent and obvious. Texts that use modelled structures will have fewer errors than texts that show more original use of language.
- Texts by learners who are literate in their first language may show attempts to use more complex structures, including direct speech or questions, but will often have errors that impede successful communication.
- Additional details may be presented through a series of short sentences or through subordinate clauses.

Vocabulary development

- Texts use a greater range of vocabulary. Most familiar vocabulary is likely to be accurately spelt or show phonemic awareness. Attempts to use vocabulary that learners know orally show evidence of phonemic awareness.
- Texts use some learned, topic-specific or lower-frequency vocabulary. Words may be chosen to create an effect.

Script control

- The script is generally readable. It may still be variable, especially with younger learners, but the form and position of letters and words are generally clearer, more consistent, and more accurately used than at earlier stages.

Editing, spelling, and punctuation

- There is some evidence of editing, usually teacher-directed.
- Spelling may show errors that impede successful communication.
- Punctuation may range from accurate to weak or inconsistent.
- Writing may show some awareness of additional punctuation features (such as speech marks and question marks) and control over full stops.

Where to next?

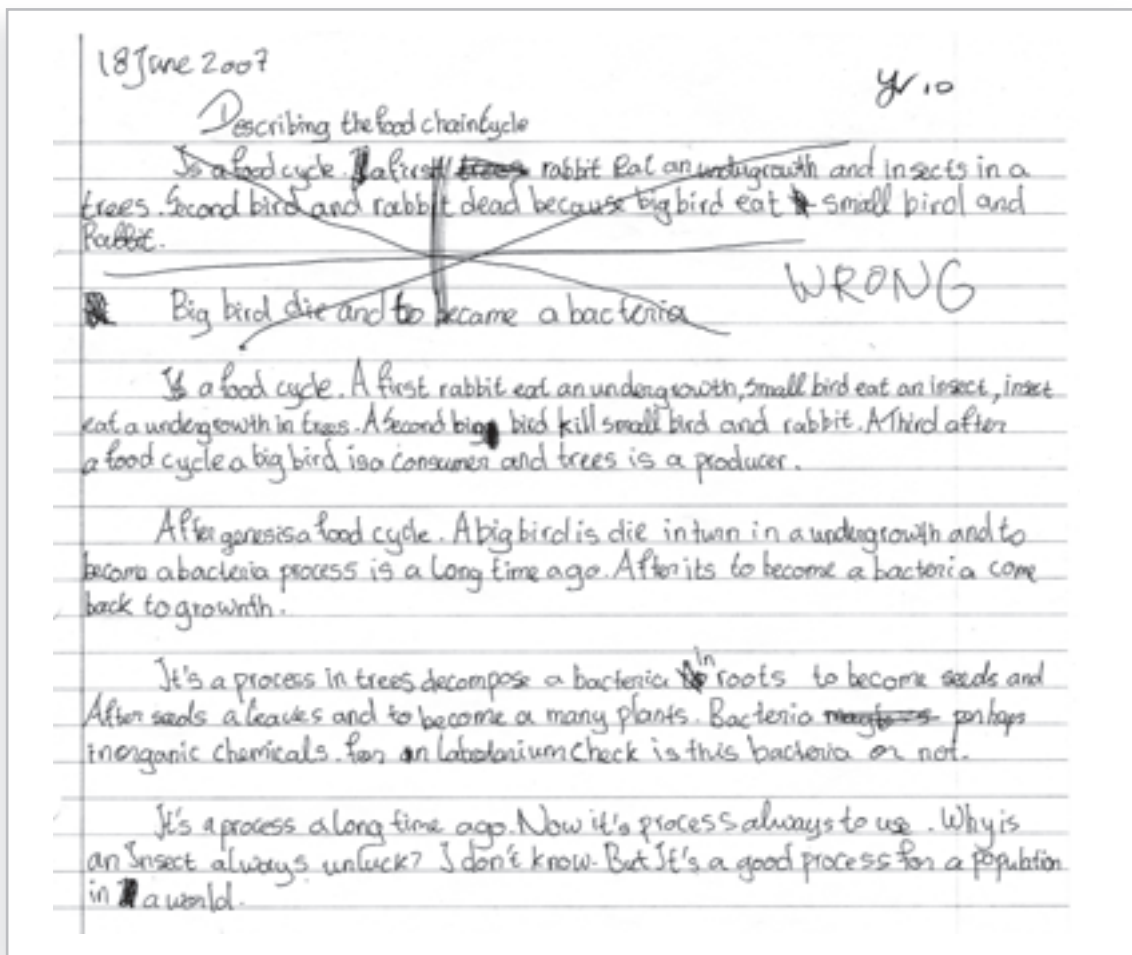
Teachers could help learners to:

- organise the main ideas into a logical sequence according to topic, purpose, and audience;
- form well-structured sentences relating to each main idea;
- ensure that sentences are correctly punctuated and grammatically structured and that structural and content vocabulary is included;
- construct varied sentence beginnings and use sentences of different lengths;
- construct “tighter” sentences, with fewer simple **conjunctions** and more prepositional and adverbial phrases and expanded noun phrases;
- improve their vocabulary, using both high-frequency and lower-frequency, topic-specific words;
- continue to pay attention to script form and position.

Samples of learners' writing at Stage 1

The Food Chain

Task: To write a scientific description of the food chain



Topic development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Several sentences are relevant to the topic and are arranged in a logical order. It's difficult for the reader to understand the text.
Sentence development and language structures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The writer mostly uses the right words but has many errors with word order and verb forms – <i>After its to become a bacteria come back to grownth.</i> The writer repeats the phrase <i>It's a process.</i> There is some attempt at using linking words to connect ideas within paragraphs – <i>A first, A Second, A Third, After.</i> There are many errors when the writer tries to construct more complex sentences with lower-frequency, technical vocabulary. There are fewer errors when the writer uses less formal structures and higher-frequency vocabulary – <i>Why is an Insect always unluck? I don't know. But It's a good process for a population in a world.</i>
Vocabulary development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Most words are high frequency, and the writer attempts to use lower-frequency and more complex vocabulary. The writer uses some technical words correctly and some incorrectly – <i>food cycle, consumer, producer, genes, bacteria, decompose, inorganic chemicals, labotarium.</i>
Script control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The form and position of letters is generally appropriate. The writer mostly uses capitals correctly.
Editing, spelling, and punctuation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There is some attempt at editing. Most words are spelt correctly. The writer uses full stops, commas, and a question mark.

Celebration

Task: Write a description of a celebration in your own culture

The best Celebration I have is Eid which come after remember which all my people come to my house together the house. So we eat lunch together so we go to the my aunty house and I play with brother my brother and sister then we come back the house then I go to my friend house to play go movie with me and we celebration on that day most of people come to the city to good celebration the movie and I come back the house with my friend to stay and watch ~~pro~~ with me

bad boy
I go to was

to celebration. The movie. But come back the house with my friend to stay my house and watch TV. We and friend we eat lunch together. So I have fun and my family have fun and I like my friend with big house to love to my family

Topic development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The writer describes what their family did to celebrate Eid (the holiday at the end of Ramadan). - The ideas follow a continuous flow rather than being arranged into paragraphs.
Sentence development and language structures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The writer uses mostly simple and compound sentences. There are some complex sentences – <i>The best Celebration I have is Eid which come after remmber</i> [Ramadan]. - There are some subordinate clauses that are not linked to a main clause – <i>Which all my people come to together the house.</i> - There are some run-on sentences – <i>then we come back the house then I go to my friend house to go moive [movie] with me and we celebration on that day most of People come to the city to good [go] to celebration.</i> - The writer uses some linking words to connect ideas – <i>So; and; then.</i> - The writer doesn't add 's to possessives – <i>my aunty house; my friend house.</i> - Most verbs are in the present tense even though the writer appears to be talking about a past event.
Vocabulary development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The text uses mostly general vocabulary. The writer misspells a few words, including <i>moive</i> [movie] and <i>fund</i> [fun].
Script control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The script is legible. - Capitals are not always used appropriately.
Editing, spelling, and punctuation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There is some evidence of editing. - Most words are spelt correctly, but <i>together</i> is spelt three different ways. - The writer uses full stops.

