



**Te Tāhuhu o
te Mātauranga**
Ministry of Education



Te Poutāhū
Curriculum Centre

The New Zealand Curriculum

English Years 0–10

October 2025



**Te Kāwanatanga
o Aotearoa**
New Zealand Government

Contents

Purpose statement	3		
Learning area structure	4		
Introduction	5		
Phase 1 (Years 0–3) teaching sequence	6		
Teaching sequence guidance.....	6		
Oral Language	10		
Reading	12		
Writing.....	20		
Phase 2 (Years 4–6) teaching sequence	25		
Teaching sequence guidance.....	25		
Oral Language	28		
Reading	30		
Writing.....	33		
Phase 3 (Years 7–8) teaching sequence	39		
Teaching sequence guidance.....	39		
Oral Language	43		
Reading	45		
Writing.....	47		
Phase 4 (Years 9–10) teaching sequence	51		
Teaching sequence guidance.....	51		
Text Studies.....	54		
Language Studies.....	56		
		Assessment requirements	59
		Reading, writing, and maths teaching time requirements	63
		Regulatory context and implementation requirements	64

Purpose statement

Whaowhia te kete mātauranga.

Fill the basket of knowledge.

This whakataukī acknowledges the lifelong and collective journey of learning. The English Learning Area supports the development of a kete of knowledge in language and literature, enriched by diverse texts, voices, and perspectives.

The English Learning Area equips students with knowledge of the codes and conventions of language and texts. Students are taught to create their own texts with purpose and confidence, as they develop an appreciation of the beauty and richness of classic and contemporary literature.

Through the study of English, students master foundational literacy knowledge and practices. They engage with and independently compose increasingly complex texts in a variety of forms, learning to explore ideas that are evolving, contested, or open to interpretation.

The English Learning Area provides students with the concepts and skills to understand global literary traditions and the bicultural and multicultural literary heritage of New Zealand. As readers, they become thoughtful and discerning textual critics and gain insights into the diversity and complexity of human experience. As authors, they learn how to craft texts that express their ideas with clarity, creativity, and control.

As students progress through English, they deepen their understanding of how language and texts provide a space for expression and experimentation. Creating and responding to texts deepens students' understanding of themselves and others, and enables them to participate actively in local, national, and global conversations.

Learning area structure

The year-by-year teaching sequence lays out the knowledge and practices to be taught each year. In the English Learning Area, the teaching sequence is organised into strands.

In English Years 0–8, the teaching sequence is organised into three strands:

- **Oral Language** focuses on teaching students to communicate, express themselves, and interact effectively. It develops students' understanding of spoken and signed languages, including New Zealand Sign Language, and for non-verbal students, any first language communication methods such as alternative and augmentative communication (AAC).
- **Reading** focuses on teaching students to decode, make meaning from, and think critically about texts. It develops students' understanding of how to read fluently, comprehend a range of texts with attention to audience, purpose, and form, and engage with ideas and perspectives.
- **Writing** focuses on teaching students to write for a variety of purposes, using the codes, conventions, and structures that enable others to understand what they have written. It develops students' proficiency in transcription skills, composition, and writing processes.

In Years 9–10, the teaching sequence is organised into two strands:

- **Text Studies** focuses on teaching students to expand their knowledge of a broader range of literary and non-fiction text forms. It develops students' understanding of textual features, literary techniques, and the impact of historical, cultural, and social contexts on texts.
- **Language Studies** focuses on teaching students how to craft written, visual, and oral texts for a variety of purposes and audiences.

The year-by-year teaching sequence, organised through strands, elements, and sub-elements, sets out what is to be taught. Its enactment is shaped by teachers, who

design learning in response to their learners, adjusting the order and emphasis and adding appropriate contexts and content.

Introduction

Across Years 0–10, English takes students on an increasingly rich journey through language and texts that grow in depth and complexity over time. Teaching builds foundational skills in oral language, reading, and writing through structured literacy approaches, and deepens students' understanding of how texts are crafted, how language shapes meaning, and how stories reflect diverse perspectives from New Zealand and the wider world.

In Years 0–3, teaching builds on early childhood learning by developing foundational oral language, reading, and writing skills through structured literacy approaches. Oral language is a key focus, supporting students to express ideas and understand others. Teachers introduce shared language codes and conventions such as phonics, grammar, punctuation, and text structure, which underpin reading comprehension and written expression. Explicit instruction in letter formation supports fluency and confidence in writing. Through reading, creating, and sharing texts, teachers foster connection, understanding, and a love of language. Students are supported to make connections between texts and their own experiences and begin to explore how texts can be interpreted in different ways. This lays the groundwork for critical analysis and literacy across the curriculum.

In Years 4–6, teaching strengthens students' literacy as a foundation for learning across all areas. Structured literacy approaches continue, with a shift in emphasis to components that take longer to develop, such as vocabulary and comprehension. Teachers create regular opportunities for oral language use to support knowledge-building through discussion. Reading instruction consolidates word recognition, deepens comprehension, and introduces critical analysis of context and purpose. Students explore written, oral, visual, and, from Year 6, digital and media texts. Writing instruction supports increasing accuracy, creativity, and purpose, with attention to how language conventions shift depending on context, audience, and purpose. Through purposeful text selection and discussion, teachers help students explore how stories shape understanding of people, places, and ideas.

In Years 7–8, teaching provides explicit instruction in oral language, reading, and writing, guiding students toward subject-English disciplinary knowledge. Literacy teaching prioritises components that take longer to develop, such as comprehension, vocabulary, and oral language, while continuing to consolidate fluency and spelling. Teachers support engagement with increasingly complex texts, including those by authors representative of New Zealand's bicultural and multicultural heritage. Students are taught to analyse how texts are structured, how language shapes meaning, and how style adapts to purpose and audience. Teaching also introduces how texts, including digital and media texts, represent people, places, and ideas, and how context influences interpretation. This establishes a strong foundation for disciplinary English in Year 9.

In Years 9–10, teaching advances students' subject-English disciplinary knowledge through integrated study of texts and language. Drawing on the strands of Text Studies and Language Studies, teachers support students to engage with complex ideas across a wide range of literary and non-fiction texts. Text Studies enables students to examine how texts reflect and respond to historical, cultural, and social contexts, and how meaning shifts with perspective and interpretation. Language Studies strengthens fluency and control in creating texts across written, oral, visual, and digital modes. Teachers introduce literary tradition, showing how authors use recurring features to shape meaning and guide audience expectations. Texts from New Zealand's literary tradition, including bicultural and multicultural voices, are used to explore national and global conversations. Students also learn to critically evaluate how digital and media texts are constructed and position audiences. This prepares them for deeper literary analysis, more complex text creation, and the broader demands of senior secondary English.

The English Learning Area prepares students with the knowledge and practices to access related curriculum subjects for Years 11–13, such as English, and Media Studies, Journalism, and Communications.

Phase 1 (Years 0–3) teaching sequence

Teaching sequence guidance

This section provides guidance about structured literacy approaches, English language learners, and working with texts to support effective teaching of the English Learning Area's sequence statements.

Structured literacy approaches

Structured literacy approaches are evidence-based approaches to literacy instruction that are explicit, systematic, and cumulative. For the purposes of communication, reading, and writing, these approaches incorporate the following components:

- oral language, encompassing spoken and signed languages, including New Zealand Sign Language (NZSL), and, for students who are non-verbal, any first language communication methods a student uses, such as augmentative and alternative communication (AAC) and expressions such as vocalisations, gestures, movements, and images
- phonemic awareness
- systematic synthetic phonics to develop decoding and spelling skills
- handwriting
- vocabulary
- morphology
- syntax
- fluency
- text structure
- writing processes
- comprehension.

These components are reflected in the content of the English teaching sequence statements. Systematically and explicitly teaching these components to novice learners strengthens their understanding, helps to manage their cognitive load, and maximises their progress in acquiring literacy. However, structured literacy approaches do not focus only on what is taught; how literacy is taught is equally important. Teachers can use [teaching resources to support structured literacy approaches](#) to guide their implementation of these components. [Teacher guidance for accelerating progress in literacy](#) is also available to support teachers to meet the needs of students who need targeted support.

