

Wandsworth LA

Primary English National Curriculum

Planning Overview

Year 1

Wandsworth LA English National Curriculum Planning Overview written by **Ingrid Seifert** and **Caroline Staples**, Primary Teaching and Learning Consultants for English.

Acknowledgements

With thanks for the contributions from the Wandsworth English Primary Curriculum Cluster Group members:

Kirsten Slinger	Hillbrook Primary School
Jackie Hare	Earlsfield Primary School
Katie Myles	Granard Primary School
Sarah Philips	Honeywell Infants School
Cheryl Meyrick	Heathmere Primary School
Clare Edet	Westbridge Primary School
Davina Belcher	Furzedown Primary School
Becky Bolton	Fircroft Primary School
Louise Troszok	Smallwood Primary School
Tony Philcox	The Alton Primary School

English NC Planning Overview – Year 1

With the introduction of a new Primary Curriculum in 2013, we have created a new document, bringing together the programmes of study for English (2013) for each year group, the previous Wandsworth LA medium term plans (2007) and other documents previously published by the Primary Framework for Literacy (2006), with the aim of informing long-term planning.

The aim of the planning overview is to provide:

- an overview of the programmes of study for each year group
- the features of different text types to inform teachers' subject knowledge
- examples of learning outcomes for each year group for each text type

The planning overview is accompanied by 'Texts and Resources', which aims to provide text suggestions and useful web links for Y1, Y2, Y3/4 and Y5/6. We aim to update 'Texts and Resources' termly and welcome text or website suggestions from teachers and subject leaders.

All the documents mentioned above can be found on the Wandsworth National Curriculum Wikispace at <https://primarynationalcurriculum2014.wikispaces.com/English>

References

1. English programmes of study: key stages 1 and 2 (September 2013)
https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/335186/PRIMARY_national_curriculum_-_English_220714.pdf
2. Primary Framework for Literacy (October 2006)
<http://www.educationengland.org.uk/documents/pdfs/2006-primary-national-strategy.pdf>
3. Text Type Guidance and Progression Papers (Primary National Strategy 2006)
<http://www.learningwithsouthglos.org/onetoone/docs/TextTypesProgressionBooklet.pdf>
4. Wandsworth medium term plans (2007)

SPOKEN LANGUAGE

Pupils should be taught to:

- listen and respond appropriately to adults and their peers
- ask relevant questions to extend their understanding and knowledge
- use relevant strategies to build their vocabulary
- articulate and justify answers, arguments and opinions
- give well-structured descriptions, explanations and narratives for different purposes, including for expressing feelings
- maintain attention and participate actively in collaborative conversations, staying on topic and initiating and responding to comments
- use spoken language to develop understanding through speculating, hypothesising, imagining and exploring ideas
- speak audibly and fluently with an increasing command of Standard English
- participate in discussions, presentations, performances, role play, improvisations and debates
- gain, maintain and monitor the interest of the listener(s)
- consider and evaluate different viewpoints, attending to and building on the contributions of others
- select and use appropriate registers for effective communication.

Notes and guidance for spoken language (non-statutory)

These statements apply to all years. The content should be taught at a level appropriate to the age of the pupils. Pupils should build on the oral language skills that have been taught in preceding years

Pupils should be taught to develop their competence in spoken language and listening to enhance the effectiveness with which they are able to communicate across a range of contexts and to a range of audiences. They should therefore have opportunities to work in groups of different sizes – in pairs, small groups, large groups and as a whole class. Pupils should understand how to take turns and when and how to participate constructively in conversations and debates.

Attention should also be paid to increasing pupils' vocabulary, ranging from describing their immediate world and feelings to developing a broader, deeper and richer vocabulary to discuss abstract concepts and a wider range of topics, and to enhancing their knowledge about language as a whole.

Pupils should receive constructive feedback on their spoken language and listening, not only to improve their knowledge and skills but also to establish secure foundations for effective spoken language in their studies at primary school, helping them to achieve in secondary education and beyond.

English NC Planning Overview – Year 1

VOCABULARY, GRAMMAR AND PUNCTUATION

Pupils should be taught to:

Develop understanding of the concepts set out in English Appendix 2 by:

- leaving spaces between words
- joining words and clauses using and
- beginning to punctuate sentences using a capital letter and a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark
- using a capital letter for names of people, places, the days of the week, and the personal pronoun 'I'

Use the grammatical terminology in English Appendix 2 in discussing their writing:

letter, capital letter, word, singular, plural, sentence, punctuation, full stop, question mark, exclamation mark

Notes and guidance for vocabulary, grammar and punctuation (non-statutory)

Pupils should be taught to recognise sentence boundaries in spoken sentences and to use the vocabulary listed in English Appendix 2 ('Terminology for pupils') when their writing is discussed.

