



Working at the expected standard in Y5

The pupil can:

write effectively for a range of purposes and audiences

Purpose refers to the reason for the writing, e.g. to persuade the reader, to entertain them, to share information, to warn, to advise, to explain.

- **entertain** – to make the reader enjoy reading
- **persuade** – to change a reader's opinion
- **advise** – to help people decide what to do
- **analyse** – to break down something to help people to understand it better
- **argue** – to make the case for something
- **describe** – to give details about a person, place, event or thing
- **explain** – to make clear why or how something works
- **inform** – to tell a reader about something
- **instruct** – to tell a reader how to do something

Audience refers to the reader(s), e.g. could be an individual, in the case of a text message, or a broader group of people in the case of a magazine article or blog.

Writing for an audience **adds purpose and meaning** to the writing task. Ensure that you broaden the children's understanding of what an audience can be.

Audience types:

Friendly: Your purpose: reinforcing their beliefs.

Apathetic: Your purpose is to first to convince them that it matters for them.

Uninformed: Your requirement is to educate before you can begin to propose a course of action.

Hostile: Your purpose is to respect them and their viewpoint.

Consider the language choices:

- **The tone** – is it chatty or formal?
- **The words** – does it use specialist vocabulary, or easy words, or polysyllabic vocabulary?
- Does it use **Standard English** or **dialect**?

in non-narrative writing, use simple devices to structure the writing and support the reader (e.g. headings, sub-headings, bullet points)

Headings and subheadings organise content to guide readers. A **heading** or **subheading** appears at the beginning of a page or section and briefly describes the content that follows. They represent the key concepts and supporting ideas in non-fiction texts. They visually convey levels of importance. Differences in text format guide readers to distinguish the main points from the rest.

Bullet points are used to draw attention to information within a document so that a reader can identify the key issues and facts quickly.

1. The text introducing the list of bullet points should end with a **colon**.

2. If the text that follows the bullet point is not a proper sentence, it doesn't need to begin with a capital letter, nor end with a full stop.

Tonight's supper includes:

- pizza and salad
- sausage and chips

3. If the text following the bullet point is a complete sentence, it should begin with a capital letter, while a full stop at the end is preferable:

The plan for today is as follows:

- We will meet the visitor in the hall.
- Lunch will be at the usual time.

4. Lists of bullet points will have more impact if each one begins with the same word class (part of speech) and if they are all of a similar length.

On the school trip you will be:

- walking sensibly
- listening carefully
- sitting properly

begin to use a range of devices to build cohesion (e.g. **conjunctions**, adverbials of time and place, pronouns, synonyms) **across paragraphs**

Creating cohesion means 'tying' words, phrases, sentences and paragraphs together, to **create** a text where the relationships between these elements is clear and logical to the reader, giving the text 'flow'

The aim of the teaching in Yr3 and Yr4 is to help children get to a point in **Year 5 and 6** where they can produce writing that shows a **range of devices** to aid cohesion.

co-ordinating conjunctions:

- for and nor but or yet so

across paragraphs:

- **But** instead of gently weaning the children away from overuse, they banned the usage altogether! Generations of children... for and)

subordinating conjunctions:

- **Time** – while, when, after, before, until, once, since
- **Cause** – because, since, as, that, so, why, whether, as if, even, although, even if, even though, if, in order to, provided that, rather than, so that, than, whereas, whether, unless,
- **Place** – where, wherever

across paragraphs:

- **Even though** the trail was long, she did eventually reach the top. This was achieved through

NB: **however**, is an adverbial conjunct (also called a connective or conjunctive adverb), not a conjunction

begin to use a range of devices to build cohesion (e.g. conjunctions, **adverbials of time and place**, pronouns, synonyms) **across paragraphs**

The **difference between an adverb** and an **adverbial**:

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other **adverbs**.

Adverbials act like **adverbs** to modify a verb or a clause.

Adverbials can consist of a single word (angrily, here) or an entire phrase (at home, in a few hours) and often say how, where, when or how often something happens or is done.