During the first three years, there is a major focus on those components that are usually mastered in a relatively short time frame, including phonemic awareness, systematic synthetic phonics, and handwriting.

Those structured literacy approach components that take a lifetime to master, such as vocabulary knowledge and comprehension, are also developed from the first day of school through explicit and systematic teaching of oral and written language. From day one, for example, comprehension skills can be developed through daily reading to students, and written composition skills can be developed through shared writing led by the teacher.

English Language Learners (ELLs)

Students learning English as an additional language are likely to need targeted support to learn English for everyday communication and to access the academic language of the curriculum. They may also begin learning English for the first time at any year level.

Teachers hold high expectations for every student and are prepared to accelerate teaching programmes for students who are making progress ahead of curriculum expectations. [New Zealand-based research](#) shows that new-entrant English-language learners can achieve decoding proficiency similar to that of other students in their first year at school.

Teachers use the [English Language Learning Progressions \(ELLP\) and English Language Learning Progressions \(ELLP\) Pathway](#) to plan targeted language support for new learners of English. These learners need a strong oral-language foundation to support their language and literacy development. Teachers also support bilingual and multilingual students to connect with and use their first and heritage languages as valuable resources to progress learning and strengthen language and literacy outcomes.

Working with texts

Working with texts is at the core of English. How texts are used and how they are chosen are important considerations.

Teachers create conditions that foster a love of reading by ensuring students experience both success and enjoyment. Although not every student will develop a passion for reading, teachers play a key role in increasing the likelihood. Teachers encourage reading for pleasure by introducing a wide range of texts through read-alouds, encouraging student choice, and providing opportunities for students to share their favourite texts. Supporting reading at home further strengthens these habits and builds enjoyment beyond the classroom.

Although reading and writing are described in separate strands, they are used together from the beginning of school. Texts that students read or have read to them are used as models for their writing, and writing is often a response to what they have read or listened to.

Teachers can support effective engagement with texts through the following practices:

- Read rich-language texts to students daily. Select texts that are fun and that speak to students' interests, identities, languages, and cultures. Read-alouds provide opportunities for students to enjoy and understand books that are above their decoding level. They also build students' knowledge of vocabulary, book language, text types, text structures, text purposes, and love of reading.
- Provide decodable (phonically controlled) texts for students to practise recently taught grapheme–phoneme correspondences. Although comprehension opportunities will be less complex in these texts than in those you read aloud to students, meaning-making also remains an important focus.
- Use less-constrained texts to develop deeper reading-comprehension skills and enable statistical learning once students have built sufficient decoding knowledge. In the context of reading, statistical learning is the ability to recognise patterns and regularities in written language. It is a form of implicit learning and includes becoming aware of the probability that a particular grapheme will correspond to a particular phoneme.
- Select texts that provide opportunities to strengthen knowledge and understanding of a wide range of New Zealand perspectives when making meaning.

The texts that students read become increasingly complex over time. During Years 0–3, the focus will be on written texts. Many of these texts will also include visual features such as illustrations.

Deep comprehension of texts is grounded in the activation of prior knowledge and accumulation of new knowledge — what students already know shapes how they understand new information, making knowledge itself a powerful tool for meaning-making. Readers can relate ideas in texts to their personal experiences and prior knowledge by identifying relevant connections and reflecting on how these connections influence their understanding and interpretation.

The text series referred to on the next few pages has been specifically designed for students in New Zealand, so they can see themselves and their communities reflected in what they read. These texts include stories and ideas that value te ao Māori and Māori perspectives and works by Pacific authors and others who have made New Zealand their home.

Noticing, recognising, and responding to students' strengths and needs

Except when they are specifically learning to decode text or reading for pleasure, students who are still consolidating their decoding skills need to access year-level texts to develop skills and knowledge (including vocabulary, comprehension, and content knowledge) alongside their peers. Help students do this by adapting the relevant supports and scaffolds, rather than by simplifying or modifying texts. An effective way to accelerate students' learning is to work with a small group to explore the content of year-level texts together, explicitly teaching them the features of year-level texts that carry meaning. This will enable them to make sense of texts that are above their traditional 'instructional level'.

Students who need to accelerate their decoding skills will continue to require frequent, intensive, and explicit teaching and practice in flexible small groups, targeting their decoding needs. Although fluent readers may still work with simple texts, particularly to reduce cognitive load when new skills or concepts are being introduced, they will be working predominantly with texts that are at least at their year level. This does not mean that teachers should prevent able readers from reading more complex texts; most texts will be at their year level or above. Students who reach decoding mastery at an accelerated rate of progress need opportunities for enrichment and extension in other structured literacy approach components, such as vocabulary and comprehension, and ample opportunities to read increasingly challenging texts.

Student-read texts for the first six months at school

During their first six months at school, students are likely to be reading decodable texts in which single-consonant, short-vowel, and consonant-digraph grapheme–phoneme correspondences are practised in connected text.

These include texts at the Kākano level of the Ready to Read Phonics Plus scope and sequence. These texts have been designed around a scope and sequence of grapheme–phoneme correspondences and include:

- a simple narrative with a clear beginning, middle, and end
- some high-frequency words.

Student-read texts for the second half of the first year at school

During their second six months at school, students are likely to be reading decodable texts in which consonant patterns, adjacent consonants, and a range of long-vowel grapheme–phoneme correspondences are practised in connected text. These include texts at the Tupu and Māhuri levels of the Ready to Read Phonics Plus scope and sequence. These texts are designed around a scope and sequence of grapheme–phoneme correspondences and include:

- a variety of sentence structures, including compound and some complex sentences, with an increasing number of high-frequency words
- a narrative that has a beginning, middle, and end and that may include a problem and a resolution.

As soon as students can accurately decode texts with words that contain consonant digraphs and adjacent consonants and have learnt long-vowel patterns from early in the phonics scope and sequence, they will be reading a wide range of carefully selected texts with teacher support in ways that align with structured literacy approaches. These texts could include Ready to Read colour-wheel books up to Green level. They will include:

- generally familiar contexts and settings, one text form, and one main storyline or topic
- content that is mostly explicitly stated but also some implicit content that provides opportunities for simple inferences
- dialogue between easily identified speakers
- illustrations that support and extend the meaning but do not exactly match the words
- sentences that run over more than one line without splitting phrases
- topic words and interest words (including a wide range of regular and irregular verbs and some adjectives and adverbs) that are likely to be in a reader's oral vocabulary and whose meaning is strongly supported by the context or illustrations
- a range of punctuation, including speech marks and commas, to support phrasing and meaning
- some visual-language features, such as diagrams or speech bubbles.

Student-read texts for the second year at school

Early in their second year of school, students are likely to be reading decodable texts in which r-controlled vowels, alternative spellings, diphthongs, and morphemes are used in connected text. These could include texts at the Māhuri and Rākau levels of the Ready to Read Phonics Plus scope and sequence. These texts are designed around a scope and sequence of grapheme–phoneme correspondences. They include:

- a narrative that has a beginning, middle, and end and that may include more than one problem and resolution
- a variety of sentence structures, including complex sentences.

Students will also be reading a wide range of carefully selected texts (e.g. Ready to Read colour-wheel books at Orange and Turquoise levels) in ways that align with structured literacy approaches. These texts will have characteristics that include:

- some settings and contexts that may be outside the students' prior knowledge but that they can easily relate to
- a mix of explicit and implicit content that provides opportunities for simple inferences
- illustrations that support the meaning and that may suggest new ideas or viewpoints
- mostly familiar words but some new topic words and descriptive language (e.g. synonyms, definitions, or explanations) whose meaning is supported by the context
- visual-language features, such as labelled diagrams, inset photographs, and bold text for topic words linked to a glossary.