Pupils should begin to use some of the distinctive features of Standard English in their writing.

HANDWRITING

Pupils should be taught to:

- sit correctly at a table, holding a pencil comfortably and correctly
- begin to form lower-case letters in the correct direction, starting and finishing in the right place
- form capital letters
- form digits 0-9
- understand which letters belong to which handwriting 'families' (i.e. letters that are formed in similar ways) and to practise these.

Notes and guidance for handwriting (non-statutory)

Handwriting requires frequent and discrete, direct teaching. Pupils should be able to form letters correctly and confidently. The size of the writing implement (pencil, pen) should not be too large for a young pupil's hand. Whatever is being used should allow the pupil to hold it easily and correctly so that bad habits are avoided.

Left-handed pupils should receive specific teaching to meet their needs.

Handwriting objectives should be reflected in the school handwriting policy and taught accordingly, either within the literacy hour or as separate sessions. Advice on handwriting states that it should be explicitly taught and demonstrated as opposed to simply being practised, and that it is best taught little and often. A guide may be, for example: 5 minutes a day in Years 1 and 2.

English NC Planning Overview – Year 1

STATUTORY NC PROGRAMME OF STUDY FOR READING – WORD READING	STATUTORY PROGRAMME OF STUDY FOR WRITING – SPELLING
<p><u>Pupils should be taught to:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • apply phonic knowledge and skills as the route to decode words • respond speedily with the correct sound to graphemes (letters or groups of letters) for all 40+ phonemes, including, where applicable, alternative sounds for graphemes • read accurately by blending sounds in unfamiliar words containing GPCs that have been taught • read common exception words, noting unusual correspondences between spelling and sound and where these occur in the word • read words containing taught GPCs and –s, –es, –ing, –ed, –er and –est endings • read other words of more than one syllable that contain taught GPCs • read words with contractions [for example, I'm, I'll, we'll], and understand that the apostrophe represents the omitted letter(s) • read books aloud, accurately, that are consistent with their developing phonic knowledge and that do not require them to use other strategies to work out words • reread these books to build up their fluency and confidence in word reading 	<p><u>Pupils should be taught to:</u></p> <p>spell:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • words containing each of the 40+ phonemes already taught • common exception words • the days of the week <p>name the letters of the alphabet:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • naming the letters of the alphabet in order • using letter names to distinguish between alternative spellings of the same sound <p>add prefixes and suffixes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • using the spelling rule for adding –s or –es as the plural marker for nouns and the third person singular marker for verbs • using the prefix un– • using –ing, –ed, –er and –est where no change is needed in the spelling of root words [for example, helping, helped, helper, eating, quicker, quickest] • apply simple spelling rules and guidance, as listed in English Appendix 1 • write from memory simple sentences dictated by the teacher that include words using the GPCs and common exception words taught so far.

English NC Planning Overview – Year 1

Notes and guidance for word reading (non-statutory)

Pupils should have extensive experience of listening to, sharing and discussing a wide range of high-quality books with the teacher, other adults and each other to engender a love of reading at the same time as they are reading independently.

Pupils' vocabulary should be developed when they listen to books read aloud and when they discuss what they have heard. Such vocabulary can also feed into their writing. Knowing the meaning of more words increases pupils' chances of understanding when they read by themselves. The meaning of some new words should be introduced to pupils before they start to read on their own, so that these unknown words do not hold up their comprehension.

However, once pupils have already decoded words successfully, the meaning of those that are new to them can be discussed with them, so contributing to developing their early skills of inference. By listening frequently to stories, poems and non-fiction that they cannot yet read for themselves, pupils begin to understand how written language can be structured in order, for example, to build surprise in narratives or to present facts in non-fiction. Listening to and discussing information books and other non-fiction establishes the foundations for their learning in other subjects. Pupils should be shown some of the processes for finding out information.

Through listening, pupils also start to learn how language sounds and increase their vocabulary and awareness of grammatical structures. In due course, they will be able to draw on such grammar in their own writing.

Rules for effective discussions should be agreed with and demonstrated for pupils. They should help to develop and evaluate them, with the expectation that everyone takes part. Pupils should be helped to consider the opinions of others.

Role-play can help pupils to identify with and explore characters and to try out the language they have listened to.

Notes and guidance for spelling (non-statutory)

Reading should be taught alongside spelling, so that pupils understand that they can read back words they have spelt.