Adverbial clauses answer questions:

About **time**:

After the rabbit arrived, he ate carrots. **When** did he eat carrots?

In the beginning, the book was a bit slow. **When** was the book slow?

About **place**:

Wherever they have carrots, you will find the rabbit. **Where** is the rabbit?

Where the river forks, there is a swan's nest. **Where** is the swan's nest?

begin to use a range of devices to build cohesion (e.g. conjunctions, adverbials of time and place, **pronouns**, synonyms) **across paragraphs**

Personal Pronouns:

These take the place of common and proper nouns.

First person: The person or people speaking or writing

- Singular: *I, me*
- Plural: *we, us*

Second person: The person or people being spoken or written to

- Singular: *you* (*learn the story, of you*)
- Plural: *you*

Third person: The person, people or things being spoken or written about

- Singular: *she, her, he, him, it*
- Plural: *they, them*

Relative Pronouns:

These relate the subordinate adjective clauses to the rest of the sentence.

- *that, which, who, whom, whose, whichever, whoever, whomever*

Demonstrative Pronouns:

These represent a thing or things.

Refers to things that are **nearby**:

- Singular: *this*
- Plural: *these*

Refers to things that are **far away**:

- Singular: *that*
- Plural: *those*

Indefinite Pronouns:

These refer to something that is unspecified.

- Singular: *anybody, anyone, anything, each, either, everybody, everyone, everything, neither, nobody, no one, nothing, one, somebody, someone, something*
- Plural: *both, few, many, several*
- Singular and Plural: *all, any, most, none, some*

Reflexive Pronouns:

These end in -self or -selves.

First person: The person or people speaking or writing

- Singular: *myself*
- Plural: *ourselves*

Second person: The person or people being spoken or written to

- Singular: *yourself*
- Plural: *yourselves*

Third person: The person, people or things being spoken or written about

- Singular: *himself, herself, itself*
- Plural: *themselves*

Interrogative Pronouns:

These are used to ask questions.

- *What, who, which, whom, whose*

Possessive Pronouns:

These are used to show ownership

Used before nouns: These actually function as adjectives.

- Singular: *my, your, his, her, its*
- Plural: *our, your, their*

Used alone: The person or people being spoken or written to

- Singular: *mine, yours, his, hers*
- Plural: *ours, yours, theirs*

Subject and object Pronouns:

These are used as either the subject or the object in a sentence

Subjects tell us what the sentence is about.

- Singular: *I, you, she, he, it*
- Plural: *we, you, they*

Objects: direct objects, indirect objects, objects of prepositions.

- Singular: *me, you, her, him, it*

Plural: *us, you, them*

begin to use a range of devices to build cohesion (e.g. conjunctions, adverbials of time and place, pronouns, synonyms) across paragraphs

Synonyms are words that are similar, or have a related meaning, to another word. They help with cohesion if you want to avoid repeating the same word over and over as this can affect the flow of a piece of writing.

- **Kicking** a ball across the playground is not nice. It travels at great speed and you should play with care.
- **Booting** a ball can seriously hurt someone. Facts have shown that many children are injured...

Substitution

Substitution means using one or more words to replace (substitute) for one or more words used earlier in the text. Grammatically, it is similar to reference words. The most common words used for substitution are *one, so,* and auxiliary verbs such as *do, have* and *be*. The following is an example.

- **Kicking a ball across the playground** is not nice. It travels at great speed and you should not boot it without care.
- **Kicking a ball across the playground** can seriously hurt someone. Facts have shown that many children are injured...

Kicking a ball across the playground is not nice. It travels at great speed and you should not boot it without care.

Doing so can seriously hurt someone. Facts have shown that many children are injured...

use adverbs to add detail, qualification and precision

Adverbs of possibility

The most common adverbials of **probability** are:

definitely, certainly, clearly, obviously, possibly, perhaps, probably, maybe

- *I am **possibly** going swimming next week.*
- *He is **certainly** good at football.*

Perhaps and maybe are usually placed at the beginning of the clause:

- ***Perhaps** it will stop raining soon.*
- ***Maybe** I will go out on Wednesday.*

use modal verbs to add detail, qualification and precision

Modal auxiliary verbs

Examples: can, could, may, might, must, ought to, shall, should, will, would

Modal verbs cannot change form, for example you cannot add “-ed”, “-ing” or “s” to the end. However, you can add the word “not” to indicate the negative. If there are two auxiliary verbs in the verb phrase, you add the word “not” to the modal auxiliary, e.g., She should not be driving. (NOT: She should be not driving.)

