

Etwall Primary School English Progression Map

At Etwall Primary School, children learn to write using high quality texts as inspiration. They will experience a number of versions of the same genre so that they may be immersed in the language of that genre, and embed the grammatical patterns and nuances that are implicitly and explicitly used within a text. Children are engaged through an exciting and challenging English approach, which sees high quality literature as a foundation for learning to write.

Narrative / Fiction	Non - Fiction	Poetry
Traditional Tales	Recount	Poetry of various styles
Myths, Legends and	Labels and Captions	including shape, performance
Fables.	Letter writing	and Found poetry
Play scripts / film narrative	Instructions	Kennings, Haiku,
Mystery, Fantasy	Explanation	Limerick,
Adventure,	Chronological reports	Calligrams,
Historical, Familiar	Non-Chron. reports	Cinquain, Tanka,
settings, Quests,	Persuasion and Debate	Riddles, Rap
_		Narrative poems,
		Monologue
		Poetry Appreciation:
		Listening and opinions

At Etwall Primary School, we aim to create confident writers who are able to appraise their own writing, and the writing of others, and who write for pleasure with articulate and creative narrative voices. We aim to develop mature and competent writers who can voice their thoughts and ideas in a clear and concise manner, and who take real pleasure in doing so.

National Curriculum

6.3 Pupils should develop the stamina and skills to write at length, with accurate spelling and punctuation. They should be taught the correct use of grammar. They should build on what they have been taught to expand the range of their writing and the variety of the grammar they use. The writing they do should include narratives, explanations, descriptions, comparisons, summaries and evaluations: such writing supports them in rehearsing, understanding and consolidating what they have heard or read.

6.4 Pupils' acquisition and command of vocabulary are key to their learning and progress across the whole curriculum. Teachers should therefore develop vocabulary actively, building systematically on pupils' current knowledge. They should increase pupils' store of words in general; simultaneously, they should also make links between known and new vocabulary and discuss the shades of meaning in similar words. In this way, pupils expand the vocabulary choices that are available to them when they write.



Etwall Primary School English Progression Map

Writing to entertain

	YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3	YEAR 4	YEAR 5	YEAR 6
Story/narrative	Joining sentences with 'and' Sequencing sentences to form short narratives Beginning to use capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences using a capital letter for names of people, places, the days of the week, and the personal pronoun 'I'	Subordination (using when, if, that, because) and coordination (using or, and, but) Formation of adjectives using suffixes such as –ful, – less Expanded noun phrases for description and specification Correct choice and consistent use of present tense and past tense throughout writing Use of the progressive form of verbs in the present and past tense to mark actions in progress Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences	Expressing time, place and cause using conjunctions [for example, when, before, after, while, so, because], adverbs [for example, then, next, soon, therefore], or prepositions [for example, before, after, during, in, because of] Introduction to paragraphs as a way to group related material Use of the present perfect form of verbs instead of the simple past Introduction to inverted commas to punctuate direct speech	Fronted adverbials marked with commas [for example, Later that day, I heard the bad news.] Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition Use of inverted commas and other punctuation to indicate direct speech Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and preposition phrases Use commas to mark subordinate clauses. Begin to use relative clauses marked with commas.	Relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that, or an omitted relative pronoun Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph [for example, then, after that, this, firstly Linking ideas across paragraphs using adverbials of time, place and manner and frequency	Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: repetition of a word or phrase, grammatical connections [for example, the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence], and ellipsis Use of the semicolon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses.



Etwall Primary School English Progression Map

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Description	Joining sentences with 'and' Sequencing sentences to form short narratives Beginning to use capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences using a capital letter for names of people, places, the days of the week, and the personal pronoun 'I'	Formation of adjectives using suffixes such as –ful, – less Expanded noun phrases for description and specification Use of the progressive form of verbs in the present and past tense to mark actions in progress Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences	Expressing time, place and cause using conjunctions [for example, when, before, after, while, so, because], adverbs [for example, then, next, soon, therefore], or prepositions [for example, before, after, during, in, because of] Introduction to paragraphs as a way to group related material	Fronted adverbials marked with commas [for example, Later that day, I heard the bad news.] Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and preposition phrases Use commas to mark subordinate clauses. Begin to use relative clauses marked with commas.	Relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that, or an omitted relative pronoun Linking ideas across paragraphs using adverbials of time, place and manner and frequency	Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: repetition of a word or phrase, grammatical connections [for example, the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence], and ellipsis Use of the semicolon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses
Poetry	Beginning to use capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences Joining sentences with 'and'	Formation of adjectives using suffixes such as –ful, – less Expanded noun phrases for description and specification Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences	Expressing time, place and cause using conjunctions [for example, when, before, after, while, so, because], adverbs [for example, then, next, soon, therefore], or prepositions [for example, before, after, during, in, because of]	Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and preposition phrases	Devices to build cohesion for example, then, after that, this, firstly	How hyphens can be used to avoid ambiguity [for example, man eating shark versus man-eating shark, or recover versus re- cover]

Writing to inform

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	YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3	YEAR 4	YEAR 5	YEAR 6
Recount (diary, letter, newspaper, report)	Joining sentences with 'and' Beginning to use capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences using a capital letter for names of people, places, the days of the week, and the personal pronoun 'I'	Subordination (using when, if, that, because) and coordination (using or, and, but) Expanded noun phrases for description and specification Correct choice and consistent use of present tense and past tense throughout writing Use of the progressive form of verbs in the present and past tense to mark actions in progress Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences Use sentences with different forms: statement, question, exclamation, command.	Expressing time, place and cause using conjunctions [for example, when, before, after, while, so, because], adverbs [for example, then, next, soon, therefore], or prepositions [for example, before, after, during, in, because of] Introduction to paragraphs as a way to group related material Headings and sub-headings to aid presentation	Fronted adverbials marked with commas [for example, Later that day, I heard the bad news.] Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition Apostrophes to mark plural possession Use commas to mark subordinate clauses. Begin to use relative clauses marked with commas.	Relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that, or an omitted relative pronoun Indicating degrees of possibility using adverbs [for example, perhaps, surely] or modal verbs [for example, might, should, will, must] Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph [for example, then, after that, this, firstly Linking ideas across paragraphs using adverbials of time, place and manner and frequency Brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis	Use of the passive to affect the presentation of information in a sentence Use structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: repetition of a word or phrase, grammatical connections [for example, the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence] Layout devices [for example, headings, subheadings, columns, bullets, or tables, to structure text] Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses Use of the colon to introduce a list and use of semi-colons within lists Punctuation of bullet points to list information
Biography		Subordination (using when, if, that, because) and coordination (using or, and, but) Expanded noun phrases for description and specification Correct choice and consistent use of present tense and past tense throughout writing Use of the progressive form of verbs in the present and past tense to mark actions in progress	Expressing time, place and cause using conjunctions [for example, when, before, after, while, so, because], adverbs [for example, then, next, soon, therefore], or prepositions [for example, before, after, during, in, because of] Introduction to paragraphs as a way to group related material Headings and sub-headings	Fronted adverbials marked with commas [for example, Later that day, I heard the bad news.] Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition Apostrophes to mark plural possession Use commas to mark	Relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that, or an omitted relative pronoun Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph (for example, then, after that, this, firstly Linking ideas across paragraphs using adverbials of time, place and manner and frequency Brackets, dashes or commas	Use of the passive to affect the presentation of information in a sentence Use structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: repetition of a word or phrase, grammatical connections [for example, the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in
		Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and	to aid presentation	subordinate clauses.	to indicate parenthesis	contrast, or as a consequence]