Stage 2

The samples of writing at Stage 2 are in two bands, showing the diversity of writing features at this stage. The 2A band texts are generally less complex in structure. The 2B band texts show more attempts to vary sentence beginnings, to expand noun and verb phrases and use adverbial phrases, and to develop cohesion and coherence through the text by using different types of linking words. This also results in longer texts.

Typical features of writing at Stage 2A

Topic development

- Topics are developed in stages, and learners may begin to arrange ideas into paragraphs.
- Ideas are linked and organised, although they may simply be listed at times. Links between ideas may include adding ideas (“and”), contrasting ideas (“but”), indicating sequence (“when”, “first”), and indicating consequence (“so”).
- A personal voice is developing.
- Texts usually make sense to the reader.

Sentence development and language structures

- There is some use of different sentence beginnings and choice of structures.
- The writing shows increasing use of subordinate clauses.
- Texts use linking words to connect ideas, for example, “and”, “but”, “when”, “first”, “so”.
- The writing may use modal verbs (for example, “might”, “should”).
- A range of errors in language forms and structures is likely to be evident (for example, run-on sentences or inaccuracies in, or omissions of, elements of a complex verb phrase).
- With more technical and complex topics, there will be a greater number of errors in language structures and forms.
- Writers may have problems with using articles and other determiners correctly and with subject-verb agreement.

Vocabulary development

- The writing shows a strong personal voice developing through deliberate choice of appropriate vocabulary.
- There may be some evidence of less appropriate language choices, perhaps from direct translation, for example, use of “companion” instead of “friend”.
- Texts include some lower-frequency and technical vocabulary but may have insufficient topic-specific or formal vocabulary for the task or context.
- Singular and plural forms may not always be accurately used.
- Learners are developing control over contracted verb forms, for example, “wouldn’t”.

Script control

- The script is controlled and legible. Upper- and lower-case letters are almost always used appropriately.

Editing, spelling, and punctuation

- The text shows evidence of accurate editing.
- Most high-frequency words are spelt correctly, and some lower-frequency technical words are spelt correctly.
- The writing shows evidence of attention to specific points, such as distinguishing between homonyms (“their” and “there”; “to”, “too”, and “two”; and so on).
- Punctuation is mostly accurate.
- Contractions are used appropriately.

Where to next?

Teachers could help learners to:

- identify key ideas and concepts and organise them into an appropriate sequence according to topic, purpose, audience, and text type;
- organise their text to include paragraphing;
- build variety in their sentence structures, especially phrases at the beginnings of sentences;
- build connecting sentences onto the core idea sentence, thus forming paragraphs;
- develop the use of complex noun phrases and prepositional and adverbial phrases to add detail and expand sentence structures;
- expand their vocabulary, using more topic-specific, low-frequency vocabulary and choosing appropriate vocabulary for impact;
- continue to pay attention to high-frequency words and increase their use of low-frequency words, as well as improving spelling accuracy and choosing appropriate words;
- punctuate their work accurately, including using the appropriate sentence length and separating sentences by identifying main verb phrases.

Samples of learners' writing at Stage 2A

Economic Growth

- (f) Identify and explain ONE positive and ONE negative outcome resulting from economic growth.

2

POSITIVE OUTCOME

The community will benefits, so the average of life of people will better. And the also government get and can be kept keep money for the outside and inside things, so country will got power also ~~for~~ from economic growth.

NEGATIVE OUTCOME

The difference on the poor and rich people will gonna more higher. Some consumers which very poor is not benefits from economic growth, just spend their money to products of higher price come of inflation.

Topic development

- The writer answers the question in two parts, as the task ("Identify and explain ONE positive and ONE negative outcome resulting from economic growth") dictated.

Sentence development and language structures

- The writer has some errors with verb forms, especially future verb forms and modals – *community will benefits*, *will [be] better*, *can be keep* [can keep], *will got* [will get], *will [become] more higher*, *is not benefits* [will not benefit].
- The writer attempts to use extended noun phrases – *The difference on the poor and rich people*, *Some consumers which very poor*.
- The writer uses linking words to connect ideas – *so*, *also*, *and*. Sometimes these are incorrectly placed – *And the also government*.
- There is a variety of sentence types, including compound and complex sentences.
- The writer attempts to use comparison – *will more higher*.
- Most words are in the correct order.
- Some articles are omitted – [the] *government*, [a] *country*.

Vocabulary development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The writer uses some lower-frequency, topic-specific vocabulary – <i>community, benefits, average, economic growth, consumers, products, price, inflation</i>. - Some words are non-specific, and the intended meaning is unclear – <i>the outside and inside things</i>. - The writer makes some mistakes with prepositions – <i>difference on [between], to [on] products</i>.
Script control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The script is legible (although on and off the lines). - Capitals are used correctly.
Editing, spelling, and punctuation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The text shows evidence of editing. - Most words are spelt correctly. - Punctuation is mostly accurate.

Economics exam

(d) Use the optimum purchase rule ($P = MU$) to explain why Noi would buy fewer dresses if their price increased.

Price increase, MU also increase as consumer can not buy the product easily (by scarcity <money>), and as law of demand, consumer buy fewer dresses if the price of product increase, MU is increase, and Quantity of buying products is decrease when the price of product increase.

Topic development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The writer does not show a clear understanding of what MU (marginal utility) is and therefore answers the question incorrectly. The short-answer format means that minimal topic development is needed.
Sentence development and language structures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The writer attempts to use passive constructions – <i>MU is increase[d], Quantity of buying products is decrease[d]</i>. - There are errors with subject–verb agreement – <i>Price increase[s], MU also increase[s], consumer[s] buy</i>. - There are some subordinate clauses – <i>if the price of product increase, when the price of product increase</i>. The writer has good control of conditionals, which are a common construction in economics. - The writer uses some linking words to connect ideas – <i>and, if, when</i>. - There are some missing articles and use of singular rather than plural forms – <i>consumer[s], [the] law of demand</i>.
Vocabulary development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The writer uses technical vocabulary – <i>increase, consumer, product, scarcity, demand, decrease</i>.
Script control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The script is legible. - Most capitals are used correctly.
Editing, spelling, and punctuation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Because this sample was written under test conditions, there would have been little time for editing. - The words are spelt correctly. - Punctuation is mostly accurate.

Typical features of writing at Stage 2B

Topic development

- Topics are developed in stages, and ideas are linked and organised.
- Texts show a greater variety of ideas and ability to express a range of original ideas.
- Texts are longer and rely less on modelled (learned) structures.
- Learners show increased awareness of writing for different purposes and audiences.