Pupils should be shown how to segment spoken words into individual phonemes and then how to represent the phonemes by the appropriate grapheme(s). It is important to recognise that phoneme-grapheme correspondences (which underpin spelling) are more variable than grapheme-phoneme correspondences (which underpin reading). For this reason, pupils need to do much more word-specific rehearsal for spelling than for reading.

At this stage pupils will be spelling some words in a phonically plausible way, even if sometimes incorrectly. Misspellings of words that pupils have been taught to spell should be corrected; other misspelt words should be used to teach pupils about alternative ways of representing those sounds.

Writing simple dictated sentences that include words taught so far gives pupils opportunities to apply and practise their spelling.

English NC Planning Overview – Year 1

STATUTORY NC PROGRAMME OF STUDY FOR READING – COMPREHENSION	STATUTORY PROGRAMME OF STUDY FOR WRITING – COMPOSITION
<p><u>Pupils should be taught to:</u></p> <p>Develop pleasure in reading, motivation to read, vocabulary and understanding by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• listening to and discussing a wide range of poems, stories and non-fiction at a level beyond that at which they can read independently• being encouraged to link what they read or hear read to their own experiences• becoming very familiar with key stories, fairy stories and traditional tales, retelling them and considering their particular characteristics• recognising and joining in with predictable phrases• learning to appreciate rhymes and poems, and to recite some by heart• discussing word meanings, linking new meanings to those already known <p>Understand both the books they can already read accurately and fluently and those they listen to by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• drawing on what they already know or on background information and vocabulary provided by the teacher• checking that the text makes sense to them as they read, and correcting inaccurate reading• discussing the significance of the title and events• making inferences on the basis of what is being said and done• predicting what might happen on the basis of what has been read so far• participate in discussion about what is read to them, taking turns and listening to what others say• explain clearly their understanding of what is read to them	<p><u>Pupils should be taught to:</u></p> <p>Write sentences by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• saying out loud what they are going to write about• composing a sentence orally before writing it• sequencing sentences to form short narratives• re-reading what they have written to check that it makes sense <p>Discuss what they have written with the teacher or other pupils Read their writing aloud, clearly enough to be heard by their peers and the teacher.</p>

English NC Planning Overview – Year 1

Notes and guidance for comprehension (non-statutory)

Pupils should have extensive experience of listening to, sharing and discussing a wide range of high-quality books with the teacher, other adults and each other to engender a love of reading at the same time as they are reading independently.

Pupils' vocabulary should be developed when they listen to books read aloud and when they discuss what they have heard. Such vocabulary can also feed into their writing. Knowing the meaning of more words increases pupils' chances of understanding when they read by themselves. The meaning of some new words should be introduced to pupils before they start to read on their own, so that these unknown words do not hold up their comprehension.

However, once pupils have already decoded words successfully, the meaning of those that are new to them can be discussed with them, so contributing to developing their early skills of inference. By listening frequently to stories, poems and non-fiction that they cannot yet read for themselves, pupils begin to understand how written language can be structured in order, for example, to build surprise in narratives or to present facts in non-fiction. Listening to and discussing information books and other non-fiction establishes the foundations for their learning in other subjects. Pupils should be shown some of the processes for finding out information.

Through listening, pupils also start to learn how language sounds and increase their vocabulary and awareness of grammatical structures. In due course, they will be able to draw on such grammar in their own writing.

Rules for effective discussions should be agreed with and demonstrated for pupils. They should help to develop and evaluate them, with the expectation that everyone takes part. Pupils should be helped to consider the opinions of others.

Role-play can help pupils to identify with and explore characters and to try out the language they have listened to.

Notes and guidance for composition (non-statutory)

At the beginning of year 1, not all pupils will have the spelling and handwriting skills they need to write down everything that they can compose out loud.

Pupils should understand, through demonstration, the skills and processes essential to writing: that is, thinking aloud as they collect ideas, drafting, and re-reading to check their meaning is clear.

English NC Planning Overview – Year 1

TEXT TYPE KNOWLEDGE: POETRY

PURPOSE:

Poems can have many different purposes, e.g. to amuse, to entertain, to reflect, to convey information, to tell a story, to share knowledge or to pass on cultural heritage. Some forms of poetry are associated with certain purposes, e.g. prayers to thank, celebrate, praise; advertising jingles to persuade; limericks to amuse.

FEATURES:

Poems are often grouped for learning and teaching by theme, structure, form or language features.

Poems use the same language features as other text types but each feature is often used more intensively to achieve a concentrated effect, e.g. of mood, humour, musicality: frequent alliteration, use of imagery or repetitive rhythm. Rhyme is used almost exclusively by poetic texts.