		exclamation marks to demarcate sentences		Begin to use relative clauses marked with commas.		Layout devices [for example, headings, subheadings, columns, bullets, or tables, to structure text] Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses Use of the colon to introduce a list and use of semi-colons within lists
Instruction/ Explanation/	Joining sentences with 'and' Beginning to use capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences using a capital letter for names of people, places, the days of the week, and the personal pronoun 'I'	Subordination (using when, if, that, because) and coordination (using or, and, but) Expanded noun phrases for description and specification Correct choice and consistent use of present tense and past tense throughout writing Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences Use sentences with different forms: statement, question, exclamation, command.	Expressing time, place and cause using conjunctions [for example, when, before, after, while, so, because], adverbs [for example, then, next, soon, therefore], or prepositions [for example, before, after, during, in, because of] Introduction to paragraphs as a way to group related material Headings and sub-headings to aid presentation	Fronted adverbials marked with commas [for example, Later that day, I heard the bad news.] Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition Use commas to mark subordinate clauses. Begin to use relative clauses marked with commas.	Relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that, or an omitted relative pronoun Indicating degrees of possibility using adverbs [for example, perhaps, surely] or modal verbs [for example, might, should, will, must] Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph [for example, then, after that, this, firstly Linking ideas across paragraphs using adverbials of time, place and manner and frequency Brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis	Use of the passive to affect the presentation of information in a sentence Use structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: repetition of a word or phrase, grammatical connections [for example, the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence] Layout devices [for example, the devices [for example, headings, subheadings, columns, bullets, or tables, to structure text] Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses Use of the colon to introduce a list and use of semi-colons within lists Punctuation of bullet points to list information

Writing to persuade

	YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3	YEAR 4	YEAR 5	YEAR 6
Advertising		Use sentences with different forms: statement, question, exclamation, command. Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences	Use of imperative verbs to convey urgency. Use ? and ! for rhetorical/exclamatory sentences. Introduction to paragraphs as a way to group related material	Use commas to mark subordinate clauses. Begin to use relative clauses marked with commas.	Relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that, or an omitted relative pronoun Indicating degrees of possibility using adverbs [for example, perhaps, surely] or modal verbs [for example, might, should, will, must] Brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis	Use structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing (use of the subjunctive form) Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: repetition of a word or phrase, grammatical connections [for example, the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence] Layout devices [for example, headings, subheadings, columns, bullets, or tables, to structure text] Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses How hyphens can be used to avoid ambiguity Punctuation of bullet points to list information

Persuasive letter/speech			Use of imperative verbs to convey urgency. Use ? and ! for rhetorical/exclamatory sentences. Introduction to paragraphs as a way to group related material	Fronted adverbials marked with commas [for example, Later that day, I heard the bad news.] Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme Begin to use relative clauses marked with commas.	Relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that, or an omitted relative pronoun Indicating degrees of possibility using adverbs [for example, perhaps, surely] or modal verbs [for example, might, should, will, must] Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph [for example, then, after that, this, firstly Linking ideas across paragraphs using adverbials of time, place and manner and frequency Brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis	Use structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing (use of the subjunctive form) Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: repetition of a word or phrase, grammatical connections (for example, the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence) Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses Use of the colon to introduce a list and use of semi-colons within lists How hyphens can be used to avoid ambiguity
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Writing to discuss

	YEAR 1	YEAR 2	YEAR 3	YEAR 4	YEAR 5	YEAR 6
Argument/ discussion text				Fronted adverbials marked with commas [for example, Later that day, I heard the bad news.] Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition Use commas to mark subordinate clauses. Begin to use relative clauses marked with commas.	Relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that, or an omitted relative pronoun Indicating degrees of possibility using adverbs [for example, perhaps, surely] or modal verbs [for example, might, should, will, must] Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph [for example, then, after that, this, firstly Linking ideas across paragraphs using adverbials of time, place and manner and frequency Brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis	Use of the passive to affect the presentation of information in a sentence Use structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: repetition of a word or phrase, grammatical connections (for example, the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence) Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses Use of the colon to introduce a list and use of semi-colons within lists How hyphens can be used to avoid ambiguity

Review			Relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that, or an omitted relative pronoun Indicating degrees of possibility using adverbs [for example, perhaps, surely] or modal verbs [for example, might, should, will, must]	Use of the passive to affect the presentation of information in a sentence Use structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: repetition of a word or phrase, grammatical connections [for example, the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence] Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses

Expectations:

Teachers will ensure that children cover each genre at least once over the course of each year, for example, choosing a genre of writing for the topic which suits it, and is not being covered in an alternative topic area. This means that for each unit of work, children are being exposed to a different (but relevant) genre so that over time, they will see how a style of writing will fit a topic and how to change tone, language and grammar accordingly.

Children will build up to each 'big write' by practicing 'short burst' writing at least three times a week, which will build up to one high quality piece of writing at the end of the unit. For example, if children are studying The Great Fire of London, they will read around the topic, perhaps looking at diary entries, information books and other types of text, mimicking the style (short burst), and finally looking more closely at one particular genre of writing. They will then have collected the information they need and have seen enough examples of the genre, e.g diary entries, so they can confidently write a diary entry of their own. This immersion should ensure that children are provided with the vocabulary, grammar and style of a type of writing, and are therefore more able to adopt the nuances of the genre in their own writing.