Sentence development and language structures

- Texts use a variety of simple, compound, and complex sentence structures.
- Texts may use a variety of verb forms, contracted verb forms, and expanded noun phrases.
- There is a range of different sentence beginnings and chosen structures (such as use of relative clauses).
- The writing shows an increasing use of subordinate clauses.
- The writing may use modal verbs (for example, “might”, “should”).
- Texts use linking words to connect ideas, for example, “but”, “because”, “so”.

Vocabulary development

- The writing shows a strong personal voice developing through deliberate choice of appropriate vocabulary.
- There may be some evidence of less appropriate language choices, perhaps from direct translation, for example, use of “companion” instead of “friend”.
- Most vocabulary is high frequency.
- Texts include some lower-frequency and technical vocabulary but may have insufficient topic-specific or formal vocabulary for the task or context.
- Learners may have difficulty with choosing the correct preposition.

Script control

- The script is controlled and legible. Upper- and lower-case letters are almost always used appropriately.

Editing, spelling, and punctuation

- The text shows evidence of accurate editing.
- The writing shows evidence of attention to specific points, such as distinguishing between homonyms (“their” and “there”; “to”, “too”, and “two”; and so on).
- Most high-frequency words are spelt correctly, and some lower-frequency technical words are spelt correctly.
- Contractions are used appropriately.
- Learners may begin to use a greater range of punctuation, for example, question marks and exclamation marks.

Where to next?

Teachers could help learners to:

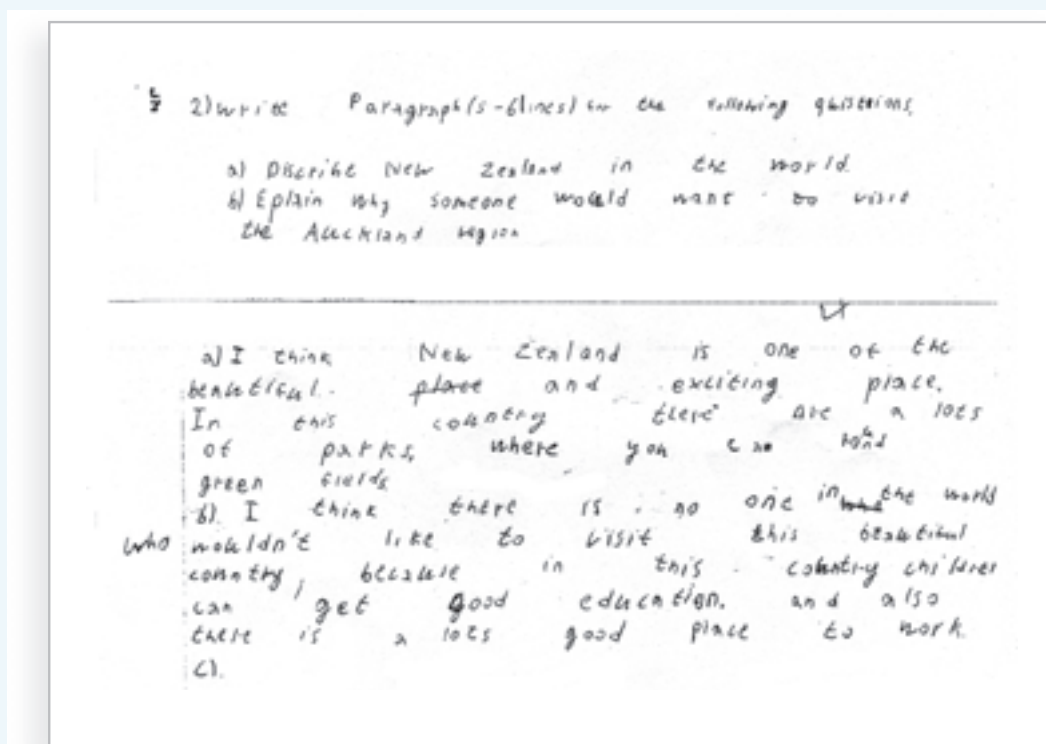
- organise their ideas and concepts into an appropriate sequence, according to topic, purpose, audience, and text type;
- expand or elaborate each core idea through supporting and connecting sentences organised into paragraphs;
- increase the variety of sentence beginnings and length by including prepositional and adverbial phrases and additional clauses;
- use correct and effective punctuation;
- improve their vocabulary, especially by pre-teaching academic or technical topic-related words and by further expanding their high-frequency vocabulary;
- increase their knowledge and use of expanded structures, for example, noun phrases and prepositional and adverbial phrases;
- learn the structure of complex verb phrases and how to clarify the main verb role in main clauses, that is, the differences between finite and **non-finite verbs**;
- clarify their understanding and use of articles;
- continue to pay attention to script form and position.

Samples of learners' writing at Stage 2B

Opinion of New Zealand

Task: Write a paragraph (5–6 lines) on the following question:

- Describe New Zealand in the world.
- Explain why someone would want to visit the Auckland region.



Topic development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The ideas are relevant to the question. The short-answer format means that minimal topic development is needed.
Sentence development and language structures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The sentence structures are varied, and some are complex – <i>I think there is no one in the world who wouldn't like to visit this beautiful country, because in this country children can get good education, and also there is a lots good place to work.</i> The writer uses some subordinate clauses – <i>where you can found green fields.</i> The writer uses linking words to connect ideas – <i>because, and, also.</i> There are some modal verbs – <i>can found</i> [find], <i>wouldn't like</i>, <i>can get</i>. The writer uses an indefinite article with <i>lots</i> – <i>a lots of parks, a lots good place[s].</i> There is a contracted verb form (<i>wouldn't</i>) and some expanded noun phrases (<i>one of the beautiful and exciting place, lots of parks, no one in the world</i>). The writer has some errors with plurals – <i>one of the beautiful and exciting place[s], good place[s] to work.</i>
Vocabulary development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The vocabulary is general and high frequency but appropriate to the purpose.
Script control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The script is legible. Capital letters are used appropriately.
Editing, spelling, and punctuation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The text shows evidence of editing. The words are spelt correctly. Contractions are used appropriately. Punctuation is used appropriately.

Anti-Smacking Bill Letter

Task: To write a persuasive letter

Hello,
My name is [redacted]
and I am from Georgia. At this moment
I am in NZ and I am learning at [redacted]
College. My letter is about an
Anti-smacking Bill. I can't be
agree with you. The reason why
I am not agree with you is
because there isn't gonna be
person in the world who is gonna
control his or her own child. For
example when parent asks his
son to do something his son's
answer gonna be "what???" I am not gonna
do that, what are you gonna
do, hit me, do you want me to
call police.
But if you want me to be
agree with you you must
make some types of rule
that mother can use if his
or her child's behaviour was bad.
I think there has to be
a rule which afraid children to
do bad things. For example I
think parent shouldn't be charged when
he or her is gonna hit her or his
child lightly.
My conclusion is that if
you want to win this bill
you have to make a rule which
makes children not to do bad
thing.
I am sorry maybe I wasted
your time, but I want to
say good luck with your bill.

