



Working at the expected standard in Y6

The pupil can:

Terminology for pupils:

subject, object active, passive synonym, antonym, ellipsis, hyphen, colon, semi-colon, bullet points

write effectively for a range of purposes and audiences, **selecting language that shows good awareness of the reader** (e.g. the use of the first person in a diary; direct address in instructions and persuasive writing), using similar writing as a model

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 narratives, describe settings, characters and atmosphere, using a **variety of techniques** to engage the reader and **choosing appropriate vocabulary** that creates a **consistent picture**, e.g. verbs, preposition phrases, fronted adverbials, expanded noun phrases, relative clauses

Consistency:

In **written** communication, **consistency** can be **defined** as the orderly presentation of a set of linked/associated elements in the text.

Writers must constantly seek to achieve **consistency**. Each inconsistency removed eliminates a barrier between readers and understanding, facilitates communication, and thereby increases the likelihood that the **writing** will convey the message intended.

Consider the use One Voice, Tone and Style:

- **Voice:** a combination of punctuation, style, tone, storytelling, action etc
- **Tone:** the level of formality
- **Style:** the technical aspect, it involves syntax, or the structure of the sentences, as well as word choice and grammar.

integrate dialogue in narratives to convey character and advance the action, **using correctly punctuated speech**

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.

The general rules of direct speech are:

- Each new character's speech starts on a new line.
- Speech is opened with speech marks.
- Each line of speech starts with a capital.
- The line of speech ends with a comma, exclamation mark or question mark.
- The **reporting clause of direct speech** is the short **clause** that indicates who is talking. It is the **clause** that is outside of the inverted commas. It is therefore not the words being spoken. We can write the **reporting clause** either before or after the **direct speech**. (said Jane, replied Mum, Paul shouted,).
- A full stop goes after the reporting clause.
- If the direct speech in the sentence is broken up by information about who is speaking, add in a comma or question mark or exclamation mark to end the first piece of speech and a full stop or another comma before the second piece (before the speech marks), for example: "It's lovely," she sighed, "but I can't afford it right now." / "I agree!" said Kate. "Let's go!"

select vocabulary and grammatical structures that reflect what the writing requires, doing this mostly appropriately (e.g. **using contracted forms in dialogues in narrative**; using passive verbs to affect how information is presented; using modal verbs to suggest degrees of possibility)

People naturally speak with contractions: you're, they're, I'm, don't, hadn't, can't etc

Contractions are a normal part of speech. They help us communicate faster and improve the flow of a sentence.

Example:

- 'I don't know where you've just come from, but round here nothing's odd.'
- 'I do not know where you have just come from, but round here nothing is odd.'

Greater depth:

Use or omit contractions in order to force where the stress falls in a sentence.

Compare the following:

- 'I can't believe you said that,' Louise said.
- 'I cannot believe you said that,' Louise said.

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Active and passive verbs are used to create effect and to affect presentation of information

A sentence is written in **active** voice **when the subject of the sentence is performing the action.**

A sentence is written in **passive voice** when the subject of the sentence has something done to it by someone or something.

Active voice: The cat was chasing the mouse.

In this sentence, 'the cat' is the subject, 'was chasing' is the **verb** and 'the mouse' is the **object**.

Passive voice: The mouse was being chased by the cat.

In this sentence 'the mouse' has become the subject which is having something done to it by the cat.

- Active: Tom accidentally dropped the glass.
- Passive: The glass was accidentally dropped by Tom.
- Active: The class heated the water.
- Passive: The water was heated by the class.

select vocabulary and grammatical structures that reflect what the writing requires, doing this mostly appropriately (e.g. using contracted forms in dialogues in narrative; using passive verbs to affect how information is presented; **using modal verbs to suggest degrees of possibility**)

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 a wider range of devices to build cohesion

Repetition:

Achieve cohesion by repeating a particular sentence structure along with a keyword or phrase. Repeat a construction to emphasise connections between related ideas.

Repetition of a Key Term or Phrase helps to focus ideas and to keep the reader on track.