Over the course of the two-year cycle, children in year 1 & 2 will have covered:

Non – chronological reports

Newspaper reports

Information text

Other Non-fiction e.g. captions, labels, lists, menus, invitations, postcards, wanted posters and glossaries

Recounts

Explanation texts

Instructions

Poetry - performance/ on a theme/ traditional rhymes / classic poetry / with structure

Stories set in familiar surroundings / with repetitive patterns/structures

Traditional Tales/ stories from other cultures

Over the course of the two- year cycle, children in year 3 & 4 will have covered:

Non-chronological reports

newspaper reports

Information booklet – collection of non-fiction text types

Persuasion – sales pitch / article

Discussion / debate report

Explanation

Recount: biography

Poems on a theme

Poems e.g. Kennings, Cinquain

Classic poetry (including performance poetry)

poems with a structure (e.g. shape, calligrams, rhyme scheme)

Performance poetry (including classic poetry)

Historical narrative

fantasy

Novel as a theme Film and playscripts classic fiction myths

Over the course of the two- year cycle, children in year 5 & 6 will have learnt:

Information texts hybrid

Magazine articles

Information booklet with a range of text types

Persuasion – TV or radio broadcast

Discussion

Explanation

Recount: Biography and autobiography

Reports including formal reports

Persuasion

Discussion: formal debate

Discussion Instructions

Poems: free verse poems with imagery Classic narrative poetry

Poems with figurative language

poems with a structure (e.g. haiku, limericks)

Historical narrative

Science-fiction

Novel as a theme

Film and playscript

Flashbacks/ time shift

Stories from other cultures

Legends

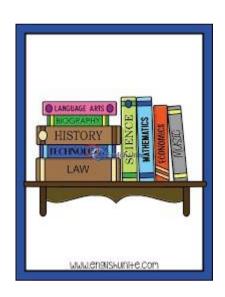
Detective/ crime

Older literature, e.g. Shakespeare

Classic fiction

Novels and stories by significant children's author

Non -Fiction Progression





Non-fiction

Non-fiction texts are wide ranging and occur in many forms in everyday life. The following tables and supporting guidance select the most common forms of non-fiction. Many non-fiction texts in real life blur the boundaries between text types and their features. The most common language features are listed for each text type but variants of all text types occur, especially when they are used in combination. The features listed are often but not always present.

Progression in discussion texts

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

Purpose:

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

with elaborations, evidence and/ or examples.		
Generic text structure	Grammatical features	Planning and preparation
 The most common structure includes: a statement of the issues involved and a preview of the main arguments; arguments for, with supporting evidence/examples; arguments against or alternative views, with supporting evidence/examples. 	 Written in the present tense. This can include other forms such as present perfect e.g. some people have arguedsome people have said Generalises the participants and things it refers to using uncountable noun phrases (some people, most dogs), nouns that 	 Questions often make good titles e.g. Should everyone travel less to conserve global energy? Use the introduction to show why you are debating the issue e.g. There is always a lot of disagreement about x and people's views vary a lot.
Another common structure presents the arguments 'for' and 'against' alternatively.	 categorise (vehicles, pollution) and abstract nouns (power). Heading and subheadings can be used to aid presentation. 	 Make sure you show both/all sides of the argument fairly. Support each viewpoint you present with reasons and evidence.
Discussion texts usually end with a summary and a statement of recommendation or conclusion. The summary may develop one particular	 Paragraphs are useful for organising the discussion into logical sections. 	If you opt to support one particular view in the conclusion, give reasons for your decision.



viewpoint using reasoned judgements based on	
the evidence provided	

- Uses **adverbials** e.g. therefore, however to create **cohesion within and across paragraphs.**
- Writers need to make formal and informal vocabulary choices to suit the form of the writing by making generic statements followed by specific examples e.g. Most vegetarians disagree. Dave Smith, a vegetarian for 20 years, finds that ...
- Layout devices such as diagrams, illustrations, moving images and sound can be used to provide additional information or give evidence
- The passive voice can sometimes be used to present points of view e.g. It could be claimed that...it is possible that...some could claim that...
- Degrees of formality and informality can be adapted to suit the form of the discussion e.g. whether writing a formal letter on an informal blog. This can include vocabulary choices e.g. choosing habitat rather than home...indicates rather than shows
- Because arguments include hypothetical ideas, conditional language, such as the subjunctive form can sometimes be used e.g. If people were to stop hunting whales...
- In discussions, complex ideas need developing over a sentence. Colons and semi-colons can be useful for separating and linking these ideas.

- Don't forget that discussion texts can be combined with other text types depending on your
- Re-read your explanation as if you know nothing at all about the subject. Check that there are no gaps in the information
- Remember that you can adapt explanatory texts or combine them with other text types to make them work effectively for your audience and purpose.



Year group	Grammatical features to include in discussions
1	n/a
2	n/a
3	n/a
4	Consistent use of present tense (Y2)
	Use present perfect form of verbs (Y3)
	Effective use of noun phrases
	Use of paragraphs to organise ideas
	Use adverbials e.g. therefore, however
	Heading and subheadings used to aid presentation (Y3)
5	Create cohesion within paragraphs using adverbials
	Use layout devices to provide additional information and guide the reader
6	Create cohesion across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices which can include adverbials
	Make formal and informal vocabulary choices
	Use the passive voice to present points of view without
	Adapt degrees of formality and informality to suit the form of the discussion
	Use conditional forms such as the subjunctive form to hypothesise
	Make formal and informal vocabulary choices
	Use semi-colons, colons and dashes to make boundaries between clauses

Common forms of discussion text:

Non-fiction book on an 'issues'

Write-up a debate

Leaflet or article giving balanced account of an issue

Writing editorials about historical attitudes to gender, social class, colonialism etc.

Writing letters about pollution, factory farming or smoking

Writing essays giving opinions about literature, music or works of art



Progression in explanatory texts

Explanatory texts generally go beyond simple 'description' in that they include information about causes, motives or reasons. Explanations and reports are sometimes confused when children are asked to 'explain' and they actually provide a report, e.g. what they did (or what happened) but not how and why. Although some children's dictionaries do include an encyclopaedia-like explanation, others are inaccurately categorised as explanation texts when they simply define a word's meaning. Like all text types, explanatory texts vary widely and are often found combined with other text types.

Purpose: To explain how or why, e.g. to explain the processes involved in natural/social phenomena or to explain why something is the way it is.		
Generic text structure	Grammatical features	Planning and preparation
 A general statement to introduce the topic being explained. E.g. In the winter some animals hibernate. The steps or phases in a process are explained logically, in order. E.g. When the nights get longer because the temperature begins to drop so the hedgehog looks for a safe place to hide. 	 Written in present tense e.g. Hedgehogs wake up again in the spring.) Questions can be used to form titles e.g. How do hedgehogs survive the winter? Why does it get dark at night? Question marks are used to denote questions. Use of adverbs e.g. first, then, after that, finally Use of conjunctions e.g. so, because Use prepositions e.g. before, after Cohesion can be created, and repetition avoided through the use of nouns and pronouns e.g. Many mammalsthey feed their young Indicate degrees of possibility using adverbs e.g. perhaps, surely Sometimes modal verbs can be used to express degrees of possibility e.g. might, should, will Fronted adverbials can be used e.g. During the night, nocturnal animals 	 Choose a title that shows what you are explaining, perhaps using why or how. Decide whether you need to include images or other features to help your reader, e.g. diagrams, photographs, a flow chart, a text box, captions, a list or a glossary. Use the first paragraph to introduce what you will be explaining. Plan the steps in your explanation and check that you have included any necessary information about how and why things happen as they do. Add a few interesting details. Interest the reader by talking directly to them Re-read your explanation as if you know nothing at all about the subject. Check that there are no gaps in the information Remember that you can adapt explanatory texts or combine them with other text types to make them work effectively for your audience and purpose.