Thank you
your sincerely
[redacted]

Topic development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Several ideas are arranged logically in paragraphs, and the writer gives examples. - The ideas are relevant to the topic. - The ideas are usually expressed in a way that is appropriate to the text type.
Sentence development and language structures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The text uses a variety of simple, compound, and complex sentence structures. - There are some relative clauses to amplify ideas (<i>which frights children to do bad things</i>) and subordinate clauses (<i>when he or her is gonna hit her or his child lightly</i>). - The writer uses a variety of phrases at the beginnings of sentences to structure the argument – <i>The reason why, For example, I think, My conclusion is</i>. - The writer has considerable control over language structures but still makes some errors. There are errors with the verb <i>to be</i> (<i>I can't be agree, I am [do] not agree, his son's answer [is] gonna be</i>) and with articles and plurals (<i>an [the] Anti-smacking Bill, when [a] parent asks, [a] mother can use, do bad thing[s]</i>). - The writer uses an incorrect contraction – <i>amn't</i>. - The writer attempts to use the adjective “afraid” as a verb – <i>afraids</i>.
Vocabulary development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The writer transfers a word from oral language to written language inappropriately – using <i>gonna</i> instead of <i>going to</i>. - The vocabulary is mostly general and high frequency, but there are some topic-specific words – <i>Bill, control, charged</i>.
Script control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The script is legible. - Capital letters are used appropriately.
Editing, spelling, and punctuation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The text shows evidence of editing. - The words are spelt correctly. - Contractions are used appropriately. - The writer uses a range of punctuation, mostly accurately.

Stage 3

It is very important to continue to set clear priorities, for learners at this stage, that systematically address issues other than surface features. These priorities will include creating coherent texts by organising information at whole-text, paragraph, and sentence levels in ways appropriate to the text type and the purpose of the task. (See the *English Language Intensive Programme Years 7–13 Resource*.)

Typical features of writing at Stage 3

Topic development

- Topics are developed according to the purpose of the task.
- Topics are sustained and organised logically and coherently in stages. There is some paragraphing.
- Ideas are linked and organised.
- Texts may follow a model closely or use mainly learned structures.
- Texts show a greater variety of ideas and details and ability to express a range of original ideas.
- Learners show an awareness of writing for different purposes and audiences.

Sentence development and language structures

- Texts include varied and complex sentence structures appropriate to the writing purpose, often with errors.
- Texts may use a variety of verb forms, contracted verb forms, and expanded noun phrases.
- Texts use a range of linking words to connect ideas appropriately (for example, “however”, “therefore”).
- Some errors are still likely to be seen at times, such as incorrect verb forms (“I am going to the dentist yesterday”, “She was died”) or incorrect use of plural and singular forms (“many apple”, “a few homeworks”).
- Texts may show overuse of a recently learned structure.
- There is a range of different sentence beginnings and chosen structures (such as use of relative clauses).
- Writing may use modal verbs (for example, “might”, “should”).

Vocabulary development

- Words are chosen from an expanding bank of general, technical, and academic vocabulary in a range of curriculum and topic areas. In less familiar topic areas, the vocabulary may revert to more general or vague word choices (for example, “things”).
- Words are mostly chosen appropriately to meet the purpose of the task and to create specific effects, for example, by using literary devices for humour or consciously choosing features of persuasive language.
- Direct translations may lead to inappropriate word choices.

Script control

- The writing style is now established, and there is little likelihood of the learner changing how they form their letters.
- The script is controlled and legible. Upper- and lower-case letters are almost always used appropriately.

Editing, spelling, and punctuation

- The writing shows evidence of independent, accurate editing.
- Surface features are generally controlled consistently, although in unfamiliar topic areas or under time pressure in formal assessments, control may be reduced.
- Spelling is mostly accurate.
- Learners use a greater range of punctuation, for example, question marks and exclamation marks.

Where to next?

Teachers could help learners to:

- plan and organise their core ideas, concepts, and overall text, making it appropriate to the topic, purpose, audience, and text type;
- construct each core idea or sentence and elaborate on and expand it with supporting sentences;
- make effective use of topic-specific and technical vocabulary;
- use “tighter” sentence construction, minimising the use of simple connectives in compound sentences and using more embedded clauses and phrases;
- construct grammatically correct and expanded phrases, especially verb, noun, adverbial, and prepositional phrases;
- increase their use of more sophisticated and/or varied vocabulary and sentence structures;
- increase the variety of sentence types they use;
- continue to pay attention to punctuation.

Samples of learners' writing at Stage 3

Perfect Home

Task: Write a description of your perfect home

My perfect home, needn't very big, just more than about 150
 kilometres ^{of space in my house} that's enough, because I don't like too much spaces and
 just three persons in it. I think my perfect home should be
 comfortable, quiet and lovely. Through it's not large, there are
 all of things ^{what} I want. There are two levels, downstairs is
 living room, ~~in~~ kitchen, and game room. living room is important,
 it must be put some plants in it, and ~~a~~ fountain in the middle
 of living room, under fountain is pool, that's for fish. ~~That's~~
 my perfect home can't just wood, I need some alive things, that's
 the cause of ~~fountain~~ ^{Plants} and fish in my home. In my game room,
 you can see football, basketball, ~~table~~ and other things about
 sport, that's my free room. upstairs ~~is~~ all of rooms are for
 rest. all around ~~is~~ are big windows. you can see some green
 plants outside. That room shouldn't be colour colourful, that's
 can help me to sleep and rest.

Topic development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The ideas are relevant and are presented in a logical order but are not arranged into paragraphs. The writer goes into detail and expresses personal ideas.
Sentence development and language structures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There is a variety of sentence structures, including complex – <i>Just about 150 kilometres [metres] square in my house that's enough, because I don't like too much spaces and just three persons in it.</i> The writer uses some linking words to connect ideas – <i>because, Through [though].</i> There are some run-on sentences – <i>In my game room, you can see football, basketball, and other things about sport, that's my free room.</i> The writer sometimes has errors with the verb to be – <i>needn't [be] very big, It must be put [have], can't [be] just wood, that's can help.</i> There are several modal verbs – <i>needn't [be], should be, must be put, can see, shouldn't be, can help.</i> Contracted verb forms are used appropriately. There are some errors with articles and/or plurals – <i>too much spaces, is [a] living room, [a] kitch [kitchen] and [a] game room, and [a] fountain, under [the] fountain is [a] pool, all of [the] rooms.</i>
Vocabulary development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The writer uses appropriate high-frequency, general vocabulary. There are several prepositions appropriate to the topic – <i>in my house, downstairs, in the middle of, Under, In my game room, Upstair, outside.</i> There are a few vocabulary errors – <i>kilometres [metres], cause of [reason for].</i> The writer uses some high-frequency adjectives – <i>big, perfect, comfortable, quiet, lovely, large, important, alive, green, colourful.</i>
Script control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The script is legible. Capital letters are sometimes used inappropriately.
Editing, spelling, and punctuation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The writing shows evidence of editing. Spelling is mostly accurate. The writer uses a range of punctuation.

Best or Worst

Task: Write about the best or worst thing that has happened to you since you came to New Zealand.

It was about 1 month ago. 2 of my best Japanese friends came to New Zealand. I stayed here for just 4 days. They knew nothing about Auckland. So I was planning to take them somewhere good in the city, where isn't able to see in Japan.

On the second day, I took them to shopping centre. We went to the supermarket. I thought supermarket is good place to feel the 'country'. The thought was right. My friends seemed they really enjoyed it. They saw many 'rare' foods. Then one of my friend suddenly said, 'Lets make dinner ~~was~~ tonight'.

We got some foods in the super ~~at~~ and took them to the apartment where we were staying.

When we got there. My friends started cooking dinner. I didn't. My friends didn't let me come into the kitchen. I waited for them about 1 hour. Then they said I can come in. There were seemed good meal. They made that ~~for~~ me.