The modal auxiliary verbs are used when describing:

- possibility** – could, can, may, might, would, will
- obligation/necessity** – should, shall, must, ought to
- questioning** (offers, invitation, permission and requests)
- certainty** – will
- ability** – can, could

use preposition phrases to add detail, qualification and precision

NB: Build on Yr3 and Yr4 - use prepositions to express place and time (see above in working towards Yr5)

The difference between prepositions and adverbs:

Adverbs of time and place can be the same as prepositions. So how do you know whether they are acting as a preposition or an adverb?

If the word following the word denoting time or place is preceded by a noun phrase, then it is acting as a preposition.

The ball is **in the garden**. The **preposition** is “**in**” and it is followed by a **noun phrase** “**the garden**”.
We are going **outside**. The word “**outside**” is acting as an **adverb**, as it is not followed by a noun phrase.

Qualification and precision: Qualifiers and intensifiers are words or phrases that are added to another word to **modify its meaning**.

A qualifier is a word or phrase that changed how absolute, certain or generalized a statement is.

Prepositional phrases can be used **after nouns** as **qualifiers** to give information about **place**.

Example:

The **muscles below** Peter's knees were beginning to ache a little.

The **chestnut trees in** the back garden were a blazing orange.

They stood and watched the **boats on** the river.

...the **clock in** her bedroom.

...the little white **fence round** the rockery.

...the black shapeless **masses to the left and right** of the road.

use expanded noun phrases to add **detail, qualification and precision**, e.g. with one or more adjectives, with a *modifying adjective, modifying noun* or with a *preposition phrase*

NB: In Yr4 Children were taught to describe settings and characters

using **expanded noun phrases** by the **addition of modifying adjectives, modifying nouns** and **modifying prepositional phrases** to develop descriptions of settings and characters:

ADJECTIVES:

- **modifying adjectives:** what it looks like (the **white** horse), how many there are (the **three** boys) or which one it is (the **last** house).

NOUNS:

use **expanded noun phrases** by the **addition of modifying nouns** to develop descriptions of settings and characters

modifying nouns: We often use **two nouns** together to show that **one thing is a part of something else**: *the **village church**, the **car door***

- **NB:** We do not use a **possessive form** for these things. We do NOT talk about: *car's doors*
- We can use noun modifiers to show **what something is made of**: *a **gold watch***
- We often use noun modifiers **with nouns ending in – ‘er’**: *an **office worker***
- We use **measurements, age or value** as noun modifiers: *a **thirty-kilogram suitcase**, a **two-minute rest**, a **fifty-kilometre journey***
- We often use **nouns ending in -ing** as noun modifiers: *a **shopping list***
- We often put two nouns together and **readers/listeners have to work out** what they mean: *an **ice bucket** (= a bucket to keep ice in)*
- Sometimes we find **more than two nouns** together: *London **office workers***
- Noun modifiers come **after adjectives**: *the **old newspaper seller***

PREPOSITION:

modifying preposition phrases:

- There are two kinds of prepositional phrases: **adjective phrases** and **adverb phrases**.
- An **adjective phrase** modifies a **noun** or **pronoun**.

- Common **prepositional phrase examples** include: **about, after, at, before, behind, by, during, for, from, in, of, over, past, to, under, up, and with.**
- The **book with the tattered cover** has been read many times, The **present inside the big box** is mine, All **rooms below deck** are for sleeping.

Build on Yr4 expanded noun phrases as outlined above but now focus on **qualification** and **precision**.

Qualification: Qualifiers and intensifiers are words or phrases that are added to another word to modify its meaning by:

- Limiting it (He was **somewhat** busy)
- Enhancing it (The dog was **very** cute).