Relative clauses can be used to add further
information e.g. Hedgehogs, which are
mammals
Degrees of formality and informality can be
adapted to suit the form of the discussion, so
an informal tone can sometimes be
appropriate e.g. You'll be surprised to know
that Have you ever thought about the way
·
that? And a formal, authoritative tone can
also be adopted e.g. oxygen is constantly
replaced in the bloodstream
The passive voice can sometimes be used
e.g. gases are carried
Layout devices such as heading,
subheadings, columns, bullets etc can be
used to present information clearly.
Paragraphs are useful for organising the
explanation into logical sections.
Brackets, dashes and commas can be used
to add extra information inside parenthesis
e.g. oxygen (a gas found in air)

Progression by year group

Year group	Grammatical features to include in explanations
1	n/a
2	Consistent use of present tense
	Questions can be used to form titles
	Question marks are used to denote questions (Y1)
	Use conjunctions e.g. sobecause
3	Express time, place and cause using conjunctions (e.g. so, because), adverbs and prepositions Heading and subheadings used to aid presentation



4	Use fronted adverbials
	Use of paragraphs to organise ideas
	Create cohesion through the use of nouns and pronouns
5	Indicate degrees of possibility using adverbs and modal verbs
	Use layout devices to provide additional information and guide the reader
	Create cohesion within paragraphs using adverbials
	Relative clauses can be used to add further information
	Parenthesis can be used to add clarification of technical words
6	Adapt degrees of formality and informality to suit the form of the explanation
	Create cohesion across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices which can include adverbials
	The passive voice can be used

Common forms of explanatory text:

Explaining electricity, forces, food chains etc. in science

Explaining inventions such as the steam train, the causes of historic events such as wars and revolutions, explaining the role of the Nile in determining the seasons in Ancient Egypt

Explaining phenomena such as the water cycle or how a volcano erupts in geography

Explaining religious traditions and practices in RE

Encyclopaedia entries

Technical manuals

Question and answer articles and leaflets

Science write-ups



Progression in Instruction/procedural texts

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

Purpose:		
To ensure something is done effectively and/or correctly with a successful outcome for the participant/s		
Generic text structure	Grammatical features	Planning and preparation
 Begin by defining the goal or desired outcome. E.g. How to make a board game. List any material or equipment needed, in order. Provide simple, clear instructions. If a process is to be undertaken, keep to the order in which the steps need to be followed to achieve the stated goal. Diagrams or illustrations are often integral and may even take the place of some text. (Diagram B shows you how to connect the wires.) A final evaluative statement can be used to wrap up the process. E.g. Now go and enjoy playing your new game. Your beautiful summer salad is now ready to eat. 	 Use of imperative/command sentences e.g. Cut the card Paint your designsome of these may be negative commands e.g. Do not use any glue at this stage Commas in lists can be used to separate required ingredients/materials Conjunctions, adverbs and prepositions can be used to order and explain the procedure e.g. when this has been donenext addafter doing this Relative clauses can be used to add further information e.g. Collect your jam from the fried, which may be bought or homemade Cohesion can be created, and repetition avoided through the use of nouns and pronouns e.g. Add the egg and then beat it with a whisk. Additional advice can be added through the use of parenthesis e.g. (It's a good idea to leave it overnight if you have time) Conditional adverbials can be used, including as fronted adverbials to make 	 Use the title to show what the instructions are about. E.g. How to look after goldfish. Work out exactly what sequence is needed to achieve the planned goal. Decide on the important points you need to include at each stage. Keep sentences as short and simple as possible. Avoid unnecessary adjectives and adverbs or technical words, especially if your readers are young. Appeal directly to the reader's interest and enthusiasm. E.g. You will really enjoy this game. Why not try out this delicious recipe on your friends? Only one more thing left to do now. Use procedural texts within other text types when you need a set of rules, guidelines or instructions to make something really clear for the reader.



track as they work their way through each

Progression by year group

Year group	Grammatical features to include in instructions
1	Although, the Year 1 curriculum asks pupils to sequence sentences to write short narratives, simple instructions can be written. These
	should use the grammar and punctuation objectives listed in the National Curriculum for Year 1.
2	Use of command sentences
	Commas in lists
3	Express time, place and cause using conjunctions (e.g. so, because), adverbs and prepositions
	Heading and subheadings used to aid presentation
4	Create cohesion through the use of nouns and pronouns
	Use fronted adverbials
5	Parenthesis can be used to add additional advice
	Relative clauses can be used to add further information
	Modals can be used to suggest degrees of possibility
	Use layout devices to provide additional information and guide the reader



6	Adapt degrees of formality and informality to suit the form of the instructions
	Create cohesion across the text using a wide of cohesive devices including layout features

Common forms of instructional text:

How to design and make artefacts

Technical manuals: how to operate computers, phones, devices

How to carry out science experiments or to carry out a mathematical procedure

How to play a game

Writing rules for behaviour

How to cook and prepare food

Timetables and route-finders

Posters, notices and signs

Instructions on packaging



Progression in persuasive texts

Persuasive texts can be written, oral or written to be spoken, e.g. a script for a television advert or presentation. The persuasive intention may be covert and not necessarily recognised by the reader or listener. Texts vary considerably according to context and audience so that persuasion is not always a distinct text-type that stands alone. Elements of persuasive writing are found in many different texts including moving image texts and digital multimedia texts. Some examples may include evidence of bias and opinion being subtly presented as facts.

Purpose:		
To argue a case from a particular point of view and to encourage the reader/listener towards the same way of seeing things. Generic text structure Grammatical features Planning and Preparation		way of seeing things. Planning and Preparation
 An opening statement (thesis) that sums up the viewpoint being presented. (Greentrees Hotel is the best in the world. School uniform is a good idea.) Strategically organised information presents and then elaborates on the desired viewpoint. (Vote for me because I am very experienced. I have been a school councillor three times and I have) A closing statement repeats and reinforces the original thesis. (All the evidence shows that It's quite clear that Having seen all that we offer you, there can be no doubt that we are the best.) 	 Written in the present tense. This can include other forms such as present perfect e.g. people have said Often refers to generic rather than specific participants e.g. Vegetables are good for you. They This means that cohesion is created through the combined use of nouns and pronouns. Uses adverbials e.g. therefore, however to create cohesion within and across paragraphs. Uses logical conjunctions, adverbials and prepositions e.g. This proves that So it's clear Therefore Paragraphs are useful for organising the content into logical sections. Requires the writer to make formal and informal vocabulary choices by moving from generic statements to specific examples when key points are being presented. (The hotel is comfortable. The beds are soft, the chairs are specially made to support your back and all rooms have thick carpet.) 	 Decide on the viewpoint you want to present and carefully select the information that supports it. Organise the main points to be made in the best order and decide which persuasive information you will add to support each. Plan some elaboration/explanation, evidence and example(s) for each key point but avoid ending up with text that sounds like a list. Think about counter arguments your reader might come up with and include evidence to make them seem incorrect or irrelevant. Try to appear reasonable and use facts rathe than emotive comments. Choose strong, positive words and phrases and avoid sounding negative. Use short sentences for emphasis. Re-read the text as if you have no opinion and decide if you would be persuaded. Remember that you can use persuasive writing within other text types.