Student-read texts for the third year at school

Students will be reading fiction and non-fiction texts of varying lengths, such as Ready to Read colour-wheel books at Purple and Gold levels, Junior Journals, CHAPTERS, and texts from other sources, in ways that are aligned with structured literacy approaches. These texts will have characteristics that include:

- some unfamiliar contexts and settings with shifts in time and place, many characters and events, and more than one storyline in narrative texts
- language, settings, and contexts that reflect New Zealand's unique bicultural and multicultural heritage, including kupu Māori and culturally grounded narratives, experiences, and perspectives
- a variety of sentence structures, including complex sentences
- frequent use of dialogue, some of which is not explicitly attributed, and more than one character speaking on a page
- some unfamiliar words and phrases whose meanings are supported by the context or illustrations, including descriptive vocabulary, subject-specific vocabulary, and commonly used words with multiple meanings
- a mix of explicit and implicit content, requiring students to make connections between ideas expressed in the text or illustrations and their prior knowledge in order to make simple inferences
- some pages with no illustrations
- visual-language features, such as subheadings, text boxes, footnotes, glossaries, indexes, diagrams, and maps, that are clearly explained and linked to the body text
- ideas and information organised in paragraphs
- content that encourages critical analysis by raising wonderings and questions in the mind of the reader within texts and across texts.

These texts will include a range of poetry, children's literature, visual and graphic texts, and informational texts from a variety of sources.

Oral Language

Oral Language		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>				Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>			
		During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year	During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year
Communicating and Presenting	Verbal reasoning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A question asks something, and often begins with words such as who, what, where, when, why, or how. Words such as 'because' and 'so' are used to explain why something happened (e.g. 'He fell because the floor was slippery' or 'The floor was slippery, so he fell'). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Clarification questions (e.g. 'What do you mean ...?', 'Can you explain ...?') are used when something is confusing, unclear, or needs more detail. If/then sentences can show what might happen when something else happens (e.g. 'If it's raining, then we stay inside'). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 'Why' questions show what caused something to happen. 'How' questions help explain the way something works, how something happens, or how to do something. Phrases and words used to show that one thing depends on another include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> if ... then ... (e.g. 'If the sun is shining, then I must wear a hat') when (e.g. 'When the sun shines, I must wear a hat') unless (e.g. 'Unless I wear a hat, I can't go out in the sun') as long as (e.g. 'As long as it is sunny and hot, I must wear my hat'). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Closed questions (e.g. 'Do you know ...?', 'Is it true that ...?') are useful for confirming facts or checking understanding because they encourage brief, specific responses. Open-ended questions (e.g. 'Why ...?' or 'How ...?') encourage extended thinking and elaboration. Words and phrases such as 'might', 'could', 'maybe', and 'what if ...' help explore different possible causes and predict what could happen next (e.g. 'What if it rains?', 'Maybe she forgot her lunch', 'He might be late'). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Asking and answering who, what, where questions Linking actions and outcomes using 'because' or 'so' 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Asking and answering clarification questions Explaining motives and outcomes using if/then statements 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Asking and answering why and how questions to explain ideas Explaining how and why people make choices or events occur, using cause-effect and if/then reasoning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Asking and answering open-ended questions to explore ideas and cause and effect Suggesting alternative causes or outcomes for actions by considering if/then scenarios and predicting results
	Presenting to others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reciting a text or song involves remembering the words and speaking or singing in time with the group. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Oral presentations are spoken performances where individuals or groups communicate ideas, information, or stories to an audience. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Oral presentations often include visual and written aids, notes, or prompts that support memory and presentation organisation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reciting items (e.g. short texts or songs) together with others 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reciting items (e.g. short texts or songs) independently 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Preparing and presenting short recitations and oral presentations on a topic, using visual or written scaffolds 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Preparing and confidently presenting short recitations and oral presentations on a topic, using independently prepared prompts 	
		<p>Teaching Considerations: Verbal reasoning</p> <p>During the first year</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> When speaking, most sounds will typically be articulated correctly at school entry, taking into consideration students' dialects and accents. A few sounds can take longer to develop such as /s/, /z/, /l/, /sh/, /ch/, /zh/, /r/, and /th/. If students are still mispronouncing words with adjacent consonants (e.g. 'stop', 'green') and multi-syllable words (e.g. 'hospital', 'helicopter') after a year at school, teaching support can be found in the teacher guidance for accelerating progress in literacy. <p>During the second year</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> When speaking, most sounds will typically be articulated correctly, including in words with adjacent consonants and multiple syllables, taking into consideration students' dialects and accents. If students are still misarticulating /s/, /z/, /l/, /sh/, /ch/, and /zh/, teaching support can be found in the teacher guidance for accelerating progress in literacy. <p>During the third year</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> When speaking, most sounds and words will typically be articulated correctly, taking into consideration students' dialects and accents. If students are still misarticulating /r/, voiceless /th/ (as in 'thin') and voiced /th/ (as in 'this'), teaching support can be found in the teacher guidance for accelerating progress in literacy. <p>All years</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> For emergent bilingual and multilingual learners, seek information about the phonemes present in their known language(s). English phonemes that are not present in their other language(s) are likely to need careful teaching and practice. 							

Oral Language		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>				Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>											
		During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year	During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year								
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-verbal communication — such as facial expressions, gestures, body language, and posture, and proximity — ideally reinforces spoken messages. • Speaking loudly can signal confidence, anger, urgency, excitement, or an important point; speaking softly can signal hesitancy or calmness. • Speaking fast can signal nervousness, excitement, or urgency; speaking slowly can signal seriousness, thoughtfulness, or an important point. 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using facial expressions and gestures that support meaning • Speaking with appropriate, audible volume so they can be heard 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using non-verbal communication to support the message being communicated • Adjusting volume and pace 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using non-verbal communication to support the message being communicated • Considering position and posture when addressing an audience • Experimenting with volume and pace to convey meaning 			
		<p>Teaching Considerations: Non-verbal communication</p> <p>All years</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Be mindful of cultural differences and unique neurodivergent preferences when teaching about non-verbal communication, as these can influence students' interpretations, degree of familiarity, and comfort. 															
		Listening and responding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active listening involves giving full attention to a speaker, including their verbal and non-verbal cues, to understand their message. • Effective conversations involve active listening, taking turns, sharing opinions and ideas, asking thoughtful questions, and responding respectfully. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effective discussions involve actively contributing, building on others' ideas, and asking questions to encourage others to contribute. • Sharing other people's opinions and viewpoints involves respectful language and supporting evidence. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Actively listening to speakers • Initiating and joining discussions • Engaging in respectful greetings and farewells 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Actively listening to speakers • Participating in conversations, maintaining the topic, and responding • Offering reasons for their opinions 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participating in conversations, taking turns, actively listening, and contributing • Respectfully agreeing, disagreeing, and adding on to ideas • Explaining reasons for their opinions and ideas 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participating in discussions, taking turns, actively listening, questioning, and contributing • Rewording, summarising, and building on others' ideas respectfully • Changing topics appropriately • Sharing others' opinions and viewpoints 				
Communication for Learning	Reflective and strategic communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Words can be used to ask for help, share needs, and express preferences (e.g. 'can you help me please?', 'I like this ...'). • Talking and listening follow patterns — taking turns, using names, and responding with kind words are part of expected classroom talk. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Talking about learning includes saying what was challenging, what helped, and what could be done differently next time. • Comparative words and phrases (e.g. 'easier than', 'harder than', 'better') help explain differences in learning experiences. • Explanatory phrases such as 'because', 'I like it when', support reflection and expressing opinions and preferences. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sequencing phrases, such as 'first I ... then I ...' help explain the steps taken during learning. • Reflective sentence starters (e.g. 'I found it tricky when ...', 'I used a strategy like ...') support putting thought processes, choices, and feelings into words. • Evaluative language (e.g. 'I did well at ...', 'I need to work on ...') helps describe what went well and what could be improved. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oral language can be used to explain the connections between what was done, why it was done, and what was learnt. • Asking probing questions (e.g. 'why did that happen?' or 'what could I try next?') helps us reflect and grow as learners. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Requesting assistance appropriately to support their own learning • Using short phrases to explain needs, opinions, and preferences • Engaging with expected classroom talk through meaningful participation in learning conversations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describing their learning, and articulating challenges, supports, and possible next steps • Using comparative and explanatory language to express their feelings, opinions, and preferences about their learning and experiences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Describing the steps taken during a learning task using spoken language that links actions and ideas • Using reflective language structures to describe their thoughts and feelings about their learning and experiences • Using evaluative language to identify strengths and areas for improvement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflecting on and explaining their learning, using clear, connected talk that links actions, reasons, and outcomes • Using probing questions to challenge themselves 								