I felt very, very happy. It was one of the days which I can't ~~never~~ forget.

Topic development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The ideas are logically organised in paragraphs.
Sentence development and language structures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The writer uses short sentences to good effect, although there are some longer sentences and attempts at using complex ones – <i>When we got there. My friends started cooking dinner.</i> There are many markers of time – <i>It was about 1 month ago, On the second day, Then, suddenly, When we got there.</i> The writer shows a good grasp of language structures, but there are a few incorrect structures – <i>seemed they really enjoyed it, one of my friend, There were seemed good meal.</i> The writer uses relative clauses – <i>It was one of the days which I can't forget.</i> There are a few missing articles – <i>took them to [the] shopping centre, I thought [the] supermarket.</i> There are some errors with verb forms – <i>I thought supermarket is [was], they said I can [could] come in.</i> The writer has some difficulty with the verb <i>to seem</i> – <i>My friends seemed they really enjoyed it [seemed to really enjoy it/seemed like they really enjoyed it]; There were seemed good meal [It seemed like a good meal].</i>
Vocabulary development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The writer uses appropriate, high-frequency, general vocabulary. Most verbs are used correctly – <i>was planning to take, were staying, started cooking, didn't let me come.</i>
Script control	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The script is legible. Capital letters are mostly used appropriately.
Editing, spelling, and punctuation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The writing shows a little evidence of editing. The spelling is correct. The writer uses some commas, full stops, and speech marks but sometimes incorrectly – <i>When we got there. My friends started cooking dinner.</i>

Economics – Chocolate and Cola Unit

Use these words in a paragraph to show you know their meaning.

choice opportunity cost choice economic decisions
 limited means alternative scarcity

Economic decisions are made everyday. For example, I would like to buy a dog and a cat which choices are same value. But I just have limited means, so I can buy one of them only. If I buy the dog, the cat is my opportunity cost. The choices can be alternative. However my area are scarcity, no one can be bought now.

<p>Topic development</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The short-answer format and the need to use certain words constrain the writer's ability to develop a topic.
<p>Sentence development and language structures</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The writer uses a variety of sentence structures. - The writer uses linking words to connect ideas – <i>For example, But, so, If, However.</i> - The writer uses some passive constructions – <i>are made, can be bought.</i> - There is a relative clause – <i>which choices are same value.</i> - There is a subordinate clause – <i>If I buy the dog.</i>
<p>Vocabulary development</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The writer uses the required technical vocabulary plus some high-frequency, general words. - The writer has difficulty incorporating some of the technical words into the text – <i>which choices are, my area are scarcity.</i> The writer uses “scarcity” as an adjective and doesn't seem sure of its technical meaning.
<p>Script control</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The script is legible. - Capital letters are used appropriately.
<p>Editing, spelling, and punctuation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The writing shows evidence of editing. - Most words are spelt correctly. - The writer uses commas and full stops correctly.

Family Changes

Task: To describe family changes between 1558 and 1667 and evaluate the influence of the family on the lives of people at this time.

Note: A transcript of this text is provided on page 96, as an appendix.

Question number	Extra paper for continuation of answers if required. Clearly number the question.	Assessor's use only
4.	Describe the extent to which the family changed during the period 1558-1667. Evaluate the influence of the family on the lives of people at this time.	
	After the Reformation the family changed from its medieval way. The women started to gain independence for themselves and also start making their lives their own way. The family was start to move away from the old way and it was caused by many things.	
	The family member was an even role. It was believed that the woman was to blame for the first sin from the first family Adam and Eve. The role of women were simple to produce baby and do the will of the husband. Marriage was simple because you can get married when you are 7 years old if you're girl and boys is 14. The role of men in a family was to be master or the head of the family. The head of the family was the only one who can go to church where women educated the children at home. The men missed an important part of in the child life which is child birth. The church and set up courtship where is to solve the problem between the men and women. The people turn to religion to solve the problem of the first sin which was caused by the woman by blaming Adam as white and some of the women were been killed to cut down the	

Beside them. the marriage was also changed because mainly the parents chose who were going to married who and it was known as arranged marriage. the change bridge when they choose their own ~~wife~~ and family member to form a family. the relationship in the family became strong and also children of family was been taken to church instead of been educate at home by the mother.

The change of family during the period 1558-1667 was huge and also lots of changes. the change didn't solve all the problem within the family because men start asking for the role of being a headmaster which was been shared now with the women of the family. it didn't solve but it was a huge movement of the family from the old traditional way to a new world which was just been formed.

<p>Topic development</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The ideas are relevant to the topic, but there is a lack of development and supporting detail. There is some repetition, and some ideas are not expressed clearly – <i>The change of family during the period 1558-1667 was huge and also lots of changes.</i> - Ideas are arranged into paragraphs.
<p>Sentence development and language structures</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There are many correct passive constructions – <i>was caused by, was believed, was also changed, was known as.</i> However, the writer consistently uses the word “been” instead of “being” – <i>were been killed, were been taken, were been shared.</i> - There are a few linking words to connect ideas – <i>because, also.</i> - The writer attempts to use some complex verb phrases – <i>started to gain, turn to religion to solve.</i> - The writer has some difficulty with verb forms – <i>has [had] it's own role, you can [could] get married, turn [turned] to religion, the parents choose [chose], been educate[d], men start[ed] asking.</i> - There are some errors with subject-verb agreement – <i>women was, role of women were, boys is, head of the family were.</i> - There are some relative clauses – <i>The men missed an important part in the child life which is child birth.</i> - There are some incorrect constructions that impede the reader's understanding – <i>where is to solve the problem, to cut down the beside them.</i> - The writer has some difficulty with plurals – <i>produce baby, blaming them as witch, children of family, solve all the problem.</i>
<p>Vocabulary development</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The writer uses appropriate general vocabulary as topic vocabulary – <i>parish, courtship, sin, witch.</i>
<p>Script control</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The script is legible. - Capital letters are mostly used appropriately.
<p>Editing, spelling, and punctuation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There is some evidence of editing, but the sample was written under test conditions so there was little time for this. - Spelling is mostly correct. - The learner uses full stops but does not use more complex punctuation, such as colons, which would be useful in this text – <i>The role of women were simple[:] to produce baby and do the wish of the husband.</i>

Developing Independent Learners

Using “learning to learn” strategies can improve a learner’s achievement.

Cognition (thinking and learning) and metacognition (thinking about thinking and learning) are both important components of learning. Learners who have **metacognitive** awareness are aware of how they approach a particular learning task. They can monitor the progress of their learning and can think about their own thinking and learning processes.

Students have to learn how to learn ... students need to develop a range of information-processing abilities (both cognitive and metacognitive) ...

Effective Literacy Strategies in Years 9–13, page 23

Three different types of metacognitive knowledge have been identified (see Biggs and Moore, 1993):

- *knowing what*, or having knowledge about your own learning processes (declarative knowledge);
- *knowing how*, or having knowledge about what skills and strategies to use (procedural knowledge);
- *knowing when*, or having knowledge about when and why to use various strategies (conditional knowledge).

Learners need to be taught how to use learning prompts and strategies and then encouraged to use them. Teachers should explain each prompt or strategy, describe its purpose, model how to use it, give learners chances to practise using it, and then encourage them to use it at different points in the learning tasks until it becomes part of how they learn.