A qualifier is a **word** or phrase that changed how absolute, certain or generalized a statement is.

Qualifiers include:

- Qualifiers of **quantity:** some, most, all, none, etc.
- Qualifiers of **time:** occasionally, sometimes, now and again, usually, always, never, etc.

Example:

Expanded noun phrase with a modifying noun + a qualifier of quantity

The **somewhat** old newspaper seller

Expanded noun phrase with a modifying prepositional + a qualifier of time

the **old** newspaper seller

The **book with** the tattered cover has been read **many** times,

use relative clauses, sometimes omitting the relative pronoun

Defining relative clauses:

Defining relative clauses give essential information to define or identify the person or thing we are talking about.

E.g. Dogs **that like cats** are very unusual.

In this sentence we understand that there are many dogs in the world, but we are only talking about the ones that like cats. The defining relative clause gives us that information. If the defining relative clause were removed from the sentence, the sentence would still be grammatically correct, but its meaning would have changed significantly.

Defining relative clauses are composed of a relative pronoun (sometimes omitted), a verb, and optional other elements such as the subject or object of the verb.

Commas **are not used** to separate defining relative clauses from the rest of the sentence. Commas or parentheses are used to separate non-defining relative clauses from the rest of the sentence.

Examples

- Children **who hate chocolate** are uncommon.
- They live in a house **whose roof is full of holes.**
- An elephant is an animal **that lives in hot countries.**
- Let's go to a country **where the sun always shines.**
- The reason **why I came here today** is not important.

Including or omitting the relative pronoun

The relative pronoun can only be omitted when it is the **object** of the clause. When the relative pronoun is the **subject** of the clause, it cannot be omitted. You can usually tell when a relative pronoun is the object of the clause because it is followed by another subject + verb. See below, in the first sentence the relative pronoun cannot be omitted because it is the subject of the relative clause ("the woman spoke"). In the second sentence, the pronoun can be omitted because "the woman" is the object of the verb "loved".

Noun, subject of the main clause	Relative pronoun	Verb + rest of relative clause	Verb + rest of main clause
The woman	that	spoke at the meeting	was very knowledgeable.
The woman	(that)	the man loved	was living in New York.

use a wide range of clause structures, sometimes varying their position within the sentence

Type of sentence structure	Parts		
	Independent Clause	Dependent Clause	Uses Conjunctions
Simple A simple sentence has only one subject and one predicate—one independent clause. In fact, an independent clause itself is a simple sentence.	One <i>She jumped.</i> <i>He ate dinner.</i> <i>The cat and dog ran.</i>	None	Sometimes <i>She jumped.</i> <i>He ate dinner.</i> <i>The cat and dog ran.</i>
Compound A compound sentence has at least two independent clauses. It uses a conjunction like "and" to connect the ideas.	Two or more <i>The dog ate a bone, but the cat drank milk.</i> <i>The dog ate a bone, but the cat drank milk, and the guinea pig ate hay.</i>	None	Always <i>The dog ate a bone, but the cat drank milk.</i> <i>The dog ate a bone, but the cat drank milk, and the guinea pig ate hay.</i>
Complex A complex sentence has one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. It sometimes uses conjunctions and other words to combine all of the clauses together.	One or more <i>When he was in the shop, the man bought biscuits.</i> <i>When he was in the shop, the man bought biscuits, but not sweets.</i>	One or more <i>When he was in the shop, the man bought biscuits.</i> <i>When he was in the shop, the man bought biscuits, but not sweets.</i>	Usually <i>When he was in the shop, the man bought biscuits.</i> <i>When he was in the shop, the man bought biscuits, but not sweets.</i>
Compound + Complex A compound-complex sentence has two or more independent clauses and at least one dependent clause—so, it uses conjunction(s) to combine two complete sentences and at least one incomplete sentence.	Two or more <i>The girl heard shouting, which came from her home, so, she ran all the way there.</i>	One or more <i>The girl heard shouting, which came from her home, so, she ran all the way there.</i>	Always <i>The girl heard shouting, which came from her home, so, she ran all the way there.</i>

Types of Clauses:

A **clause** is a group of related words and has a subject and verb. An **independent clause**, along with having a subject and verb, expresses a complete thought and can stand alone as a coherent sentence. In contrast, a **subordinate** or **dependent clause** does not express a complete thought and therefore is *not* a sentence. A subordinate clause standing alone is a common error known as a sentence fragment.