T	
Sentence types include rhetorical questions	
e.g. Do you want to get left behind in the	
race to be fashionable? Want to be the most	
relaxed person in town? So what do you have	
to do to?	
Modals can be used to suggest degrees of	
possibility e.g. this could beyou	
shouldyou might want to	
Sometimes the second person is useful for	
appealing to the reader e.g. e.g. this is just	
what you've been looking for. This also	
enables adaptation of the Degrees of	
formality and informality so that the text	
appeals to the reader.	
• Adjectives can be used to create persuasive	
noun phrases e.g. delicious chocolateevil	
hunters	
In some formal texts, it may be possible to	
use the passive voice e.g. It can be saidit	
cannot be overstated	
Repetition can be used to strengthen your	
point of view. This also acts as a cohesive	
device.	
Because arguments include hypothetical	
ideas, conditional language, such as the	
subjunctive form can sometimes be used e.g.	
If people were to stop hunting whales	

Progression by year group

Year group	Grammatical features to include in persuasive texts
1	n/a



2	Written in present tense
	Rhetorical questions
	Effective use of noun phrases
3	Express time, place and cause using conjunctions (e.g. so, because), adverbs and prepositions
	Use present perfect form of verbs
4	Create cohesion through the use of nouns and pronouns
	Use adverbials e.g. therefore, however
	Use paragraphs to organise ideas
	Effective use of expanded noun phrases
5	Modals can be used to suggest degrees of possibility
	Create cohesion within paragraphs using adverbials
6	Make formal and informal vocabulary choices
	Adapt degrees of formality and informality to suit the form of the text
	The passive voice can be used in some formal persuasive texts
	Use conditional forms such as the subjunctive form to hypothesise
	Create cohesion across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices which can include adverbials

Common forms of persuasive text:

Writing publicity materials such as tourist brochures based on trips to places of interest; writing editorials to newspapers about controversial issues Writing letters about topics such as traffic on the high street or deforestations

Creating posters and leaflets about issues such as bullying, stranger danger or substance abuse

Creating posters, articles and leaflets promoting healthy living based on science work about teeth and nutrition

Writing book reviews for other pupils

Book blurbs

Political pamphlets

Applying for a job or a position on the school council



Progression in report texts

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

Purpose:

To provide detailed information about the way things are or were. To help readers/listeners understand what is being described by organising or categorising information.

Generic text structure	Grammatical features	Planning and Preparation
In the absence of a temporal (chronological)	Often written in the third person and	Plan how you will organise the information
structure where events happen in a particular	present tense e.g. They like to build their	you want to include, e.g. use paragraph
order, non-chronological reports usually have a	nests It is a cold and dangerous place to	headings, a spidergram or a grid.
logical structure. They tend to group information,	live.	 Gather information from a wide range of
often moving from general to more specific	• Sometimes written in the past tense , as in a	sources and collect it under the headings
detail and examples or elaborations. A common	historical report e.g. Children as young as	you've planned.
structure includes:	seven worked in factories. They were poorly	 Consider using a question in the title to
an opening statement, often a general	fed and clothed and they did dangerous	interest your reader (Vitamins – why are they
classification (Sparrows are birds);	work.	so important?).
 sometimes followed by a more detailed or 	 Questions can be used to form titles e.g. 	 Try to find a new way to approach the
technical classification (Their Latin name	Who were the Victorians? What was it like in	subject and compose an opening that will
is);	a Victorian school?	attract the reader or capture their interest.
a description of whatever is the subject of	 Question marks are used to denote 	Use the opening to make very clear what you
the report organised in some way to help the	questions.	are writing about.
reader make sense of the information. For	• Use of conjunctions e.g. so, because	 Include tables, diagrams or images e.g.
example:	 Use prepositions e.g. before, after 	imported photographs or drawings that add
• its qualities (Like most birds, sparrows have	Cohesion can be created, and repetition	or summarise information.
feathers.);	avoided through the use of nouns and	Find ways of making links with your reader.
 its parts and their functions (The beak is 	pronouns e.g. The Victorians likedthey	You could ask a direct question e.g. Have you
small and strong so that it can);	were particularly fond of	ever heard of a hammerhead shark? or add a



•	its habits/behaviour/ uses (Sparrows nest in
)

- Non-chronological reports are often organised into sections. This makes paragraphing a useful tool.
- **Headings** can be used to organise different sections.
- Layout devices such as heading, subheadings, columns, bullets etc can be used to present information clearly. Consistent use across the text helps create cohesion.
- The passive voice is frequently used to avoid personalisation, to avoid naming the agent of a verb, to add variety to sentences or to maintain an appropriate level of formality for the context and purpose of writing. E.g.
 Sparrows are found in ... Sharks are hunted ... children were taught ...
- Requires the writer to appreciate the difference between vocabulary typical of informal speech and that appropriate for formal speech e.g. the habitat of wood mice rather than where wood mice live.
- Adjectives and specifically comparative adjectives can be used to create description e.g. Polar bears are the biggest carnivores of all. They hibernate, just like other bears. A polar bear's nose is as black as a piece of coal.
- **Brackets, dashes and commas** can be used to add extra information inside **parenthesis.**

- personal touch to the text e.g. So next time you choose a pet, think about getting a dog.
- Re-read the report as if you know nothing about its subject. Check that information is logically organised and clear.
- Use other text-types within your report if they will make it more effective for your purpose and audience.



Progression by year group

Year group	Grammatical features to include in reports
1	Although, the Year 1 curriculum asks pupils to sequence sentences to write short narratives, simple non-chronological reports can be written about topics with which pupils are familiar. These should use the grammar and punctuation objectives listed in the National Curriculum for Year 1.
2	Use present and past tense throughout writing Questions can be used to form titles Question marks are used to denote questions (Y1) Use conjunctions e.g. because to aid explanation Use adjectives including comparative adjectives to create description
3	Express time, place and cause using conjunctions (e.g. so, because), adverbs and prepositions Headings and subheadings used to aid presentation
4	Create cohesion through the use of nouns and pronouns Use of paragraphs to organise ideas
5	Create cohesion within paragraphs using adverbials Parenthesis can be used to add additional information Use layout devices to provide additional information and guide the reader
6	Use vocabulary typical of informal speech and that appropriate for formal speech in the appropriate written forms The passive voice can be used Create cohesion across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices such as organisational features, headings and questions.