A prompt is a reminder to a learner to use what they already know and can do (for example, by selecting a known strategy to solve a learning problem). In this book, common prompts are usually written in the first person so that learners can use them independently, for example, *Are my ideas in the right order?* Prompts like this could be displayed around the room, or they could be listed in the learners’ books and numbered (so that the teacher can say, “Remember to use prompts 1 and 3 for this task.”)

In the early stages, the learners can use symbols and icons (such as smiley faces or question marks) to show what they do or don’t understand. Teachers can use cards to prompt the use of a learning strategy.

Checklists will only have a meaningful use if they are carefully designed and linked to a specific task.

Checklists can also be displayed in the classroom to encourage self-monitoring and independent learning. Teachers can use them to focus on specific aspects of learning at different times and for different purposes. Checklists should be short and should relate to a specific task.

Checklists for speaking could focus on fluency or on specific aspects of speaking, such as stress patterns, pronunciation of a particular sound, or minimal pair differences (for example, “pin” and “pen”).

Checklists for reading can be used to make sure that learners draw on and use appropriate reading strategies, including the reading processing strategies and the reading comprehension strategies described on pages 139–152 of *Effective Literacy Practice in Years 5 to 8* and put into practice on pages 51–98 of *Effective Literacy Strategies in Years 9 to 13*.

For example, readers can use the comprehension strategies of:

- inferring and evaluating, when completing three-level thinking guides to gain a deeper understanding of a text;
- analysing and synthesising, when using comment codes to annotate texts (I = interesting, D = disagree, A = agree, F = fact, O = opinion);
- asking questions, identifying main ideas, or analysing and synthesising, when using highlighters to identify different aspects of the text.

Checklists for writing could focus on different aspects of texts at different times, depending on the teaching and learning focus. A checklist could include features of a specific text type, a punctuation feature, appropriate vocabulary choices, a spelling rule, a grammar rule (such as the use of “s” at the end of verbs in the third-person singular present tense), or use of prepositions.

Example of a writing checklist for Stage 3

Task: To summarise the causes of World War I, using four different types of sources, and compare the points of view of the sources

Language focus: Passive verbs

Prompts:

Do I understand what I have to do?

Have I checked the instructions to make sure that I'm using the right range of sources?

Have I checked that I've recorded the details of the sources accurately?

How have I been able to show the similarities and differences between the sources?

Have I checked that my use of the passive in my summary is grammatically correct?

Strategies:

Work out ways to help you identify the main ideas in a text, highlight them, and identify the language cues that show you that they are main ideas.

Check with the teacher that you understand the differences between fact and opinion and ask yourself which are facts and which are opinions.

Remember that English language learners eventually need to move beyond checklists in order to become independent learners. They need to learn to draw on and use their knowledge, skills, and strategies consciously and deliberately for cognitive and metacognitive purposes in all areas of learning.

The following table includes examples of learning prompts and strategies from the Foundation Stage to Stage 4 in oral language, reading, writing, and thinking about learning.

Examples of learning prompts and strategies

	Oral language	Reading	Writing	Thinking about learning
<p>Foundation Stage and Stage 1</p> <p>(At these stages, prompts may be explained by pictures, mime, symbols, teacher/peer modelling, or saying, not reading.)</p>	<p>Prompts</p> <p><i>Am I easy to hear?</i></p> <p><i>Do I need to say it again?</i></p> <p><i>Did I hear what you said?</i></p> <p><i>Do I need to hear it again?</i></p> <p>Strategies</p> <p>Say your question (or idea) to yourself in your head before you talk.</p> <p>Listen for words said more than once or loudly and slowly.</p>	<p>Prompts</p> <p>Before reading:</p> <p><i>What is this about?</i></p> <p><i>How do I know?</i></p> <p><i>Do I know some words for this in my first language?</i></p> <p>During reading:</p> <p><i>Can I use the pictures to help me understand the words and ideas?</i></p> <p>After reading:</p> <p><i>What words and ideas do I remember?</i></p> <p><i>Is this idea or topic easy or hard for me to understand?</i></p> <p><i>How can I get better at understanding?</i></p>	<p>Prompts</p> <p><i>Do I know what I need to write about?</i></p> <p><i>Are my words and letters easy to read?</i></p> <p><i>Does my writing make sense?</i></p> <p>Strategy</p> <p>Use a model for writing (in print or electronic form).</p>	<p>Prompt</p> <p><i>What do I remember from yesterday when we were learning about this?</i></p> <p>Strategy</p> <p>Practise different ways of learning new words and decide which ones work best for you, e.g., look, say, spell, cover, write, check.</p>
<p>Stage 2</p>	<p>Prompts</p> <p><i>Am I speaking clearly?</i></p> <p><i>Am I trying to talk a lot so I'll get better?</i></p> <p><i>Can I pick out the main ideas from what I hear?</i></p> <p><i>What should I do if I don't understand what I hear?</i></p> <p>Strategies</p> <p>Work out ways to get the main ideas from what you hear, both in class and out of class.</p> <p>Tell a buddy what the main ideas are, and see if your buddy agrees.</p>	<p>Prompt</p> <p><i>What questions can I ask as I read, to help me understand?</i></p> <p>Strategy</p> <p>Use different ways (charts, mind maps) to make notes about the main ideas. This can help you to notice and understand what you read.</p>	<p>Prompts</p> <p><i>Have I checked that my work makes sense and has capital letters, full stops, and correct spelling?</i></p> <p><i>Are my words and sentences in the right order?</i></p> <p>Strategy</p> <p>Check that you followed the instructions for the writing task.</p>	<p>Prompts</p> <p><i>What questions can I ask as I learn, to help me understand?</i></p> <p><i>What have I been learning about (e.g., volcanoes, soccer rules), and what have I learned how to do (e.g., play a game, use a piece of equipment)?</i></p> <p>Strategies</p> <p>Use different ways (e.g., charts and mind maps) to make notes about the main ideas. This will help you to notice and understand what you learn.</p> <p>Practise different ways of learning new words, e.g., look, say, spell, cover, write, check.</p> <p>Act out words to see if it helps you to remember them.</p> <p>Ask a friend or a teacher if you don't know how to do something.</p>

	Oral language	Reading	Writing	Thinking about learning
Stage 3	<p>Prompts</p> <p><i>Is my English pronunciation improving?</i></p> <p><i>How am I trying to improve my fluency (speaking for longer and without too many pauses and hesitations)?</i></p> <p><i>Am I practising using new words at home?</i></p> <p><i>Which words do I need to pronounce better?</i></p> <p><i>Am I talking to different people (e.g., teachers, friends) in different ways?</i></p> <p>Strategies</p> <p>Listen to people speaking on the radio and on TV and repeat to yourself a main idea you have heard.</p> <p>Make yourself talk to someone you don't know in the class.</p> <p>Practise asking different sorts of questions.</p> <p>Time yourself (with a watch or clock) so you speak with fewer pauses.</p> <p>Listen to how people change meanings by saying words louder or more slowly.</p>	<p>Prompts</p> <p><i>Am I reading different types of text to learn more information and learn about ways that people use language?</i></p> <p><i>Can I understand the difference between main ideas and details?</i></p> <p>Strategy</p> <p>Ask yourself if you have read about this in your first language.</p>	<p>Prompts</p> <p><i>Have I checked that my ideas are organised in a sensible order?</i></p> <p><i>Have I written as much as I need to for my writing purpose?</i></p> <p><i>Have I checked for missing words?</i></p> <p><i>Have I tried to use new vocabulary?</i></p> <p><i>Does my writing meet my purpose for writing?</i></p> <p><i>In completing the writing task, have I met my learning goal?</i></p> <p>Strategies</p> <p>Talk or make notes about what you know before you start.</p> <p>Make a plan for your writing and check that your plan fits the task and the audience for your work.</p>	<p>Prompts</p> <p><i>Can I explain what I've learned to a friend, someone in my group, or someone at home?</i></p> <p><i>What do I know at the end of a topic study that I didn't know at the beginning?</i></p> <p>Strategies</p> <p>Think about how what you are learning today links to what you have already learned about and summarise this in a notebook.</p> <p>Ask yourself if you have read about this in your first language.</p> <p>Talk with a friend about your learning, in either your first language or English, to help you understand and see if your ideas match each other's.</p> <p>Complete a time trial – give yourself ten minutes at home to write down everything you remember about a topic. Then check in your textbook to see what you've remembered and what you left out.</p>