Independent clauses

- Grammatically complete statements like these are sentences and can stand alone. *He saw her.*
- When they are part of longer sentences, they are referred to as **independent** (or **main**) **clauses**.
- Two or more independent clauses can be joined by using **coordinating conjunctions** e.g. *Fernando left, and Erica brushed her long, black hair.*
- ...or by using **semicolons**. E.g. *Fernando left; Erica brushed her long, black hair*

Subordinate clauses

A **subordinate clause** has a subject and verb but, unlike an independent clause, cannot stand by itself. It *depends* on something else in the sentence to express a complete thought, which is why it's also called a **dependent clause**. Some subordinate clauses are introduced by relative pronouns (*who, whom, that, which, what, whose*) and some by subordinating conjunctions (*although, because, if, unless, when, etc.*). Subordinate clauses function in sentences as adjectives, nouns, and adverbs.

Relative clauses

A **relative clause** begins with a **relative pronoun** (*which, that, whose, whoever, whomever, who, and whom*) (sometimes, *what, when, and where*) and functions as an adjective.

- The match, *which several families attended*, received widespread media coverage.
- Arthur, *who comes to the games every week*, offered to be scorekeeper.
- Arthur, *whom the team mothers adored*, was asked to be scorekeeper.

Noun clauses

A **noun clause** functions as a noun in a sentence.

- *What I want for dinner* is a hamburger. (subject of the verb *is*)
- The host told us *how he escaped*. (direct object of the verb *told*)
- A vacation is *what I need most*. (complement of the linking verb *is*)
- Give it to *whoever arrives first*. (object of the preposition *to*)

Adverbial clauses

- Adverbial Clause of Time, Place, Manner, Reason, Condition, Concession, Purpose, Comparison.
- An adverb clause is a group of words that function as an adverb in a sentence.
- Adverb clauses add information that elaborates on when, where, why, how, how much or under what condition the action in the sentence takes place.
- A clause must contain a subject and a verb to be complete.
- An adverb clause also begins with a subordinating conjunction, such as "after," "if," "because" and "although."
- A group of words in a sentence that acts like an adverb but does not have both a subject and a verb, is not an adverb phrase.

As soon as I saw you, I knew something was wrong. (*Beginning*)

My sister, *when she is angry*, will turn red in the face. (*middle*)

The fireworks show will start *after the sun goes down*. (*end*)

use verb tenses mostly consistently and correctly throughout their writing

Present perfect verbs:

We use present perfect for a past action whose time is not mentioned and has a relation to the present. We are not interested in its time but the action itself.

Present perfect:

has/have + past participle

- You **have seen** that movie many times.
- I **have visited** my grandfather.
- They **have eaten** delicious food.
- People **have travelled** to the Moon.

Past perfect:

The past perfect tense is formed with the past tense of the verb to have (had) and the past participle of the verb (e.g. eaten, stolen, taken). The past perfect tense describes an event that happened in the past before another event was completed in the past

Past perfect verbs:

had + past participle.

- I **had walked** for miles before I found my way.
- They **had read** almost all the books on the shelf.
- We **had found** ourselves in the middle of nowhere.

use the full range of punctuation taught in KS1 and so far in KS2 mostly correctly (full stops, capital letters, question marks, exclamation marks, commas in lists, commas after fronted adverbials, apostrophes for contraction and possession, inverted commas and other speech punctuation)

Yr3

- Introduction to inverted commas to punctuate direct speech

Yr4

- Use of inverted commas and other **punctuation** to indicate direct speech [for example, a comma after the reporting clause; end punctuation within inverted commas: *The conductor shouted, "Sit down!"*]
- Apostrophes to mark plural possession [for example, the girl's name, the girls' names]
- Use of commas after fronted adverbials