Reading

Reading		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>				Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>			
		During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year	During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year
Word Recognition	Phonemic awareness and phonics knowledge	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spoken words are made up of individual sounds (phonemes) that are blended together. There are two types of sounds: vowel and consonant. Vowel sounds are made with an open mouth and nothing blocks the sound. Consonant sounds are blocked by the lips, teeth, or tongue. Every word has at least one vowel sound. Vowel sounds can be short or long. The short vowel sounds are the /a/ sound in 'an', the /e/ sound in 'egg', the /i/ sound in 'in', the /o/ sound in 'on' and the /u/ sound in 'us' <i>[the content within // is the phoneme]</i>. The long vowel sounds are the vowel letter names (A E I O U). 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Orally identifying the first, last, and middle phonemes in a three-phoneme word and connecting these to print Orally blending up to three phonemes to make words 			
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> One sound (phoneme) can be shown by one letter (a grapheme), such as the in 'bat' <i>[the content within <> is the grapheme]</i>. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> One sound (phoneme) can be shown by more than one letter working together (a grapheme), such as the <ch> in 'chip' and <sh> in 'ship' (which are consonant digraphs). Some long vowel sounds are shown with two letters next to each other working together, such as the /long e/ sound shown by <ee> in 'bee'. Some long vowel sounds are shown with two vowels separated by a consonant, such as the /long a/ sound shown by <a_e> in 'cane' (split digraph). Different letter combinations (graphemes) can show the same sounds (phonemes), such as the /long a/ sound being shown by <ai> in 'rain' and <a_e> in 'cane'. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some letter combinations show two vowel sounds that blend together, such as the /oy/ in toy (diphthong). When a vowel letter is followed by an <r>, it shows a sound that is different from the sound of each individual letter, such as the /ar/ in 'car' and the /ir/ in 'bird' (r-controlled vowels). Different sounds (phonemes) can be shown with the same letter combinations (graphemes), such as <ow> in 'cow' and <ow> in 'snow'. Different letter combinations (graphemes) can show the same sounds (phonemes), such as the /oy/ sound being shown by <oy> in 'boy' and <oi> in 'boil' or the /er/ sound being shown by <er> in 'her', <ir> in 'bird', and <ur> in 'fur'. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sounds (phonemes) can be shown with unusual letter combinations (graphemes) such as <igh> for the /long a/ sound, and <sc> for the /s/ sound. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Naming lowercase and uppercase letters of the alphabet Matching all single letters to at least one short-vowel or consonant phoneme 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pronouncing the most frequent phoneme(s) for all consonant digraphs and some long-vowel graphemes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pronouncing the frequent phoneme(s) for: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> all common long vowel graphemes diphthongs r-controlled vowels 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pronouncing the correct phoneme for less common grapheme–phoneme correspondences
		<p>Teaching Considerations: Phonemic awareness and phonics knowledge</p> <p>All years</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Ministry of Education's Ready to Read Phonics Plus scope and sequence is a detailed evidence-based scope and sequence that guides day-to-day phonics teaching. It accompanies Ready to Read Phonics Plus resources, including sound and phonics cards and decodable books, that are provided free to schools. 							

Reading		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>				Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>									
		During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year	During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year						
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The phonics practice statements make clear the expected types of grapheme-phoneme correspondences (such as diphthongs or consonant digraphs) that will be covered during each period of the curriculum. For example, all consonant digraphs need to be taught by the end of the first year and all common long vowel graphemes need to be taught by the end of the second year. Research supports students being introduced to three-to-four English grapheme-phoneme correspondences a week. This brisk pace of instruction has been shown to contribute to better reading and writing outcomes. Teach phonemes together with graphemes, as research indicates that this leads to stronger reading outcomes than providing oral phonemic awareness activities without letters. Be responsive to students' strengths and needs. This includes the use of fingerspelling for students who use NZSL or Braille for students who are blind, with the support of specialist resource teachers. For emergent bilingual and multilingual learners, seek information about the phonemes present in their known language(s), as English phonemes that are not present in their other language(s) are likely to need careful teaching and practice. 													
Decoding		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Written words are made up of letters and letter combinations (graphemes) that match to sounds (phonemes). Decoding an unknown word (with one syllable) involves: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> using phonics knowledge to match letters and letter combinations (graphemes) to the correct sounds (phonemes) saying the sounds without pausing between them (e.g. mmmmaaaat) and sliding from one sound to the next until the whole word is sounded out (continuous blending). 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding consonant-vowel-consonant (CVC) words in isolation and in connected text, using their phonics knowledge 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding words with adjacent consonants, consonant digraphs, and some long-vowel patterns in connected text, using their phonics knowledge 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding common words with long-vowel patterns, diphthongs, and r-controlled vowels in connected text, using their phonics knowledge 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding words with less-common graphemes or grapheme-phoneme correspondences in connected text, using their phonics knowledge 			
		<p>Teaching Considerations: Decoding grapheme-phoneme correspondences in connected text</p> <p>All years</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teach students to apply their phonics knowledge when decoding words that they do not yet recognise automatically, and without using context and picture cues. The context and pictures can be used to support making meaning. 													
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Words are made up of parts that have meaning (morphemes). A <s> at the end of a word often shows that there is more than one (e.g. 'cats'). An <ed> at the end of a word often shows that something has already happened (e.g. 'jumped'). An <ing> at the end of a word often shows that something is happening right now (e.g. 'She is running'), is ongoing (e.g. 'They were playing outside'), or it can turn an action word (verb) into something we can name (noun) and talk about (e.g. 'Swimming is fun'). 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Prefixes are added to the start of a base word to form a new word with a new meaning. Suffixes are added to the end of a base word to form a new word with a new meaning. The re- prefix shows that something is being done again (e.g. 'replay' means to play again, 'rebuild' means to build again). The un- prefix shows that something is the opposite of the base word (e.g. un-changes the base word 'happy' to 'unhappy', which has the opposite meaning). The -er suffix can show a person or thing that does something (e.g. 'teacher', 'runner', 'baker'), or that something has more of a quality than something else (e.g. 'taller', 'faster'). The -est suffix shows that something has the most of a quality when comparing more than two things (e.g. 'tallest' means the most tall). 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The in- prefix shows that something is missing or the opposite of the base word (e.g. 'incomplete' means not finished, 'incorrect' means not right). The dis- prefix is similar to the in- prefix in that it can show something is missing or the opposite of the base word (e.g. 'disagree') but it can also show that something has been undone or reversed (e.g. 'disconnect' means to undo a connection). The -less suffix shows 'without' or 'not having something' (e.g. 'hopeless', 'fearless'). The -ful suffix shows 'full of' or 'having a lot of something' (e.g. 'hopeful', 'thankful'). 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding CVC words with the suffix -s, using their phonics and morpheme knowledge 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding words with the suffixes -ed and -ing, using their phonics and morpheme knowledge 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding words with a range of common prefixes (re-, un-) and suffixes (-er, -est, -ly), using their phonics and morpheme knowledge 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding words with a wide range of prefixes (in-, dis-) and suffixes (-less, -ful), using their phonics and morpheme knowledge 	