Example:

The problem with **contemporary art** is that it is not easily understood by most people. **Contemporary art** is deliberately abstract, and that means it leaves the viewer wondering what she is looking at.

Grammatical Connections:

Connectors have the **same** meaning of a **conjunction** but differ in their function. Difference between **conjunction and connectors**:

Conjunctions are used to connect a noun with another noun; two independent clauses; different sentences; a group of words.

Connectors are used to connect a large groups of words; phrases; sentences.

- **Direction and Place:** *here, there, over there, beyond, under, to the left, in the distance, opposite*
- **Emphasis:** *especially, also, in particular, furthermore, in addition, indeed, of course, certainly*
- **Contrast:** *but, however, on the other hand, otherwise, unlike, conversely, at the same time, in spite of*
- **Illustration:** *such as, in this case, for one thing, for instance, for example, in the case of, illustrated by, as an example*
- **Time & Sequence:** *later, after, before, then, next, soon, finally, first, second*
- **Comparison:** *as...as, as if, equally, similarly, like, in the same way, comparable, in like manner*
- **Cause and Effect:** *therefore, so, because, thus, hence, due to, as a result of, consequently*
- **Addition:** *as well as, and, too, furthermore, also, in addition to, not only – but also, or*

Ellipsis:

Ellipsis is the omission from speech or writing of a word or words that are superfluous or able to be understood from contextual clues.

The omission of a word, phrase, line, paragraph, or more from a quoted passage can be indicated by **ellipsis** points (or **dots**),

...

If an **ellipsis** ends the sentence, then there are **three dots**, each separated by a space, followed by the final punctuation.

Use **ellipses** to shorten the sentence without changing the meaning

Here are **some** more **examples**, with their linguistic terms (**and** words omitted in brackets):

Gapping: I ordered **the** burger, **and** he [ordered] **the** sausages.

Stripping: I ordered **the** burger, [I did] not [order] sausages.

Verb phrase ellipsis: I'll order **the** burger **and** you can [order **the** burger], too.

use **verb tenses consistently and correctly** throughout their writing

Verb tense consistency refers to **keeping the same tense** throughout a clause. We don't want to have one time-period being described in two different **tenses**. If you have two or more time periods, start a new clause or a new sentence.

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Problematic tense consistency:

- Mark **finished** his essay, **tidies** his room, and **went** out for supper.

Finished and *went* are in the past tense, but *tidies* is in the present tense. Mark's actions shift from the past to the present and back again, which is not logical.

Consistent tense consistency:

- Mark **finished** his essay, **tidied** his room, and **went** out for supper.

Greater depth:

- Mark **finished** his essay and **went** out for supper, and **now** he is tidying his room.

In this example, Mark's past actions are described in the first clause, and his present actions are described in a new clause, complete with its own subject and verb.

- **Present Simple** *I do*
- **Present Continuous** *I am doing*
- **Present Perfect** *I have done*
- **Present Perfect Continuous** *I have been doing*
- **Past Simple** *I did, I did do*
- **Past Continuous** *I was doing*
- **Past Perfect** *I had done*
- **Past Perfect Continuous** *I had been doing*
- **Future Simple** *I will do*
- **Future Continuous** *I will be doing*
- **Future Perfect** *I will have done*
- **Future Perfect Continuous** *I will have been doing*

use the range of punctuation taught at key stage 2 mostly correctly, e.g. **commas after fronted adverbials, apostrophes for plural possession, brackets, dashes and commas to indicate parenthesis, commas for clarity and to avoid ambiguity, hyphen, semi colon and colon to introduce lists**

Using a hyphen

Generally, **hyphenate** two or more words when they come before a noun they modify and act as a single idea. This is called a compound adjective. When a compound adjective follows a noun, a **hyphen** is usually not necessary.

Misconception: Difference between a hyphen and a dash:

A **hyphen** joins two or more words together while a **dash** separates words into parenthetical statements. The two are sometimes confused because they look so similar, but their **usage** is different. **Hyphens** are not separated by spaces, while a **dash** has a space on either side.