	Oral language	Reading	Writing	Thinking about learning
Stage 4	<p>Prompts</p> <p><i>Have I set my goals for improving fluency and pronunciation?</i></p> <p><i>Have I checked that my opinions about my proficiency in English match my listener's views?</i></p> <p><i>Am I able to choose different features of spoken English to create an effect?</i></p> <p><i>Have I worked out what strategies work best for me to help me listen and understand?</i></p> <p>Strategy use</p> <p><i>Am I choosing and using appropriate strategies to improve my listening and speaking skills?</i></p>	<p>Prompts</p> <p><i>Am I reading a range of different texts on the topic?</i></p> <p><i>Can I recognise bias or inadequacies in the text?</i></p> <p><i>Am I using a range of different sources of information on the page, including visual text (diagrams, graphs) and written text to make sense of the text?</i></p> <p>Strategy use</p> <p><i>Am I choosing and using appropriate strategies to improve my appreciation and comprehension of complex texts?</i></p>	<p>Prompts</p> <p><i>Am I editing carefully for accurate standard English use?</i></p> <p><i>Am I choosing features to create an effect where appropriate?</i></p> <p>Strategy use</p> <p><i>Am I choosing and using a range of appropriate strategies to improve my academic writing?</i></p>	<p>Prompts</p> <p><i>Do I understand that there are different levels and types of questions and that I need to ask questions as well as answer them to help me learn?</i></p> <p><i>Do I understand the different approaches required in different subjects for research tasks?</i></p> <p><i>Am I always checking to see what I know about a topic before beginning a task?</i></p> <p><i>Am I being systematic in my approach to learning new grammatical forms, correcting errors, and learning new vocabulary?</i></p> <p><i>Do I know ways of analysing and synthesising information (such as grids) and ways to work out the meanings of words in unfamiliar contexts?</i></p>

Record of Progress



It would be useful to photocopy this form and complete it three times per year for each learner, to track progress over time, and keep it with student records.

Name: _____

Year level: _____

ESOL number (if funded): _____

Assessment date: _____

	Oral language: listening	Oral language: speaking	Reading	Writing
Stage (please circle)	F 1 2 3 4	F 1 2 3 4	F 1A 1B 1C 1D/2A 2B 2C/3A 3B 3C 3D/4A 4B 4C 4D	FA FB 1 2A 2B 3 4
Assessment tool (see pp. 17–28 of <i>ESOL Progress Assessment Guidelines</i>)				
Level of assistance (teacher-guided, peer, or independent)				
Task type (e.g., a speech, a journal entry, a test)				
Context of assessment (ESOL class or mainstream)				
Hours per week of ESOL specialist classes				
Next steps				
Other comments				



academic vocabulary	words that are used in academic contexts or with academic topics. These words include words for specific subjects or disciplines and general academic vocabulary that is used for many different subjects (see <i>Effective Literacy Strategies in Years 9 to 13</i> , page 28). Some words have meanings that are different when the word is used in a specific academic subject rather than in everyday contexts, for example, in the subject of mathematics “mean” refers to the average of a set of scores, whereas its everyday meanings include “stingy”, “cruel”, and “unkind”.
adverb	An adverb is any word (or sometimes a group of words) that modifies or adds to the meaning of verbs, adjectives (including numbers), clauses, sentences, and other adverbs. Adverbs typically answer questions such as how?, when?, or where? For example, “In the wintertime they <i>usually</i> treated her <i>well</i> ”, “An <i>extremely</i> small child entered the room <i>quietly</i> .”
adverbial phrase	a group of words functioning as an adverb in a sentence, for example, “I’m going to the shop <i>to buy a drink</i> .”
article	“A” is called an indefinite article; “the” is called a definite article. (For more information about articles, see <i>Exploring Language: A Handbook for Teachers</i> , page 47.)
clause	a group of words containing a subject and verb, for example, “I’m going.” A clause may be a subordinate [dependent] clause or a main [independent] clause .
cognitive academic language proficiency	The ability to use academic language is sometimes called cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). The ability to use social language is sometimes called basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS). CALP usually takes more time to acquire than BICS.
cohesion	the way a text is formed into a united whole through the use of linking words, nouns and pronouns, synonyms, and other cohesive devices
collocate with	(of two or more words) to be commonly used together. For example, “go” collocates with “swimming”, as in “go swimming”, but it does not collocate with “tennis”. A verb that collocates with “tennis” is “play”, as in “play tennis”.
collocation	two (or more) words that are commonly used together
complex sentence	a sentence that has a main clause and at least one subordinate clause , for example, “The bike was smaller [main clause] than I had expected [subordinate clause].”
compound sentence	a sentence containing at least two main clauses , linked by a conjunction (“and”, “but”, “or”, and so on)
conjunction	a joining word, for example, “and”, “but”, “or”

content words	words that have some meaning on their own and refer to an action, state, object, idea, and so on. (In contrast, functional words or structural words indicate relationships between other words and don't tend to have a clear meaning on their own.)
decode	read individual words, that is, translate them from the shapes of written language into the sounds of oral language (often silently) by making links between letters or letter clusters and their associated sounds, using visual and grapho-phonetic sources of information in a text in conjunction with semantic and syntactic sources of information in the text and prior knowledge of literacy learning
dependent clause	see subordinate clause
determiner	a word that quantifies or identifies nouns, including articles , numbers, and possessive adjectives
discourse	Discourse is the level of language beyond the sentence. Spoken discourse can refer to oral texts such as dialogues or monologues, while written discourse can refer to parts of written texts or entire written texts.
elaborate on	to enhance understanding of texts (oral, audio, visual, or written) by using supplementary information, explanations, or other material (which may include visuals). It is preferable to elaborate on language structures or vocabulary rather than to simplify them for learners after the Foundation Stage or Stage 1.
ellipsis	leaving out one or more implied words from a sentence, for example, “[I’ve] Got it.”
finite verb	A finite verb changes according to person, number, tense, and so on. It is a verb that has a subject–verb relationship within a sentence or a clause , for example, “the dog <i>ran</i> away”, “I <i>like</i> people who <i>are</i> polite.” A non-finite verb does not have this relationship, for example, “I want <i>to run</i> away”, “It’s easy <i>to like</i> children”, “ <i>Being</i> polite is very important.”
formulaic chunk	a phrase or sentence that learners remember and use without necessarily understanding the individual words, such as “How are you?”
general vocabulary	words that are used in many different everyday contexts
high-frequency word	a word that occurs often in speech or writing
homonym	words that have the same sound but different spellings and/or meanings, for example, “their” and “there”
idiom	a saying that has a different meaning from the individual meanings of the words that it consists of and is often used in informal contexts, for example, “She’s <i>over the moon</i> about the baby.”
idiomatic	containing idioms
imperative verb	a verb expressing a command or request, for example, “come” in “Come here!” and “remember” in “Please remember me.”
independent clause	see main clause