Reading		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>				Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>			
		During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year	During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year
				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The -ly suffix shows how something happens or is done (e.g. 'quickly' means in a quick way). 					
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Words are made up of syllables. Words can have one syllable, but many words have two or more. Syllables sound like beats in words. Multi-syllable words can be broken into syllables to help with reading them. Syllables in multi-syllable words can be broken into phonemes to help with reading them. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Multi-syllable words can be broken into prefixes, suffixes, and base words to help with reading them. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Word knowledge (e.g. word origins or knowledge of unstressed syllables) can be used to help read multi-syllable words. Some syllables in multi-syllable words are spoken with less emphasis or force, and their vowel sounds are usually quieter and quicker. Despite being spelt with any vowel, they sound like the short /u/ sound or short /i/ sound (e.g. the /po/ in 'police'). 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breaking words into syllables Decoding two-syllable words with a closed-syllable pattern (e.g. 'rapid' and 'picnic'), using their phonics knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding two- and three-syllable words with all taught correspondences (e.g. 'costume' and 'lightning'), using their phonics and morpheme knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding multi-syllable words, including words with unstressed syllables, using their syllable, morpheme, and word knowledge
		<p>Teaching Considerations: Multi-syllable words</p> <p>During the first year</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> If students have difficulty identifying the syllable beats in words, teach students to place their hand under their chin and say a word slowly. Each time their chin drops, that is a syllable. <p>During the third year</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Note that unstressed syllables have vowels that do not make their typical sounds. Instead, they make sounds known as the schwa. The schwa often sounds like the short 'u' sound or the short 'i' sound, like the sound for 'er' in water, or the sound for 'o' in police. Teaching students about the schwa sound can be helpful when they begin to read multisyllabic words because it is the most common vowel sound in the English language. 							
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sometimes words have one or more letter-sound combinations (grapheme-phoneme correspondences) that are unknown or unusual, and these can be learnt by paying close attention to the unknown or unusual combinations and matching the letters (graphemes) to the sounds (phonemes). 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding and reading the most common high-frequency words in decodable texts at their year level 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding and reading the most common high-frequency words in decodable texts at their year level 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding and reading the most common high-frequency words in decodable texts at their year level 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using their phonics and morpheme knowledge to decode and read words that are not entirely regular, including high-frequency words 	
		<p>Teaching Considerations: Irregular words</p> <p>All years</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide multiple opportunities for students to learn high-frequency words by mapping their grapheme-phoneme correspondences in the same way they would map other words. This will enable orthographic mapping, which is the process of connecting the spelling, pronunciation, and meaning of a word in long-term memory for instant retrieval as a 'sight' word. Draw attention to any unknown or irregular grapheme-phoneme correspondence(s). Most irregular words have only one irregular grapheme-phoneme correspondence (e.g. 'said' has unusual spelling for one phoneme only — the short /e/ — which can be mapped to the <ai> grapheme). 							
			<p><i>[The content within <> is the grapheme and within // is the phoneme]</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In New Zealand, texts can include words from te reo Māori (kupu Māori). Te reo Māori has short and long vowels (a, ā, e, ē, i, ī, o, ō, u, ū). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Accurate pronunciation of vowels, vowel length, and vowel combinations (e.g. au, ai) supports clear communication of commonly used words, names, and expressions in te reo Māori. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding and reading kupu Māori correctly in Year 2 level texts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding and reading kupu Māori correctly in Year 3 level texts 	

Reading		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>				Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>			
		During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year	During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year
				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The vowel phoneme for <a> is the /a/ in 'car', for <e> is the /e/ in 'egg', for <i> is the /ee/ in 'tee', for <o> is the /or/ in 'torn', and for <u> is the /oo/ in 'too'. A tohutō (macron) marks a long vowel phoneme, which is the same as the short vowel phoneme but held for a longer time. The digraph 'wh' shows one phoneme (e.g. the /f/ sound). The digraph 'ng' shows one phoneme (e.g. a sound similar to the English /ng/ in 'sing'). The /r/ phoneme is a soft rolled /r/, requiring the tip of the tongue to tap quickly against the roof of the mouth. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A tohutō (macron) marks a long vowel phoneme and can change the meaning of a word (e.g. matua = father, mātua = parents). 				
		<p>Teaching Considerations: Kupu Māori</p> <p>During the second and third years</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Support orthographic mapping by providing multiple opportunities to learn kupu Māori through grapheme–phoneme mapping. Draw attention to any unfamiliar correspondences and tohutō (macrons) to strengthen long-term memory connections between spelling, pronunciation, and meaning. When teaching kupu Māori with diphthongs (e.g. <ōu> — as in 'tōu', <au> — as in 'rau', <ai> — as in 'pai') help students to blend the two vowel sounds correctly together. Online Māori dictionaries with recorded words can support modelling correct pronunciation. A common mistake is pronouncing <au> like the /ow/ as in town when it sounds more like the /ow/ in snow. It is important to note that there are unique dialects across iwi and regions with differences in pronunciation and vocabulary. While teachers are not expected to teach these dialects, understanding that some learners may pronounce kupu Māori in ways that align with their whakapapa is key to fostering inclusive and respectful language practices. 							
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> If a read word doesn't sound like a word the reader has heard before, a reading error may have occurred. Reading errors can sometimes be fixed by using phonics knowledge to recheck the word's sounds (phonemes) against its letter combinations (graphemes). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading errors can sometimes be fixed by saying the vowel another way (flexing). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Self-correcting their decoding attempts using taught grapheme–phoneme knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Self-correcting their decoding attempts using grapheme–phoneme knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adjusting their decoding attempts by varying pronunciation, making use of different phonemes represented by the graphemes, and confirming with oral vocabulary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adjusting their decoding attempts by applying the variety of phonemes that graphemes can represent, including the schwa sound in unstressed syllables, and confirming with oral vocabulary 		
Conventions of print		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Each written word on the page is matched to a spoken word (one-to-one matching). Words are written with spaces between one word and the next. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Matching written words to spoken words while decoding (one-to-one matching), pointing to words if necessary 				
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Written text in English is read from left to right across the page. Readers need to move their eyes from the end of one line of text to the beginning of the next line to keep reading. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading from left to right and using a return sweep for the next line of text 				

Reading		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>				Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>			
		During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year	During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Capital letters and punctuation marks, such as full stops, help show where sentences begin and end. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Exclamation marks help show feelings (e.g. surprise or excitement) and how a sentence should sound. Speech marks show talking. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Question marks show questions. Commas separate parts of a sentence and items in a list. When reading, a comma is a good indicator of when to pause. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Parentheses are punctuation marks used around extra information in a sentence. Print features, such as bold and italics, can be used to emphasise key words or ideas. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying capital letters and full stops to explain where sentences begin and end 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying capital letters, full stops, and exclamation marks to explain where sentences begin and end Identifying speech marks showing what is said by a character within a story 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying and explaining the purpose of basic punctuation (e.g. speech marks, commas, exclamation marks, question marks) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying and explaining the purpose of punctuation features (e.g. speech marks, commas, exclamation marks, question marks, parentheses) Identifying and explaining print features (e.g. bold print and italics)
		<p>Teaching Considerations: Conventions of print</p> <p>All years</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> If students are learning English as an additional language, consider any differences between the script (e.g. symbols or letters) and print conventions (e.g. direction of text) of English and those of their home and heritage languages. 							
	Fluency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading comprehension depends on reading words effortlessly at a natural talking pace. Punctuation provides information about how to group words (phrasing) when reading aloud. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading fluency involves reading words correctly, at a natural talking pace, and with expression. Expression means readers using their voice to match the feelings, punctuation, and meaning of the text. Reading with expression comes from understanding the meaning of the text. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading words with learnt grapheme–phoneme correspondences quickly, as blended units 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading words with learnt grapheme–phoneme correspondences accurately and automatically Reading decodable sentences and Year 1 level text, with phrasing and growing automaticity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading Year 2 level text, accurately, with expression, and at oral-reading fluency rates appropriate for Year 2 students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading Year 3 level text, accurately, with expression, and at oral-reading fluency rates appropriate for Year 3 students 		
	<p>Teaching Considerations: Fluency</p> <p>All years</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Information about Oral Reading Fluency (ORF) assessments that are scored based on ORF norms for each year is available on Tāhūrangi. 								
Comprehension	Vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Asking questions about new or unfamiliar words in texts builds new vocabulary and understanding. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The meaning of unfamiliar words can be worked out by using information from the words and sentences around them (the context). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The meaning of unfamiliar words can be worked out by noticing where a word appears in a sentence and how it connects to other words (syntax). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Knowledge of the meaningful parts of words (morphemes) can help with a word's meaning. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Noticing and asking questions about new or unfamiliar words as they arise in texts that are read to them 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Asking questions about unfamiliar words and using the context to identify the meaning of those words, when text is being read to them 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using the context and knowledge of syntax to determine the meaning of unknown words and phrases in texts that are read to them 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using the context and knowledge of prefixes and root words to understand new vocabulary in texts
		<p>Teaching Considerations: Vocabulary</p> <p>During the first year and the second year</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> During the first two years at school, vocabulary teaching will usually take place during interactive teacher read-alouds. It is best to do this by quickly supplying student-friendly definitions, rather than by canvassing the class for guesses about the word's meaning. This ensures the flow of the story is not lost and that students do not remember incorrect meanings. <p>All years</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Explicitly teach vocabulary that is at students' age-appropriate, oral-language level, rather than at their decoding level. Encourage them to proactively ask questions about unfamiliar words. New vocabulary learning will centre on less-common words and words that express abstract concepts. In addition, English language learners and students with language-related learning challenges will benefit from explicit teaching and incidental support for some common, everyday vocabulary. 							
	Sentence structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A sentence is read from a capital letter to a full stop. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A sentence is read from a capital letter to end punctuation (.?!). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writers might use different words such as 'he', 'Tama', or 'the boy' to talk about the same person in consecutive sentences. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ideas can be developed within and across sentences. Words such as 'however', 'then', 'next', 'also', and 'for example' show how one sentence connects to the next (connectives). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading and comprehending simple sentences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading and comprehending both extended simple and compound sentences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading complex sentences with subordinating conjunctions, holding the meaning across the whole sentence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading and holding meaning within longer sentences and across sentences