The language features used depend on context, purpose and audience and also on the intended style of a poem.

Different poetic forms tend to use different language features:

- Rhyme: many traditional forms use particular rhyme patterns which are usually described using an alphabetic system. AABBA is the usual rhyme pattern of a limerick.
- Other common patterns in children’s poetry are AABB and ABABCC for each verse. The usual order of clauses or words is sometimes deliberately rearranged to create a rhyme at the end of a line.
- Metre: rhythm, stress patterns (e.g. dum-de, dum-de or de-dum, de-dum) syllable patterns (e.g. 5, 7, 5 syllables in the three lines of a haiku).
- Imagery: e.g. simile, metaphor, personification. The effective use of imagery is often a key ingredient in powerful, memorable poetry.
- Rich vocabulary: powerful nouns, verbs, adjectives, invented words and unusual word combinations.
- Sound effects: alliteration, assonance (repetition of the same vowel phoneme in the middle of a word, especially where rhyme is absent: cool/food), onomatopoeia (where the sound of a word suggests its meaning: hiss, splutter).

Examples of poetry types:

Free verse

Monologue, Conversation, List, Calligrams, Shape, Concrete

Structures and forms

Cinquain, Quatrain, Couplets, Rap, Limericks, Kennings, Haiku, Renga, Ballads, Question and Answer

Examples of Learning Outcomes

	SL	R	W
I can listen to, read and respond to rhymes, poems and patterned stories and discuss what they are about.	●	●	
I can talk about favourite words or parts of a poem and notice patterns.	●	●	
I can join in with and perform poems, rhymes and patterned stories, with and without music, actions and other enhancements.	●		
I can list words and phrases or use a repeating pattern or line, including words and phrases that describe what we see, hear, feel (touch), smell and taste.			●
I can write poems by adding a few further words or phrases from a given beginning, following a specific pattern or within an appropriate frame.		●	●
I can write poems using suitable words and phrases to describe particular experiences.			●
I can write my own simple poems using models from reading.			●
I can read poems out loud.	●	●	

English NC Planning Overview – Year 1

TEXT TYPE KNOWLEDGE: INSTRUCTIONS

Purpose:

To ensure something is done effectively and/or correctly with a successful outcome for the participant(s).

Features:

Begin by defining the goal or desired outcome (How to make a board game.).

List any material or equipment needed, in order, where appropriate

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.)

Use of imperative verbs (commands), e.g. Cut the card ... Paint your design ...

Instructions may include negative commands. (Do not use any glue at this stage.)

Additional advice (It's a good idea to leave it overnight if you have time. If the mixture separates ...) or suggested alternatives (If you would like to make a bigger decoration, you could either double the dimensions of the base or just draw bigger flowers.)

Examples of Learning Outcomes

	SL	R	W
I can listen to, read and follow a single, more detailed instruction and a longer series of instructions.	•	•	
I can give clear, single oral instructions.	•		
I can read and follow written classroom labels showing instructions.		•	
I can contribute to class compositions of instructions with teacher scribing.	•	•	•
I can write simple labels independently.			•
I can write the next in a sequence of instructions.		•	•
I can write a set of instructions in a well-rehearsed sequence independently.			•

English NC Planning Overview – Year 1

TEXT TYPE KNOWLEDGE: INFORMATION TEXTS (NON-CHRONOLOGICAL REPORTS)

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.

Features:

In the absence of a temporal (chronological) structure where events happen in a particular order, non-chronological reports usually have a logical structure. They tend to group information, often moving from general to more specific detail and examples or elaborations. A common structure includes: an opening statement, often a general classification (Sparrows are birds); sometimes followed by a more detailed or technical classification (Their Latin name is...); a description of whatever is the subject of the report organised in some way to help the reader make sense of the information. For example: its qualities (Like most birds, sparrows have feathers.); its parts and their functions (The beak is small and strong so that it can ...); its habits/behaviour/ uses (Sparrows nest in ...).

Often written in the third person and present tense. (They like to build their nests ... It is a cold and dangerous place to live.)

Sometimes written in the past tense, as in a historical report. (Children as young as seven worked in factories. They were poorly fed and clothed and they did dangerous work.)

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. (Sparrows are found in ... Sharks are hunted ... Gold is highly valued ...)

Tends to focus on generic subjects (Dogs) rather than specific subjects (My dog Ben).

Description is usually an important feature, including the language of comparison and contrast. (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.)

Description is generally used for precision rather than to create an emotional response so imagery is not heavily used.