intensifier	a word used to make the meaning of another word or phrase stronger, for example, “very” in “very hot”, “so” in “so fast”, and “really” in “really angry”
interlanguage	the language used in transitional phases of learning an additional language. This language is not a standard form of either the learner’s first language or the target language but has elements of each, and may also include elements that come from aspects of language learning, such as “ overgeneralising ” grammar rules.
lexical	referring to the lexis or lexicon (all of the content words) of a language
lexical item	a word or group of words that has a specific meaning. For example, “drink milk” contains two lexical items, but “traffic light” contains only one.
main clause	(independent clause) a clause that can function as a sentence by itself, for example, “If we all go outside [subordinate/dependent clause], we can play in the sunshine [main clause].”
metacognitive	referring to a learner’s awareness of how they think and learn
minimal pair	two words that have only one different sound, for example, “ship” and “sheep” – these can be hard for English language learners to differentiate
modal verb	a verb that expresses obligation, permission, possibility, ability, or degrees of probability or obligation, for example, “can”, “could”, “may”, “might”, “must”, “should”, “will”, “would” (refer to <i>Exploring Language</i> , pages 66–68)
modes	Speaking, listening, reading, writing, viewing, and presenting are sometimes referred to as the modes of language use. There are two oral language modes, two written language modes, and two visual language modes. There are three modes for the production of language (speaking, writing, and presenting) and three modes for its comprehension (listening, reading, and viewing).
modifier	a word, phrase, or clause that occurs before and/or after a noun and modifies the meaning of that noun, for example, “ <i>the shining eyes of my daughter</i> ”
morphology	the study of the meaning-related structure of words. Morphemes are units of meaning that make up words; some words consist of one morpheme (such as “cat”), and some are combinations of morphemes (for example, “un+interest+ed”).
native speaker	a person who speaks a language (in this booklet, usually English) as their first language
non-finite verb	a verb that does not have a direct subject–verb relationship and does not change according to person, number, tense, and so on, for example, “I want <i>to run</i> away”, “It’s easy <i>to like</i> children”, “ <i>Being</i> polite is very important.”
non-verbal language	all types of body language, such as gestures, movements, and facial expressions. This is considered part of oral language.

noun phrase	In linguistics, “phrase” refers to a group of words that has a meaning but does not have both a subject and a finite verb (so it is not a clause). A phrase is categorised by its most important part, for example, “the big dog” is a noun phrase. A noun phrase may be a single word, for example, “I”.
overgeneralising	In linguistics, “overgeneralising” means applying a grammar rule in a language context in which it is incorrect, for example, using the plural suffix -s with the noun “sheep” and saying “sheeps”. This is a sign that a language learner is beginning to know and understand the rules of the target language .
passive construction	a sentence construction in which the subject undergoes the action of the verb, for example, “He was remembered” (as opposed to an active construction, in which the subject performs or experiences the action, for example, “He remembered”)
phonemic awareness	awareness of the separate sounds within words
phonological knowledge	knowledge of the sound system of a language
phrasal verb	a verb consisting of a verb and a preposition or adverb, or both. A phrasal verb as a whole has a meaning that differs from the meanings of each of the parts, for example, “He <i>caught on</i> very quickly.” (Refer to <i>Exploring Language</i> , pages 68–69.)
phrase	a group of words that forms part of a sentence but does not express a complete thought. (In linguistics, it means a group of words that does not have both a subject and a finite verb .)
possessive adjective	a word that occurs before a noun and indicates the possession of this noun – “his”, “her”, “their”, “your”, “our”
prepositional phrase	a phrase that begins with a preposition, for example, “ <i>in</i> the car”, “ <i>outside</i> the house”
pronoun	a word that stands in place of a noun, for example, “I”, “he”, “you”
proper noun	a name of a person or place, beginning with a capital letter, for example, “Li Ling”, “Sāmoa”
prosodic features	the prosodic features of a language include pitch, volume, speed, intonation, and stress, all of which affect the way the sounds of the language are articulated. The way prosodic features are used can alter the meaning of what is said, for example, “John’s bought a new <i>car</i> ” (not a new bike) or “John’s bought a <i>new</i> car” (not a second-hand one). Prosodic features are considered part of oral language.
referent	a person or thing that a word (often a pronoun) refers to
relative clause	a subordinate clause introduced by a relative pronoun (such as “who”, “which”, “that”), for example, “That is a good idea, <i>which</i> we should remember.”
relative pronoun	the word used to introduce a relative clause – for example, “who”, “which”, “that”
sensory verbs	verbs that refer to feelings or senses, for example, “love” and “smell”

simple sentence	a sentence containing only one main clause
structural words	sometimes called functional or grammatical words; words such as “a”, “the”, “to”, and so on, which don’t have a specific meaning in themselves but which are crucial for making sense of texts, for example, “Mary was having <i>a</i> party.”
subject pronoun	a pronoun functioning as the subject of the sentence
subordinate clause	(dependent clause) a clause that is introduced by words like “when”, “if”, “after”, “because”, “unless”, “as”, “that”, or “whether” and that is incomplete as a sentence without a main clause , for example, “If we all go outside [subordinate clause], we can play in the sunshine [main clause].”
syntax	the ways in which words in a language can be combined to make sentences
target language	the language being learned
technical vocabulary	words that are subject-specific or have a subject-specific meaning, for example, “knock on” is a technical term used in the sport of rugby and “standard deviation” is a technical term used in the subject of statistics.
verbal language	language in the form of words. This is considered part of oral language.
verb phrase	In linguistics, “phrase” refers to a group of words that has a meaning but does not have both a subject and a finite verb (so it is not a clause). A phrase is categorised by its most important part. For example, in the sentence “I am going”, “am going” is a verb phrase. A verb phrase may be a single word.

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Appendix: Transcript of Student's Text

4. Describe the extent to which the family changed during the period 1588–1667 evaluate family changes between 1558 and 1667.

Evaluate the influence of the family on the lives of people at this time.

After the Reformation the family changed from it's trational way. The women started to gain independence for themselves and also start moving their lives in their own way. The family was start to move away from the old way and it was caused by many things.

The family member has it's own role. It was believed that the women was to blame for our first sin from the first family Adam and Eve. The role of women were simple to produce baby and do the wish of the husband. Marriage was simple because you can get married when you are 7 years old if your'e girl and boys is 14. The role of men in a family was to be master or the head of the family. The head of the family were the only one who can go to church while[?] women educated the children at home. The men missed an important part in the child life which is child birth. The parish set up courtship where is to solve the problem between the men and women. The people turn to religion to solve the problem of the first sin which was caused by the women by blaming them as witch and some of the women were been killed to cut down the beside them. The marriage way was also changed because mainly the parents choose whose going to married who and it was known as arranged marriage. The change became when they choosed their own wife and husband to formed a family. The relationship in the family became strong and also children of family were been taken to church insted of been educate at home by the mother.

The change of family during the period 1558-1667 was huge and also lots of changes. The change didn't solve all the problem within the family because men start asking for the role of been a headmaster which were been shared now with the women of the family. It didn't solve but it was a huge movement of the family from the old trational way to a new world which was just been formed.