Common forms of report text:

Describing aspects of daily life in history (e.g. fashion, transport, buildings)

Describing the characteristics of anything (e.g. particular animals or plants; the planets I the solar system, different rocks and materials; mythological creatures)

Comparing and describing localities or geographical features

Describing the characteristics of religious groups and their lifestyles in RE

Information leaflets

Tourist guidebooks

Encyclopaedia entries

Magazine articles

Progression in	Non-Fiction Texts
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Letters		
Non-fiction books		
Catalogues		
Magazine articles		



Progression in recounts

Recounts are sometimes referred to as 'accounts'. They are the most common text type we encounter as readers and listeners, not least because they are the basic form of many storytelling texts. Stories and anecdotes can have a range of purposes, frequently depending on the genre being used, and they often set out to achieve a deliberate effect on the reader/listener. In non-fiction texts they are used to provide an account of events. Recounts can be combined with other text types, for example, newspaper reports of an event often consist of a recount that includes elements of explanation.

o encourage the reader/listener towards the same Grammatical features		
Grammatical features		
	Planning and Preparation	
 Usually written in the past tense with space for pupils to use the past progressive form of verbs, e.g. the children were playing, I was hoping Opportunities also exist for the use of the past perfect e.g. The children had triedearlier in the day, the owls had hunted and Past perfect progressive forms e.g. the children had been singing we had been hoping to go on this trip for a long time Some forms may use present tense, e.g. informal anecdotal storytelling (Just imagine – I'm in the park and I suddenly see a giant bat flying towards me!) which also enables writing to meet different levels of formality and informality. In these cases it is also possible to extend opportunities to writing using the present progressive e.g. I am really hoping 	 Plan how you will organise the way you retell the events. You could use a timeline to help you plan. Details are important to create a recount rather than a simple list of events in order. Try using When? Where? Who? What? Why? questions to help you plan what to include. Decide how you will finish the recount. You'll need a definite ending, perhaps a summary or a comment on what happened (I think our school trip to the Science Museum was the best we have ever had). Read the text through as if you don't know anything about what it is being recounted. Is it clear what happened and when? Is the style right for the genre you are using? (Technical/formal language to recount a science experiment, powerful verbs and vivid description to recount an adventure, informal, personal language to tell your 	
•	 for pupils to use the past progressive form of verbs, e.g. the children were playing, I was hoping Opportunities also exist for the use of the past perfect e.g. The children had triedearlier in the day, the owls had hunted and Past perfect progressive forms e.g. the children had been singing we had been hoping to go on this trip for a long time Some forms may use present tense, e.g. informal anecdotal storytelling (Just imagine – I'm in the park and I suddenly see a giant bat flying towards me!) which also enables writing to meet different levels of formality and informality. In these cases it is also possible to extend opportunities to writing 	



Conjunctions are useful for coordinating events and showing subordination e.g. we went to the park so we could play on the swings	friends about something funny that happened to you.)
 Events being recounted have a chronological order, so conjunctions, adverbs and prepositions are used e.g. then, next, first, afterwards, just before that, at last, meanwhile. 	
 Noun phrases (some people, most dogs, blue butterfly) can be used to add detail and interest the reader 	
 The subject of a recount tends to focus on individual or group participants, which requires the use of either first or third person e.g. Third person they all shouted, she crept out, it looked like an animal of some kind). 	
 In personal recounts, the first person is used e.g. I was on my way to school We got on the bus 	
 Recounts can take many forms (diaries, letters, newspaper reports) paragraphing can be used to organise all of these. 	
 Uses adverbials e.g. therefore, however to create cohesion within and across paragraphs. 	
Different degrees of formality may be	

personal diary.

required for different forms e.g. high formality if recounting in the style of a broadsheet newspaper or informal in a



 Modals can be used to suggest degrees of possibility e.g. I should never havethey must be allowed Inverted commas can be used to punctuate direct speech e.g. eye-witness reports in
newspapers, retelling a conversation in a diary or letter

Progression by year group

Year group	Grammatical features to include in recounts
1	Although, the Year 1 curriculum asks pupils to sequence sentences to write short narratives, simple recounts and retellings can be written
	about experiences with which pupils are familiar. These should use the grammar and punctuation objectives listed in the National
	Curriculum for Year 1.
2	Use past and present tense throughout writing
	Use progressive forms of verbs
	Use conjunctions for coordination and subordination
	Use of noun phrases
3 Express time, place and cause using conjunctions (e.g. so, because), adverbs and prepositions	
	Inverted commas can be used to punctuate direct speech
4	Use of paragraphs to organise ideas
	Effective use of expanded noun phrases
	Fronted adverbials (e.g. Later that day)
5	Use of the past perfect
	Modals can be used to indicate degrees of possibility
	Create cohesion within paragraphs using adverbials
6	Use of the past perfect progressive form of verbs
	Adapt degrees of formality and informality to suit the form of the text
	Create cohesion across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices which can include adverbials

Common forms of recount texts:

Progression in Non-Fiction Texts



Retelling stories in English lessons and other curriculum areas such as RE

Giving accounts of schoolwork, sporting events, science experiments and trips out

Writing historical accounts

Writing biographies and autobiographies

Letters and postcards

Diaries and journals

Newspaper reports

Magazine articles

Obituaries

Encyclopaedia entries

Narrative Progression





Progression in Narrative

Purpose: The purpose of narrative can be defined simply as to tell a story. However, that does not convey the many purposes of stories and the way that they work at different levels. The purpose of a narrator is to make the listener or reader respond in a particular way. Stories are written or told to entertain and enthrall an audience. Stories can make us sad, horrify us, make us laugh, make us excited. They create imaginative worlds that can help us understand ourselves and the things around us and take us beyond our own experience. From the earliest times, stories have been a part of the way that people have explained their world, passed on their beliefs and memories and entertained one another.

Narrative is central to learning, especially for young children who develop their understanding through making up stories about what has happened and what might happen. Children use narrative to organise their ideas, structure their thinking and, ultimately, their writing. Telling and writing stories is not simply a set of skills for children to learn, but an essential means for them to express themselves in creative and imaginative ways.

Narrative texts in Year 1			
Generic text features	Grammatical features	Planning and preparation	
 Simple narratives and retellings are told/written in first or third person. Simple narratives are told/written in past tense. Events are sequenced to create texts that make sense. The main participants are human or animal. Simple narratives use typical characters, settings and events whether imagined or real. 'Story language' (e.g. once upon a time, later that day etc.) may be used to create purposeful sounding writing. 	 Stories are often written in the third person and past tense e.g. Goldilocks ate the porridge; Goldilocks broke the chair; She fell asleep in Baby Bear's bed. Personal recounts and retellings often use the first person and past tense, e.g. I had tea at my Granny's house on Saturday; We went to the park after school. Sentences are demarcated using full-stops, capital letters and finger spaces. Use of conjunctions e.g. and to join ideas and create variety in the sentence structure. Use of exclamation marks to indicate emotions such as surprise or shock e.g. Help! Oh no! Question marks can be used to form questions, e.g. I said to Mum can I have a biscuit? Who are you? Said the wolf. 	 Listen to stories and narrative texts that use the features required for the writing. Think about the intended audience and the purpose of the story (e.g. to scare, amuse, teach a moral) so that plans are shaped to satisfy the audience and purpose. Make plans and props based on the story or narrative that has been shared. Recognise and use 'story language' e.g. Once upon a time, later that day, happily ever after etc. Tell and retell stories orally using props and plans for assistance (e.g. story maps, puppets, pictures) and through drama activities. Think, say and write sentences to tell the story or narrative in their own words. 	