Examples of Learning Outcomes

	SL	R	W
I can say what the key structural features of a simple information text are.	•	•	
I can find out about a subject by listening and following text as information books are read, watching a video.	•	•	
I can contribute to a discussion on the subject as information is assembled and the teacher writes the information.	•		
I can collect information on a subject in own experience, (e.g. food, pets, etc...).		•	•
I can write a simple non-chronological report.			•

English NC Planning Overview – Year 1

TEXT TYPE KNOWLEDGE: EXPLANATION

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.

Types of Explanation:

There are two basic types of explanation which focus on:

- "How" (How does a pump work? How does a computer work? How are mountains formed? How does a spider spin a web?)
- "Why" (Why do some things float or sink? Why is the ozone layer getting thinner? Why does iron go rusty? Why do living things need food?)

Features:

- A general statement to introduce the topic being explained. (In the winter some animals hibernate.)
- The steps or phases in a process are explained logically, in order. (**When** the nights get longer ... **because** the temperature begins to drop ... **so** the hedgehog looks for a safe place to hide.)
- Written in simple present tense. (Hedgehogs **wake** up again in the spring.)
- Use of action verbs (e.g. falls, rises, changes)
- Use of time relationships (e.g. first, then, following, after that, finally)
- Use of connecting words and phrases for cause and effect, (e.g. so, because of this, as a consequence, if...)
- Some use of passives (e.g. is saturated, are changed)
- Use of nouns tends to be general rather than specific (e.g. cars, boats, spiders, schools)
- Use of pronouns (their, they, them)

Examples of Learning Outcomes

	SL	R	W
I can orally describe a familiar process, using pictures to help me.	•		
I can write and illustrate a simple explanation of a familiar process.			•

English NC Planning Overview – Year 1

TEXT TYPE KNOWLEDGE: PERSUASION

Purpose:

To argue a case from a particular point of view and to encourage the reader/listener towards the same way of seeing things.

Features:

- An opening statement 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 simple present tense.
- Often refers to generic rather than specific participants (Vegetables are good for you. They ...).
- Uses logical rather than temporal connecting words and phrases (This proves that ... So it's clear ... Therefore ...).
- Tends to move from general to specific 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.)
- Use of rhetorical questions. (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?)
- Text is often combined with other media to emotively enhance an aspect of the argument, e.g. a photo of a sunny, secluded beach, the sound of birds in a forest glade or a picture of a cute puppy.

Examples of Learning Outcomes

	SL	R	W
I can read captions, pictures, posters and adverts that are trying to persuade and begin to recognise how they are persuading me.		•	
I can explore through games and role play what it means to persuade or be persuaded.	•		
I can create a simple persuasive text, e.g. an advert, a poster or a persuasive letter.			•

English NC Planning Overview – Year 1

TEXT TYPE KNOWLEDGE: DISCUSSION

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.

Features:

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.

Another common structure presents the arguments ‘for’ and ‘against’ alternatively.

Discussion texts usually end with a summary and a statement of recommendation or conclusion. The summary may develop one particular viewpoint using reasoned judgements based on the evidence provided.

Written in simple present tense.

Generalises the participants and things it refers to using uncountable noun phrases (some people, most dogs), nouns that categorise (vehicles, pollution), abstract nouns (power).

Uses connecting words and phrases (e.g. therefore, however, on the other hand, in comparison).

Generic statements are often followed by specific examples (Most vegetarians disagree. Dave Smith, a vegetarian for 20 years, finds that ...)

Sometimes combined with diagrams, illustrations, moving images and sound to provide additional information or give evidence.

Examples of Learning Outcomes

	SL	R	W
I can use talk, role play and reading to explore how others might think, feel and react differently from themselves and from each other.	•	•	
I can write simple discussion texts, exploring different viewpoints.			•

English NC Planning Overview – Year 1

TEXT TYPE KNOWLEDGE: RECOUNT

Purpose:

The primary purpose of recounts is to retell events. Their most common intentions are to inform and/or entertain.

Features:

Structure often includes:

- orientation such as scene-setting or establishing context (It was the school holidays. I went to the park ...);
- an account of the events that took place, often in chronological order (The first person to arrive was ...);
- some additional detail about each event. (He was surprised to see me.);
- reorientation, e.g. a closing statement that may include elaboration. (I hope I can go to the park again next week. It was fun.)

Structure sometimes reorganises the chronology of events using techniques such as flashbacks, moving the focus backwards and forwards in time, but these strategies are more often used in fiction recounts.

Usually written in the past tense.

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!).

Events being recounted have a chronological order so temporal connecting words and phrases are common (then, next, first, afterwards, just before that, at last, meanwhile).