Reading		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>				Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>				
		During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year	During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year	
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some sentences have two parts that are equally important (compound sentence), joined by words such as 'and', 'but', 'for', and 'so' (coordinating conjunctions). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some sentences have one part that is the main idea, and another part that adds extra information and starts with words such as 'because', 'when', 'although', and 'if' (complex sentence with subordinating conjunctions). Breaking down complex sentences into their parts and putting them in your own words (paraphrasing) can help with working out what they mean. 					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Following the subject in consecutive sentences, even when a pronoun, synonym, or noun phrase is used 	
	Text form, structure, style, and features	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Poems are written in lines and stanzas, often have rhyming words or a rhythm, and use descriptive or creative language. Stories are written in sentences and paragraphs; have a beginning, middle, and end; and have characters, settings, and action. Words, images, and symbols are part of text. Texts are created to entertain, inform, or persuade audiences to think or feel in certain ways. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Non-fiction texts are written in paragraphs with clear topic sentences; may have headings and subheadings; and include facts, quotes, and examples. Authors make choices about what they include in their writing to support their intended purpose. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Text form refers to the kind of text (e.g. an article, poem, or story). Each text form has distinct structures, and features that support their form and their purpose; for example, headings help organise a report (form) and help the reader find and understand information (purpose). Text structure and features (e.g. visual features, headings, glossaries, chapters, stanzas, scenes) are used to organise information and support meaning. Language features (e.g. figurative and topic-specific language, tense) help communicate meaning clearly, engage the audience, and create a mood or feeling. Authors use words and text features intentionally to make people feel certain emotions, think particular ideas, or take action. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying basic features of poems and stories in response to specific questions Identifying the words in a read-aloud text that make the audience feel a certain way about a character or event 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying and discussing the structure and basic features of poems, stories, and non-fiction texts Explaining how the author's choice of words, symbols, and images communicates their intended meaning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying and discussing across a variety of different texts and text forms: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> how texts are structured the use of text features how language is used how language and text features are used to influence feelings, thoughts, and actions 			

Reading		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>				Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>			
		During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year	During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year
Comprehension strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Texts contain information, such as facts, ideas, events, or explanations, that readers can locate and interpret to make sense of what they read. • Prior knowledge and what has already happened in a text can be used to predict what might happen next. • Summarising is a strategy for identifying and explaining key ideas in a text, using features such as the title and repeated words. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reading is an active process where readers think about meaning as they read. • Skilled readers use strategies such as checking for sense, rereading, and drawing on prior knowledge to understand texts. • Stories and texts follow a sequence, and readers can use what has already happened to predict what might come next. • Asking and answering questions (e.g. 'who' or 'what') is a summarising strategy that supports retelling the key details in a text. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Skilled readers check their understanding as they read and use strategies to fix confusion (e.g. they reread, ask questions, and use what they know about the topic and vocabulary). • Pictures and other visual features in a text can help readers understand ideas that are not fully explained in the words. • Skilled readers use time order words and text structure to help them retell key details in the order they appear. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Readers use a range of strategies to understand more complex texts, including slowing down, rereading, visualising, checking for sense, sounding out words, and asking and answering questions. • Authors often leave some information implied — in words, pictures, speech, or quotes — rather than directly stated, to make their writing more interesting. • Readers use implied information in texts and their own knowledge to understand ideas that are not directly stated and make predictions. • Readers can identify main ideas and key information across a text by recognising how paragraph structure groups related ideas, helping them understand the text's overall meaning or message. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using their prior knowledge of a topic or concept, along with their knowledge of words, to respond to questions about texts during a teacher read-aloud • Using prior knowledge to predict what might happen next in a text • Retelling the key events in a story with the support of visuals or props, as needed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responding to questions and asking for clarification during a teacher read-aloud • Using rereading as a strategy when a sentence they have read does not make sense, to find where and why meaning broke down • Using the events that have already happened in a text, along with their prior knowledge, to predict what might happen next • Retelling the key details from a text in response to prompting questions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitoring their understanding of texts and attempting to repair meaning by rereading, drawing on their prior knowledge and vocabulary knowledge, and asking questions • Using what is stated in a text, along with their prior knowledge, to predict what might happen next • Using visual images in the text to check and support their understanding of ideas that might not be directly stated • Retelling the key details from a text in response to sequence questions • Using key details to make a simple statement about what the text helps the reader to understand 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitoring their understanding of a range of texts and repairing meaning by adjusting reading speed to accommodate complexity, rereading, visualising, checking, decoding, and asking and answering open-ended questions of the text • Making use of stated and implied information or ideas in a text to make connections with their own knowledge, make predictions, and build understanding • Retelling the key details from a text in sequence, beginning to use paragraphs as a structural guide to identify the main ideas • Using information from different parts of the text to make a statement about the text's key meanings or messages 	
	<p>Teaching Considerations: Comprehension strategies</p> <p>All years</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Most texts used for teaching comprehension will be read to students during this period, especially in the first two years of schooling. The most effective way to build background knowledge is through the teaching of content from other learning areas. • Activating prior knowledge and building background knowledge, including key vocabulary, before reading improves students' ability to comprehend the text. • Comprehension strategies are taught and revisited in the context of reading texts and are used together. They are tools to support students to make sense of complex ideas and texts and build knowledge, not goals in themselves. Using strategies, such as summarising, also supports retention of what students have read. 								
Critical Analysis	Interpretations and connections	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When readers think about how a text relates to their own life, it can help them understand the text better. • Readers can relate texts to their personal experiences, emotions, and thoughts by identifying relevant connections. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An opinion is a personal belief or viewpoint that may be supported by reasons or evidence. • Readers can relate texts to their personal experiences and prior knowledge about topics by identifying relevant connections. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Readers can relate ideas in texts to their personal experiences, prior knowledge about topics, and knowledge about other texts by identifying relevant connections. • Sharing opinions and feelings with others helps readers connect with a text's ideas. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Readers can relate ideas in texts to their personal experiences, other texts, and their knowledge of the world by identifying relevant connections. • Different readers can have different views of the same text. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Making personal connections to texts by sharing their feelings and thoughts, drawn from their experiences, about the characters or ideas in texts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responding to, sharing opinions about, and making connections to texts by drawing on their knowledge of topics and their experiences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identifying connections between the ideas expressed in texts and their own knowledge of topics, other texts, and their own experiences, and responding by sharing opinions about those ideas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explaining their response to the ideas in texts by making connections to their own experiences, other texts, and their knowledge of the world, and discussing different ways texts can be viewed or understood

Reading		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>				Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>			
		During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year	During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sharing opinions, personal thoughts, and feelings that may be the same or different from others' helps readers deepen their understanding. 				
		Teaching Considerations: Critical analysis All years <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Most critical analysis during this period of learning will happen during interactive teacher read-alouds in response to questions from the teacher. 							