Yr5 Use commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity in writing

- Use hyphens to avoid ambiguity
- Use brackets, dashes or commas indicate parenthesis
- Use semicolons, colons or dashes to mark boundaries between independent clauses
- Use a colon to introduce a list
- Punctuate using bullet points consistently

use commas for clarity mostly correctly

Summary of **Commas**. There are **four types** of comma: the listing comma, the joining comma, the gapping comma and bracketing **commas**. A listing comma can always be replaced by the word **and** or **or**: Vanessa seems to live on eggs, pasta and aubergines.

Commas add **clarity**. **Commas** aid **clarity**, prevent ambiguity and indicate where you need to pause. Often you can tell if you need a **comma** by reading your work out loud though this won't always work because punctuation is mainly for the eye, not the ear.

Use commas to avoid ambiguity, e.g.:

'He wasn't killed mercifully.'

'He wasn't killed, mercifully.'

use some punctuation for parenthesis (brackets, commas and dashes)

Parenthesis: a word or phrase inserted as an explanation or afterthought into a passage which is grammatically complete without it, in writing usually marked off by brackets, dashes, or commas. Parenthesis means brackets but dashes and commas are used too depending on the effect needed.

- **Brackets** within a sentence to **add information** for detail - an **aside**, a **clarification**, or a **commentary**.
- **Dashes**: indicate parenthesis but are **less formal** – make a **strong statement**
- **Commas**: indicate parenthesis but are **less formal** and can get confused with other commas in a sentence.

begin to create atmosphere, and integrate dialogue to convey character and advance the action

Listen to how people talk: make sure dialogue is authentic.

Use dialogue to move the story forward: must be purposeful.

- Does it establish tone or mood?
- Does it reveal anything about the plot or characters?
- Does it add to the relationship that the reader is building with the speaker?
- Does it add or create conflict?

Break up dialogue with action: including actions alongside dialogue to give the reader a sense of the conversation taking place in the real world.

Vary the use and placement of speech tags (he said/she said):

Place tags at the beginning, middle or end of speech or leave them out completely.

Give each character a distinct voice: give character a distinct accent, phrases or mistakes which they repeat, their level of intelligence or sense of humour.

Be aware of pace: in urgent situations, leave out or limit narration and tags. To slow the pace and building suspense, use monologues and longer sections of narration.

spell most words correctly, adding prefixes and suffixes appropriately, spelling the correct form of homophones and spelling all common exception words correctly (KS1, Y3/Y4 and some Y5/6)

Year 3: Detail of content to be introduced Word:

- Formation of nouns using a range of prefixes [for example super-, anti-, auto-]
- Use of the forms a or an according to whether the next word begins with a consonant or a vowel [for example, a rock, an open box]
- Word families based on common words, showing how words are related in form and meaning [for example, solve, solution, solver, dissolve, insoluble]

Yr4 Writing Transcription - Spelling

- use further prefixes and suffixes and understand how to add them
- spell further homophones
- spell words that are often misspelt

- place the possessive apostrophe accurately in words with regular plurals [for example, girls', boys'] and in words with irregular plurals [for example, children's]
- use the first 2 or 3 letters of a word to check its spelling in a dictionary
- write from memory simple sentences, dictated by the teacher, that include words and punctuation taught so far

Year 5:

- use further prefixes and suffixes and understand the guidance for adding them spell some words with 'silent' letters [for example, knight, psalm, solemn]
- continue to distinguish between homophones and other words which are often confused
- use knowledge of morphology and etymology in spelling and understand that the spelling of some words needs to be learnt specifically, as listed in English appendix 1
- use dictionaries to check the spelling and meaning of words
- use the first 3 or 4 letters of a word to check spelling, meaning or both of these in a dictionary
- use a thesaurus

Consistently produce legible joined handwriting

write legibly, fluently and with increasing speed by:

- choosing which shape of a letter to use when given choices and deciding whether or not to join specific letters
- choosing the writing implement that is best suited for a task