The subject of a recount tends to focus on individual or group participants (third person: they all shouted, she crept out, it looked like an animal of some kind).

Personal recounts are common (first person: I was on my way to school ...We got on the bus).

Examples of Learning Outcomes

	SL	R	W
I can listen to a recount and ask questions to support my understanding.	•		
I can describe incidents from own experience in an audible voice, using sequencing words and phrases such as 'then', 'after that'.	•		
I can order events correctly.	•	•	
I can read personal recounts and begin to recognise generic structure, e.g. ordered sequence of events, use of words like <i>first</i> , <i>next</i> , <i>after</i> , <i>when</i> .		•	
I can write simple first person recounts linked to topics of interest/study or to personal experience, using time words and the past tense.			•

TEXT TYPE KNOWLEDGE: NARRATIVE

Purpose:

The essential purpose of narrative is to tell a story, but the detailed purpose may vary according to genre. For example, the purpose of a myth is often to explain a natural phenomenon and a legend is often intended to pass on cultural traditions or beliefs.

Features:

The most common structure is:

- an opening that establishes setting and introduces characters;
- a complication and resulting events; a resolution/ending.
- language features vary in different narrative genres.

Common features:

- presented in spoken or written form;
- may be augmented /supplemented / partly presented using images (such as illustrations) or interactive /multimedia elements (such as hypertext/ images/ video/ audio);
- told/written in first or third person (I, we, she, it, they); told/written in past tense (sometimes in present tense);
- chronological (plot or content have a chronology of events that happened in a particular order);
- main participants are characters with recognisable qualities, often stereotypical and contrasting (hero/villain);
- typical characters, settings and events are used in each genre;
- connecting words and phrases are widely used to move the narrative along and to affect the reader/listener: to signal time (later that day, once); to move the setting (meanwhile back at the cave, on the other side of the forest);to surprise or create suspense (suddenly, without warning).

English NC Planning Overview – Year 1

Examples of Learning Outcomes	SL	R	W
I can recognise language patterns and repeated words and phrases in a text and discuss their effect on a reader.		•	
I can write my own sentences based on language from a familiar text.			•
I can work as part of a group, taking turns, sharing ideas, listening to others and reporting back findings.	•		
I can write simple sentences using patterned language, words and phrases from familiar stories (e.g. compile a class book).			•
I can identify the main events in traditional tales, sequencing them in chronological order.		•	
I can retell a familiar traditional story in chronological order using story language.	•		
I can discuss the appearance, behaviour, characteristics and goals of characters.	•	•	
I can write a profile of a character using visual and written text.			•
I can discuss how narratives on audio tape or video are presented and express an opinion about the different versions.	•		
I can say what a playscript is for and identify some ways in which it differs from a story text.	•	•	
I can read a simple playscript aloud using appropriate expression.	•	•	
I can write my own version of a story (e.g. a fairytale), using a series of complete sentences organised into chronological order.			•
I can predict possible events in a narrative based on my experience of other texts.		•	
I can orally tell a narrative during role-play with the events organised sequentially into beginning, problem and resolution.	•		
I can write stories with the events organised sequentially into beginning, problem and resolution.			•

TYPES OF NARRATIVE

Adventure stories

Typically a recount or retelling of a series of exciting events leading to a high impact resolution. The most common structure is a chronological narrative. Building excitement as the hero faces and overcomes adversity is an important element, so more complex structures such as flashbacks are less common. Archetypal characters are the norm and much of the building tension comes from the reader predicting who or what represents the threat (the villain) and what is likely to go wrong for the hero.

Longer narratives build tension in waves, with one problem after another accelerating the adventure in several sections or chapters, with the high point of tension near the end. The story can take place in any setting where there is the potential for adventure through a danger or threat. An effective blend of action, dialogue and description develops archetypal characters who the reader will care about, at the same time as moving the plot along at an exciting pace. Description adds to the sense of adventure by heightening the reader's awareness, e.g. a sense of potential danger (The cliffs were high and jagged ...) or dropping clues to encourage involvement through prediction (The captain welcomed them aboard but his eyes were narrow and cruel-looking ...) Dialogue is an element of characterisation but is used more to advance the action than to explore a character's feelings or motivation. "What was that noise? Did you hear it too?" Language usually has a cinematic quality, with powerful, evocative vocabulary and strong, varied verbs for action scenes. (He leaped from his horse, charged into the banquet hall and hurtled himself onto the table where the prince was devouring a chicken.)