Writing

Writing		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>				Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>															
		During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year	During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year												
Transcription Skills	Handwriting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Forming letters and numerals correctly and clearly enables others to read handwriting easily. Consistent size, spacing, and placement on the line contribute to handwriting that is easy to read. A functional pencil grip allows better control and precision and reduces hand fatigue. Applying the right amount of pressure prevents strain and supports legibility. Sitting correctly allows their arms and hands to move freely and smoothly, which supports fluent and comfortable handwriting. Sitting comfortably helps maintain focus and reduces fatigue. 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Forming most lower-case letters and numerals correctly and legibly, with each letter or numeral on the line Sitting comfortably, applying a comfortable amount of pressure, and using a functional pencil grip, with support 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Forming most lower- and upper-case letters and numerals correctly and legibly, with each letter or numeral on the line, and attending to size and spacing Sitting comfortably, applying a comfortable amount of pressure, and using a functional pencil grip, independently 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Forming all letters and numerals correctly and legibly, attending to size, placement, and spacing Consistently practising good posture and a functional grip when writing 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Printing all letters and numerals correctly and legibly, attending to size, placement, spacing, and slope with ease and automaticity Consistently practising good posture and a functional grip when writing across the curriculum 			
	Spelling	<p><i>[The content within <> is the grapheme and within // is the phoneme]</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelling is used to record sounds (phonemes) in spoken words. There are two types of sounds (phonemes): vowel and consonant. Vowel sounds (phonemes) are made with an open mouth and nothing blocks the sound. Consonant sounds (phonemes) are blocked by the lips, teeth or tongue. Syllables sound like beats in words. Segmenting one-syllable words into individual sounds (phonemes) supports accurate spelling. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Segmenting longer words into syllables first, and then each syllable into sounds (phonemes), supports accurate spelling. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Orally segmenting phonemes in a single-syllable, CVC word 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Orally segmenting phonemes in a single-syllable, CCVC or CVCC word 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Orally segmenting two-syllable words into syllables, then segmenting syllables into phonemes for spelling 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Orally segmenting multi-syllable words into syllables, then segmenting syllables into phonemes for spelling 									
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Accurate spelling involves listening for each sound (phoneme) in a word and choosing the correct letter or letter combination (grapheme) to represent it. Many sounds (phonemes) can be spelt in more than one way. In English, some sounds are spelt with one letter, some are spelt with two (digraph), some are spelt with three (trigraph), and some are spelt with four (quadgraph). There are many kinds of vowel sounds. Short vowel sounds are the /a/ sound in 'an', the /e/ sound in 'egg', the /i/ sound in 'in', the /o/ sound in 'on' and the /u/ sound in 'us'. Short vowel sounds are the most predictable in how they are spelt, and they are normally spelt with one letter. When adjacent consonants are at the beginning of words, it can be hard to hear or distinguish the second or third consonant. When adjacent consonants are at the end of words, it can be hard to hear or distinguish the first consonant. 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying and recording phonemes in words, including the five short vowel sounds and sounds written with a single-letter consonant 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying and recording phonemes in words, including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the five short vowel sounds all single-letter consonant sounds some consonant digraphs Applying phoneme-to-grapheme knowledge to spell single-syllable CVC words, words with consonant digraphs (e.g. sh, th, ng), and words with two adjacent consonants (CVCC, CCVC) 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying and recording phonemes in words, including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> all short-vowel sounds all single-letter consonant sounds consonant sounds spelt with double letters (e.g. ff, ss) consonant sounds spelt with digraphs and trigraphs (e.g. -dge, -tch) two or three adjacent consonant sounds (CCCVC, CCCVCC) 							

Writing		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>				Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>							
		During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year	During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year				
		<p>Teaching Considerations: Spelling</p> <p>During the first year</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> During the first year, the grapheme-phoneme correspondences needed for spelling and reading are taught together. This will include the decoding and spelling of long vowel patterns. By the end of the first year, the goal is for students to know at least one frequent spelling pattern for each English phoneme. <p>All years</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teach students groups of words that share the same grapheme-phoneme correspondences or morphological elements. 											
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Long vowel sounds (phonemes) are the vowel letter names (A E I O U). Long vowel sounds (phonemes) are less predictable in how they are spelt, and they are often spelt with more than one letter. There are other vowel sounds (phonemes) that are not short or long but are still said with an open mouth, such as vowels with an 'r' as in 'shark', the 'ou' and 'ow' in 'house' and 'down', and the 'oi' and 'oy' in 'coin' and 'toy'. 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelling words with the vowel patterns: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <a_e>, <ai>, and <ay> representing /long a/ <e_e> representing /long e/ <i_e> representing /long i/ <o_e> representing /long o/ <u_e> representing /long u/ <ou> and <ow> representing /ow/ <oo> as in 'good' <oy> and <oi> as in 'coin' and 'toy' <ee> and <ea> representing /long e/ <oa> and <ow> representing /long o/ Spelling words with r-controlled vowels represented by <ar>, <or>, <er>, <ir>, and <ur> 							
		<p>Teaching Considerations: Spelling vowel patterns</p> <p>During the second and third years</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In the second and third years at school, complex vowel spelling patterns are usually introduced <i>after</i> they have been introduced for reading — spelling skills typically develop more slowly than reading skills. Students will not be able to correctly spell all the words they can read. Reintroducing the spelling patterns afterwards, but in the same sequence as reading instruction, builds on students' existing knowledge of grapheme–phoneme correspondences. By the end of year three, the goal is for students to have been taught to spell words containing all the listed vowel patterns. 											
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High-frequency words are words that appear often in spoken and written language, so spelling them correctly is essential for clear communication. Some high-frequency words have one or more phonemes that don't match usual spelling patterns that have already been taught. These words are spelt correctly by mapping and remembering the unknown or unusual parts. 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelling five or more words that are high frequency in their oral vocabulary and contain irregular or currently untaught phoneme–grapheme correspondences 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelling 10 or more words that are high frequency in their oral vocabulary and contain irregular or currently untaught phoneme–grapheme correspondences 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelling 20 or more words that are high frequency in their oral vocabulary and contain irregular or currently untaught phoneme–grapheme correspondences Adding common suffixes 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelling the most commonly used irregular words containing less typical phoneme–grapheme correspondences Adding less-common suffixes (–er, –ly) and applying simple spelling conventions Spelling easier contractions for two-word phrases 	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A suffix (e.g. -s, -ed, -ing) is a meaningful part added to the end of a word. 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There are specific spelling conventions for adding some suffixes (such as taking away 'e' from a split-vowel digraph before adding a vowel suffix such as 'hope' → 'hoping'). A contraction is the shortened form of two combined words, leaving out certain letters and replacing them with an apostrophe (e.g. 'I'm', 'she's', 'he's', 'don't'). 							