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Use of the personal pronoun 'I' to retell	Reread the completed narrative aloud, for
personal narratives, e.g. I went to the park	example, to a partner, small group or the
yesterday.	teacher.

Narrative texts in Year 2		
Generic text features	Grammatical features	Planning and preparation
 Narratives and retellings are told/ written in first or third person Narratives and retellings are told/ written in past tense Events are sequenced to create texts that make sense. The main participants are human or animal. They are simply developed as either good or bad characters. Simple narratives use typical characters, settings and events whether imagined or real. Language choices help create realistic-sounding narratives. e.g. adverbs, adjectives, precise nouns (turquoise instead of blue, jumper instead of top, policeman instead of man) etc. 	 Stories are often written in the third person and past tense e.g. Goldilocks ate the porridge; Goldilocks broke the chair; She fell asleep in Baby Bear's bed. The past progressive form of verbs can be used, e.g. the Billy Goats Gruff were eating, Rapunzel was hoping someone would come and rescue her Apostrophes can be used for possession, e.g. Granny's house, baby bear's bed. Apostrophes to show contraction can be used, e.g. Goldilocks couldn't believe her eyes. Personal retellings often use the first person and past tense, e.g. I had tea at my Granny's house on Saturday; We went to the park after school. Sentences are demarcated using full-stops, capital letters and finger spaces. 	 Listen to stories and narrative texts that use the features required for the writing. Think about the intended audience and the purpose of the story (e.g. to scare, amuse, teach a moral) so that plans are shaped to satisfy the audience and purpose. Make plans and props based on the story or narrative that has been shared. Recognise and use 'story language' e.g. Once upon a time, later that day, happily ever after etc. Make use of ideas from reading, e.g. using repetition to create an effect. Tell and retell stories orally using props and plans for assistance (e.g. story maps, puppets, pictures) and through drama activities. Think, say and write sentences to tell the story or narrative in their own words. Write narratives using their plans.

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Progression in Narrative Texts



- Use of **conjunctions** e.g. and. so. because. when, if, that, or, but ... to join ideas and enable subordination of ideas.
- Use of **exclamation marks** to indicate emotions such as surprise or shock e.g. Help! Oh no! and to form exclamative sentences. e.g. How amazing was that!, What an incredible sight!
- Question marks can be used to form questions, including rhetorical questions used to engage the reader.
- Adjectives including comparative adjectives are used to aid description and make comparisons, e.g. the troll was big but the eldest Billy Goat Gruff was bigger.
- **Noun phrases** can be used to create effective descriptions, e.g. the deep, dark woods.
- Commas can be used to separate lists of characters, ideas and adjectives in expanded noun phrases.
- Verbs should be chosen for effect e.g. walked instead of went, grabbed instead of got etc.

- Edit, proofread and amend their writing based on their own thoughts and those of their peers and teachers.
- Reread completed narratives aloud, for example, to a partner, small group or the teacher.

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Narrative texts in Year 3		
Generic text features	Grammatical features	Planning and preparation
 Narratives and retellings are written in first or third person. Narratives and retellings are written in past tense, occasionally these are told in the present tense. Events are sequenced to create chronological plots through the use of adverbials and prepositions. Descriptions, including those of settings, are developed through the use of adverbials, e.g. in the deep dark woods Narratives use typical characters, settings and events whether imagined or real. Dialogue begins to be used to convey characters' thoughts and to move the narrative forward. Language choices help create realisticsounding narratives. e.g. adverbs, adjectives, precise nouns (turquoise instead of blue, jumper instead of top, policeman instead of man), expressive verbs (e.g. shouted/muttered instead of said etc.) 	 Paragraphs are useful for organising the narrative into logical sections, e.g. paragraphs about the setting or characters, or paragraphs used to denote the passage of time. Adverbs e.g. first, then, after that, finally are useful for denoting shifts in time and for structuring the narrative. The use of conjunctions e.g. when, before, after, while, so, becauseenables causation to be included in the narrative. Using prepositions e.g. before, after, during, after, before, in, because of enables the passage of time to be shown in the narrative and the narrative to be moved on. Present perfect form of verbs can be used within dialogue or a character's thoughts, e.g. What has happened to us? What have you done? They have forgotten me Headings and subheadings can be used to indicate sections in the narrative, e.g. Chapter 1; How it all began; the story comes to a close etc. Inverted commas can be used to punctuate direct speech this allows characters to interact and the story to be developed. Noun phrases can be used to create effective descriptions, e.g. the deep, dark woods. 	 Read stories and narrative texts that use the features required for the writing. Think about the intended audience and the purpose of the story (e.g. to scare, amuse, teach a moral) so that plans are shaped to satisfy the audience and purpose. Make plans that include a limited number of characters and describe a few key details that show something about their personalities. Compose and rehearse sentences or parts of stories orally to check for sense. Recognise and use narrative language e.g. On a cold Winter's day, Dear Diary, And after all that etc. Make use of ideas from reading, e.g. using repetition to create an effect. Try to show rather than tell, for example, show how a character feels by what they say or do. Write narratives using their plans. Reread completed narratives aloud, e.g. to a partner, small group. Edit, proofread and amend their writing based on their own thoughts and those of their peers and teachers.

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•	Verbs and adverbs should be chosen for effect e.g. shouted/muttered instead of said; angrily/quietly etc. to show rather than tell how characters feel and behave. Cohesion can be created, and repetition avoided through the use of nouns and pronouns e.g. Sammy and John they the boys	
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Narrative texts in Year 4		
Generic text features	Grammatical features	Planning and preparation
 Narratives and retellings are written in the first or third person. Narratives and retellings are written in the past tense, occasionally these are told in the present tense. Events are sequenced to create chronology through the use of adverbials and prepositions Descriptions, including those of settings, are developed through the use of adverbials, e.g. in the deep dark woods Narratives use typical characters, settings and events whether imagined or real. Dialogue is used to convey characters' thoughts and to move the narrative forward. Language choices help create realisticsounding narratives. e.g. adverbs, adjectives, 	 The third person and past tense are used. This can include the past progressive (e.g. the Billy Goats Gruff were eating), Present perfect (e.g. What have you done?). Standard English forms of verb inflections are used instead of local spoken forms, e.g. 'we were' instead of 'we was', 'we did that' rather than 'we done that'. Fronted adverbials can be used e.g. During the night, in a distant field These should be punctuated using a comma. The use of adverbials e.g. therefore, however cerates cohesion within and across paragraphs. Cohesion can also be created, and repetition avoided through the use of nouns and 	 Read narrative texts that use the features required for the writing. Think about the intended audience and the purpose of the story (e.g. to scare, amuse, teach a moral) so that plans are shaped to satisfy the audience and purpose. Make plans that include key events, being sure that all the events lead towards the ending. Plan a limited number of characters and describe a few key details that show something about their personalities. Make use of ideas from reading, e.g. using adverbial phrases to describe settings and characters or rhetorical questions to engage the reader.