Mystery stories

Structure is often chronological, even in a longer narrative, but complex structural techniques are sometimes used for effect. Different structures can be used for layering of information or drip-feeding facts to build up a full picture for the reader, e.g. using flashbacks to fill in information needed that wasn't provided earlier in the story or organising sections so they tell the story both before and after a key event. Knowing what is going to happen and then reading about it happening can add to the suspense. Settings are often places the main character is unfamiliar with. Different cultures often share views about the kinds of settings that seem mysterious (deep, dark forests, old, uninhabited places, lonely rural landscapes). Other settings can be very familiar places (school, home, the local town) but with an added ingredient that triggers the mystery (a stranger arrives in town, a parcel arrives, people begin acting strangely, something unusual happens). The narrator uses questions to exaggerate the mystery, e.g. Who could it be? Why had the car suddenly stopped? Language is used to intensify the mystery, particularly adjectives and adverbials. Some typical vocabulary is associated with this narrative type (puzzling, strange, peculiar, baffling, weird, odd, secretive, unexplained, bewildering). Use of pronouns to create mystery by avoiding naming or defining characters, especially when they first appear in the story. (First line: He climbed in through the window on the stroke of midnight. The wind howled and there was no moon.) Use of the pronoun 'it' to suggest a non-human or mysterious character. (And that's when I saw it, creeping carefully along behind the hedge. It wasn't much taller than me.)

Science fiction

Can use any of the varied structures typical of narrative. The setting is often a time in the future so may use structures that play with the time sequence, such as flashbacks and time travel. Science Fiction typically includes detail about the way that people might live in the future, predicting in a creative and imaginative way how technology might advance. The plot usually includes adventure so action is fast-moving. Where futuristic characters are created, dialogue may use unusual forms and vocabulary, or even alternative languages. Description is important to convey imagined settings, technology, processes and characters.

Fantasy

May simply be a basic chronological narrative set in a fantasy world but some fantasy narratives extend the 'fantastic' element to the structure as well. For example, the story may play with the concept of time so that characters find themselves moving through time in a different way. Some fantasy structures focus on character development or description of setting at the expense of plot so that the actual order of events becomes less important or even impossible to follow. Description is very important because fantasy uses settings (and often characters) that must be imagined by the reader. Imagery plays an important role in helping to describe places and things the reader has never seen.

Historical fiction

The narrative is about something that has already happened in the past so a series of events is usually the underlying structure. The writer can adapt the structure to achieve a specific effect. For example, the story can begin with a main character looking back and reflecting on the past (I was just a lad then. Let me tell you what happened ...). Sometimes, a historical narrative begins with the final event and then goes on to explain what led up to that by moving back in time to tell the whole story. Historical fiction requires a historical setting but can also be an adventure or a mystery. It can also give a fictionalised account of real events or additional, fictional detail to things that really happened. Historical settings need detail to make them authentic and to give important 'mapping' clues to the reader. When was this happening? Whereabouts is this story taking place? Appropriate archaic language is used, including old-fashioned words that have fallen out of usage, e.g. Let me carry thy basket, old dame. It can also include models of sentence

English NC Planning Overview – Year 1

grammar no longer commonly or informally used, e.g. That which you seek, you shall find in the forest.

Contemporary

Contemporary settings are often familiar ones. This type of narrative includes school stories, things that happen in the home or in local settings that children either know themselves or recognise. Stories therefore often reflect children's own experiences, are often personal and structured as a recount. Dialogue plays an important part in the characterisation. Characters tend to use language familiar to children. Contemporary language features include the informal dialogue children use themselves, as well as familiar phrases from adults at home and school (Don't let me tell you again!)

Dilemma

The strength of the story often depends on a character facing a difficult (or seemingly impossible) dilemma, with a limited choice of actions. A strong, simple story structure usually leads the character to the dilemma quite quickly and then makes the reader wait to find out how it is dealt with. The narrative makes the waiting interesting by adding to the suspense, for example by increasing the complexity or gravity of the dilemma or by threatening the right/chosen course of action. (The main character has decided to apologise just in time and is on the way to do so but has an accident and is taken to hospital - soon it will be too late.) Most forms of narrative can include stories which raise dilemmas. Characterisation is fundamental. The main characters are often well-established from the beginning with additional detail such as background, history or interests included. The reader understands why a character feels the way they do. Key characters also develop and change over time, usually as a result of the events that take place in the story and particularly as a result of the dilemma they face and their resulting actions. Description, action and dialogue are all important for developing and deepening character and showing both why and how someone has changed.