Types of hyphenated words:

- Compound Modifiers: (Two-Word Adjectives Before Nouns) e.g. **load-bearing wall**
- Participles e.g. **man-eating, badly-burned** hand
- Noun, Adjective or Adverb and a Present Participle e.g. **square-looking, beautiful-looking, fast-looking**
- Compound Expression with a Noun and Past Participle e.g. **well-known**
- Hyphenated Compound Words E.g. **Mother-in-law**
- Closed Compound Words (not hyphenated) e.g. **Notebook**
- Open Compound Words (not hyphenated) e.g. **Coffee mug**
- Numbers e.g. Numbers between **twenty-one and ninety-nine**
- Compound Adjective with Numbers e.g. **10-minute, second-story window.**
- Compound Adjective with Fractions e.g. **one-third**
- Prefixes: Ex-, Self-, All- e.g. **ex-footballer, self-serve, all-powerful.**
- High or Low e.g. **low-flying**

use the range of punctuation taught at key stage 2 mostly correctly, e.g. commas after fronted adverbials, apostrophes for plural possession, brackets, dashes and commas to indicate parenthesis, commas for clarity and to avoid ambiguity, hyphen, **semi colon** and colon to introduce lists

The most common use of the semicolon is to join two independent clauses without using a conjunction like *and*.

A semicolon should be followed by a capital letter only if the word is a proper noun or an acronym.

We can go to the museum to do some research; Mondays are pretty quiet there.

Semicolons are not interchangeable with commas or full stops. They are somewhere in between.

1. Semicolons Connect Related Independent Clauses

You can use a semicolon to join two closely related independent clauses. The two sentences should share a close, logical connection:

- Martha has gone to the library; Andrew has gone to play soccer.

2. Delete the Conjunction When You Use a Semicolon

When using a semicolon, use it *instead* of and, but, or; you don't need both.

- I saw a huge cat, and it was eating a mouse. **x**
- I saw a huge cat; it was eating a mouse.

3. Use Semicolons in a Serial List

Use semicolons to divide the items of a list if the items are long or contain internal punctuation.

- I need the weather statistics for the following cities: London, England; London, Ontario; Paris, France; Paris, Ontario; Perth, Scotland; Perth, Ontario.

4. Use Semicolons with Conjunctive Adverbs

When you have a conjunctive adverb linking two independent clauses, you should use a semicolon. Some common conjunctive adverbs include *moreover, nevertheless, however, otherwise, therefore, then, finally, also, likewise, and consequently*.

- I needed to go for a walk and get some fresh air; **also**, I needed to buy milk.

I'm not keen on the colour of marigolds; **moreover**, they don't smell very good.

use the range of punctuation taught at key stage 2 mostly correctly, e.g. commas after fronted adverbials, apostrophes for plural possession, brackets, dashes and commas to indicate parenthesis, commas for clarity and to avoid ambiguity, hyphen, semi colon and **colon to introduce lists**

Colons (:) are used in sentences to show that something is following, like a quotation, example, or list.

The hard and fast rule is that a **colon must ALWAYS follow a complete sentence**. ... A **colon** is used after a full **sentence** or independent clause to introduce something that illustrates, clarifies, or amplifies what was said in the **sentence** that preceded the **colon**.

The correct punctuation after "as follows" is a colon.

e.g.

- He wanted to see three cities in Italy: Rome, Florence, and Venice.
- I bought a lot of food at the shop: apples, crisps, pasta and tuna.

A **colon** can be **used** to introduce a vertical **list** (such as a numbered **list** or a **list of bullet points**).

When **using a colon** to introduce a **list**, the introduction itself (i.e., the text **before the colon**), **should** be a standalone clause.

Sally won the following events:

- Egg-and-spoon race.
- Toss the pancake.
- Apple bobbing.

spell correctly most words from the year 5 / year 6 spelling list, * and use a dictionary to check the spelling of uncommon or more ambitious vocabulary

- 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

maintain legibility in joined handwriting when writing at speed.

Write legibly, fluently and with 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