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precise nouns, expressive verbs and figurative language etc.	 pronouns e.g. Sammy and John they the boys Paragraphs are useful for organising the narrative into logical sections. Verbs and adverbs should be chosen for effect e.g. shouted/muttered instead of said; angrily/quietly etc. to show rather than tell how characters feel and behave. The use of conjunctions e.g. when, before, after, while, so, becauseenables causation to be included in the narrative. Descriptions can be developed through the effective use of expanded noun phrases e.g. the big blue bird (expanded with adjectives); oak tree (tree modified with a noun); the teacher with the curly hair (noun modified with preposition). The full range of speech punctuation can be used to indicate dialogue this allows characters to interact and the story to be developed. Apostrophes can be used to indicate plural possession e.g. The girls' names, the children's mother, the aliens' spaceship. 	 Recognise and use narrative language e.g. On a cold Winter's day, Dear Diary, And after all that etc. Try to show rather than tell, for example, show how a character feels by what they say or do. Write narratives using their plans. Edit, proofread and amend their writing based on their own thoughts and those of their peers and teachers. Reread completed narratives aloud, e.g. to a partner, small group.
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Narrative texts in Year 5		
Generic text features	Grammatical features	Planning and preparation
 Narratives and retellings are written in first or third person. Narratives and retellings are written in past tense, occasionally these are told in the present tense. Narratives are told sequentially and nonsequentially (e.g. flashbacks) through the use adverbials and prepositions. Descriptions of characters, setting, and atmosphere are developed through precise vocabulary choices e.g. adverbs, adjectives, precise nouns, expressive verbs and figurative language Dialogue is used to convey characters' thoughts and to move the narrative forward. 	 The third person and past tense are used. This can include the past progressive (e.g. the Billy Goats Gruff were eating), Present perfect (e.g. What have you done?). Opportunities also exist for the use of the past perfect e.g. The children had triedearlier in the day, the goblins had hidden and Past perfect progressive forms e.g. the children had been searching they had been hoping to find the treasure since they started on the quest Adverbials can be used e.g. therefore, however to create cohesion within and across paragraphs. These adverbials can take the form of time (later), place (nearby), and numbers (secondly). Modals can be used to suggest degrees of possibility, e.g. They should never haveIf they were careful, the children might be able to Adverbs of possibility can be used to suggest possibility, e.g. They were probably going to be stuck there all night, they were definitely on the adventure of a lifetime Parenthesis can be used to add additional information through the use of brackets, dashes or commas e.g. using brackets for stage instructions in a playscript. 	 Read narrative texts that use the features required for the writing. Think about the intended audience and the purpose of the story (e.g. to scare, amuse, teach a moral) so that plans are shaped to satisfy the audience and purpose. Make plans that include key events, being sure that all the events lead towards the ending. Plan a limited number of characters and describe a few key details that show something about their personalities. Make use of ideas from reading, e.g. using adverbial phrases to describe settings and characters or rhetorical questions to engage the reader. Recognise and use narrative language e.g. On a cold Winter's day, Dear Diary, And after all that etc. Try to show rather than tell, for example, show how a character feels by what they say or do. Write narratives using their plans. Show how the main character has developed as a result of the narrative. Edit, proofread and amend their writing based on their own thoughts and those of their peers and teachers.

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 Layout devices can be used to provide additional information and guide the reader, e.g. Chapter 1, How it all began, The story comes to a close Relative clauses can be used to add further information, e.g. the witch, who was ugly and green,The treasure, which had been buried in a chest this should include the us of commas when required. 	
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Narrative texts in Year 6 Generic text features	Grammatical features	Planning and preparation
 Narratives and retellings are written in first or third person. Narratives and retellings are written in past tense, occasionally these are told in the present tense. Narratives are told sequentially and non-sequentially (e.g. flashbacks) through the use adverbials and prepositions. Descriptions of characters, setting, and atmosphere are developed through precise vocabulary choices e.g. adverbs, adjectives, precise nouns, expressive verbs and figurative language. Dialogue is used to convey characters' thoughts and to move the narrative forward. 	 By writing for a specified audience and with a particular purpose in mind, the writer can choose between vocabulary typical of informal speech and that appropriate for formal speech e.g. the battalion traversed the mountain range; the soldiers walked over the mountains. The passive voice can be used e.g. it was possible that, the map was given to the children by, more ingredients were added to the potion etc. Writers may use conditional forms such as the subjunctive form to hypothesise, e.g. If the children were to get out of this situation, if only there were a way to solve 	 Read narrative texts that use the features required for the writing. Think about the intended audience and the purpose of the story (e.g. to scare, amuse, teach a moral) so that plans are shaped to satisfy the audience and purpose. Make plans that include key events, being sure that all the events lead towards the ending. Plan a limited number of characters and describe a few key details that show something about their personalities. Make use of ideas from reading, e.g. using short and long sentences for different effects.

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this problem,	I wished I were somewhere
elseetc.	

- Past perfect progressive forms can be used to indicate specific points in time e.g. the children <u>had been searching</u>... I <u>had been</u> dreaming of riding a unicorn all my life...
- Create cohesion across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices such as organisational features, pronouns, nouns and adverbials. Or by choosing to use repetition or ellipses for effect.
- Colons, semi-colons and dashes can be used to separate and link ideas.

- Try to show rather than tell, for example, show how a character feels by what they say or do.
- Use all the senses when imagining and then describing the setting, for example, include the weather, season, time of day.
- Write narratives using their plans.
- Show how the main character has developed as a result of the narrative.
- Edit, proofread and amend their writing based on their own thoughts and those of their peers and teachers.
- Read their completed narratives to other children.

Common forms of narrative text:

Stories that use predictable and patterned language

Traditional and/or folk tales

Fairy tales

Stories set in familiar settings

Retellings of stories heard and read

Retelling simple stories in different ways (extending the narrative; using technology; rewriting narrative poems as prose, turning prose into a script or vice versa etc.)

Modifying well-known stories (changing a character; amending the ending; changing the setting etc.)

Stories set in historical contexts

Myths and legends

Stories with flashbacks

Stories set in fantasy words

Stories from different cultures

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Progression in Narrative Texts



Science fiction stories

Adventure stories

Mystery stories

Scary stories

Narratives retold from another perspective (e.g. form the point of view of a different character)

Stories with morals or fables

Stories with dilemmas

Stories told as playscripts

Telling a story from a first-person narrative (e.g. diaries and letters)

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