Traditional tales

Traditional or 'folk' tales include myths, legends, fables and fairy tales. Often originating in the oral tradition, examples exist in most cultures, providing a rich, culturally diverse resource for children's reading and writing. Many of these stories served an original purpose of passing on traditional knowledge or sharing cultural beliefs. They tend to have themes that deal with life's important issues and their narrative structures are often based on a quest, a journey or a series of trials and forfeits. Characters usually represent the archetypal opposites of good and evil, hero and villain, strong and weak or wise and foolish. The style of traditional stories usually retains links with their origins in oral storytelling: rich, evocative vocabulary, repetition and patterned language, and strong use of imagery. When written in a traditional style, they also use some archaic language forms and vocabulary. Many regional stories include localised vocabulary and dialect forms. Different types of traditional tales tend to have some narrative features (purpose, characters, language, style, structure) of their own.

Myths

The plot is often based on a long and dangerous journey, a quest or a series of trials for the hero. The plot usually includes incredible or miraculous events, where characters behave in superhuman ways using unusual powers or with the help of superhuman beings. Myths are often much longer texts than other traditional stories (apart from some legends) especially in their original form. They provide a very useful contrast with shorter forms of traditional narrative such as fables. Rich vocabulary evoking the power and splendour of the characters and settings: Hercules hurled the glittering spear with all the strength of a mighty army. Use of imagery to help the reader imagine. Simile is used widely to help convey grand settings and describe awe-inspiring characters: Thor's hammer was as heavy as a mountain. Vivid description of characters and settings. Fast-moving narration of action to keep the drama moving along. Myths tend to make less use of dialogue and repetition than some other types of traditional story. Myths often provide good examples of the use of symbols: Theseus unwinds a thread behind him in the Minotaur's den – a thread could be seen as a symbol of his link between the real world of humans and the supernatural world of the gods.

Legends

Structure is usually chronological, with one episode told after another, for example as the phases of a journey or the stages of an ongoing battle. Some legends tell the whole life story of their hero as a series of linked episodes; each one may be a story in its own right. Common structures include: chronological episodes; journey stories; sequential stories; life stories and community histories.

Language features are very similar to those of myths: rich, evocative vocabulary; memorable language use; use of rhythm and repetition techniques; formulaic openings and endings; imagery: simile, metaphor and symbolism.

Legends written in a traditional style often use more literary language than fairy tales or fables. Modern versions such as twenty-first century retellings or new legends may use more contemporary, informal language.

English NC Planning Overview – Year 1

Fairy tales

Setting is nearly always vague. (Once upon a time ... A long, long time ago ...) Structure is most typically a recount in chronological order, where events retell what happened to a main character that came into contact with the 'fairy world'. Often the hero or heroine is searching for something (a home, love, acceptance, wealth, wisdom) and in many tales dreams are fulfilled with a little help from magic. 'Fairy tale endings' (where everything turns out for the best) are common but many fairy tales are darker and have a sad ending. Formulaic sentences are used: Once upon a time ... There was once a ... Long ago in the ... And it came to pass ... Language often reflects the settings, in the past, using archaic or regional vocabulary and grammar: Say these words thrice! I shall return and take thy gold. He knew not where he was.

Fables

There is a shared understanding between storyteller and audience that the events told did not actually happen so fables do not need to convince and their structure is usually simple. They are often very short with few characters – sometimes only two. Structure is typically the simplest kind of narrative with a beginning, a complication and a resolution. Two characters (often animals) meet, an event occurs and they go on their way with one of them having learned an important lesson about life. The short and simple structure of the narrative leaves little room for additional details of description or character development. Dialogue is used to advance the plot or to state the moral, rather than to engage a reader with the characters and their qualities. Characterisation is limited but specific: A lazy duck was making its way to the river ... A crafty raven was sitting on a branch ... There is limited use of description because settings are less important than the events that take place.

Action and dialogue are used to move the story on because the all-important moral is most clearly evident in what the main characters do and say. Connectives are an important language feature to show cause and effect and to give coherence to a short narrative.

Dialogue, playscripts and film narrative

Structural conventions for scripting vary, particularly in their layout on the page or screen but they usually include:

- name of character and the words they speak:
- stage directions (ENTER Sita, dancing).
- Comic strip and some digital animations usually include speech bubbles within the images;
- interactive texts may include combinations of on-screen speech bubbles and audio dialogue, e.g. accessed by rollover or mouse click
- Exclusive use of direct speech and absence of narrative text such as "she said".
- Dialogue conversation between two or more characters) or monologue (one character speaking).

Any necessary narrative information is provided by images (as in comic strip or animations) by stage directions (as in a play script) or by supplementary narrative, e.g. when a comic strip with speech bubbles also includes some narrative below each picture.