Writing		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>				Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>										
		During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year	During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year							
Composition	Audience, purpose, and language choice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing is created for a reader, called the 'audience', and writers make choices based on who that audience is Writers have a reason for writing, called the 'purpose' (e.g. to tell a story, give information, or ask for something). Considering the audience and purpose before writing helps writers decide what content to include and how to express it. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Choosing the right language style (register), such as formal or informal, helps make the writing clear and suitable for the audience and purpose. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Following along while the teacher writes for different purposes Suggesting an audience and purpose for the teacher to write about 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying the audience and purpose for a text, then planning and writing for the intended audience and purpose Choosing an appropriate language register (e.g. formal or informal language) 								
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ideas are expressed more clearly, precisely, or vividly when the right words are chosen. Writers use special language features (e.g. alliteration, onomatopoeia, repetition, and simile) to entertain, engage their audience, and communicate meaning in creative ways. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Words can have similar meanings but differ in intensity or feeling (shades of meaning) and should be chosen to match the context and emotion of what is being written (e.g. 'freezing', 'frosty', 'chilly', 'cool'). 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Suggesting words and phrases related to the topic or concept when participating in shared writing Identifying simple language features during shared reading 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using words and phrases that show simple relationships and verbs that correctly show different tenses Identifying and discussing simple language features in texts that entertain 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Selecting and using adjectives, adverbs, vocabulary, and phrases that give clear details about an object or action Identifying and using rhyme, alliteration, onomatopoeia, and simile to entertain and engage the audience Selecting and using adjectives, adverbs, vocabulary, and phrases that are increasingly precise in expressing the intended meaning Using a range of language features to enhance writing and describe how they can communicate meaning figuratively 						
	Sentence structures, grammar, and punctuation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A sentence is a group of words that communicates an idea. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A simple sentence has one complete idea that includes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a naming word (subject), which tells who or what the sentence is about an action or description word (verb) or group of words, which tells what happens or what something is like. A sentence fragment/incomplete sentence is a group of words that is missing something important, such as a subject or a verb, so it doesn't make a full sentence. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A compound sentence is made by joining two complete sentences (independent clauses) with a joining word, such as 'and', 'but', or 'so' (coordinating conjunction). 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A complex sentence has one complete idea that makes sense on its own (independent clause), joined with a supporting idea (dependent clause) with a joining word such as 'because', 'when', or 'if' (subordinating conjunction). A supporting idea that doesn't make sense on its own is a fragment (or incomplete sentence) unless it is joined to a complete idea with a joining word. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Repeating simple sentences, modelled by the teacher 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Saying a simple sentence, with a subject-verb clause Using simple sentences in writing 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Combining two simple sentences orally, using a coordinating conjunction, to form a compound sentence Using compound sentences with coordinating conjunctions in writing 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Combining two simple sentences orally, using a subordinating conjunction, to form a complex sentence Using complex sentences with subordinating conjunctions in writing
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Correct use of capital letters and punctuation makes writing clear and easy to understand. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Capital letters are used at the beginning of sentences and for names. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Full stops, question marks, and exclamation marks show where sentences end and what kind of sentence it is (e.g. a statement, a question, or an exclamation). Commas can be used to separate items in a list. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying and using a full stop at the end of the sentence 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Correctly using full stops and capital letters 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using full stops and capital letters correctly and independently 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using capital letters, full stops, question marks, and exclamation marks correctly Using commas for lists 				

Writing		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>				Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>			
		During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year	During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year
Writing	Writing to entertain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stories can be written to be fun and entertaining for readers. Stories can be about things that really happened or can be made up. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing about events involves telling what happened in the order it happened. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A narrative describes connected events, which can be true or made up. Writing about two or more events involves including details about where they happened and an ending. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing about real events involves including details about what happened, who, when, where, and the thoughts and feelings of people involved. Writing made-up stories involves including details about the setting, actions, characters' thoughts and feelings, and an ending. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Describing something that really happened or telling an invented story orally, pictorially, or through teacher scribing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing one or more sentences about a single event or several loosely linked events in the order in which they occurred 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing short narratives about two or more sequenced events, including some details regarding what happened and where, and providing some sense of closure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing a narrative in which they recount a well-elaborated event or short sequence of events, including details to describe setting, actions, thoughts, and feelings, and providing a sense of closure
	Writing to inform	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Information writing focuses on one main idea. Information writing starts with a title. Information writing is written in short sentences to share facts. Information writing may include labelled drawings. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A group of sentences can work together by starting with a main idea and then adding extra details to explain it more clearly. Numbered simple steps in writing can help the reader understand what to do. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A well-structured paragraph includes a topic sentence to introduce the main idea, supporting details to explain it, and a concluding sentence to wrap it up. Clear, numbered steps and words that give instructions (imperative verbs) show the reader exactly what they are expected to do. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Retelling learnt information about a topic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing one or more sentences sharing learnt information about a topic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing a series of sentences about a topic, including a main idea and some related details 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing a paragraph about a topic that includes a topic sentence, supporting details, and a concluding sentence
	Writing to persuade	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sharing an opinion means clearly expressing what they think or feel about a topic, often by starting with phrases such as 'I think ...' or 'I feel ...'. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Effective persuasive writing includes a clear opinion and supporting reasons, often expressed using phrases such as 'I think ... because ...' to show both their viewpoint and the reasoning behind it. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Orally stating an opinion or preference about a topic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing a sentence stating an opinion, feeling, or preference about a topic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing a series of sentences in which they state their opinion about a topic, followed by a reason for the opinion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing a paragraph that states an opinion about a topic, gives some supporting reasons for their opinion, and provides a concluding statement
Writing Processes	Planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Saying each sentence out loud before writing allows writers to choose the best words and organise ideas clearly. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using simple organisers (e.g. graphic organisers or mnemonics) helps writers plan their ideas and structure their texts, especially when writing a paragraph. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Notes are bullet points or short phrases used to capture important thoughts, facts or ideas when planning writing using organisers or mnemonics. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Planning their writing by saying a sentence to the teacher 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Planning their writing through talk, determining the precise wording of each sentence before writing it 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Planning a short series of sentences through talk, thinking carefully about each sentence before writing it 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using simple organisers to plan single-paragraph texts Using notes to record key ideas during planning
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Working towards specific writing goals helps writers focus on particular areas for improvement and enhances the overall quality of their writing. 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying and working towards a specific writing goal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying and working towards a specific writing goal based on revisions and edits made to previous writing 	
	Drafting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Drafting involves turning planned ideas into complete sentences and paragraphs. Writers begin their writing at the margin and use appropriately sized spaces between words to keep their work neat and easy to follow. 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing the sentence that they have planned orally 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing one or more sentences, after planning each sentence orally 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing a short series of related sentences that follow from their planning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing single-paragraph texts that follow from their planning
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Beginning at the margin and leaving spaces between words 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Beginning at the margin and leaving appropriately sized spaces between words 		

Writing	Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>				Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>					
	During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year	During the first six months	During the first year	During the second year	During the third year		
	Teaching Considerations: Planning and drafting All years <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Students must have enough knowledge about a topic to plan and write about it. This means they need to be supported to build the depth of understanding required for meaningful writing. Build students' knowledge about a topic by reading to and with them and providing relevant learning experiences and opportunities for discussion. 									
Revising and editing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rereading each sentence while writing helps make sure the writing makes sense and sounds right. Making changes to words can improve writing by making it clearer and more accurate. Making changes to sentences can improve their writing by making it clearer and helping it flow. Editing involves checking for correct spelling, capital letters at the beginning of sentences, and correct punctuation to clearly show where sentences end. Effective writers make improvements as they write. They plan, write, and fix their work many times. 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rereading to check the sentence Checking each sentence and adding any missing capital letters and full stops 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rereading to check each sentence as they write Checking each sentence for known spelling patterns, capital letters, and full stops 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rereading to check each sentence and making corrections when something does not make sense Adding or deleting words to clarify meaning, using feedback from teachers Making simple edits to draft sentences, using known spelling patterns, capital letters, and punctuation to indicate the end of a sentence 	
	Teaching Considerations: Revising and editing During the first six months and first year <ul style="list-style-type: none"> During the first six months students will require close support to reread and check each sentence as well as to add any missing capital letters and full stops. During the first year, students will become more independent in rereading and checking each sentence. They will need feedback and support as they continue to check for missing capital letters and full stops and as they begin to check for known spelling patterns. 									

Phase 2 (Years 4–6) teaching sequence

Teaching sequence guidance

This section provides guidance about structured literacy approaches, English language learners, and working with texts to support effective teaching of the English Learning Area's sequence statements.

Structured literacy approaches

Structured literacy approaches are evidence-based approaches to literacy instruction that are explicit, systematic, and cumulative. For the purposes of communication, reading, and writing, incorporate the following components:

- oral language, encompassing spoken and signed languages, including New Zealand Sign Language (NZSL), and, for students who are non-verbal, any first language communication methods a student uses, such as augmentative and alternative communication (AAC), and expressions such as vocalisations, gestures, movements, and images
- phonemic awareness
- systematic synthetic phonics to develop decoding and spelling skills
- handwriting
- vocabulary
- morphology
- syntax
- fluency
- text structure
- writing processes
- comprehension.

These components are reflected in the content of the English teaching sequence statements. Systematically and explicitly teaching these components to novice learners strengthens their understanding, helps to manage their cognitive load, and maximises their progress in acquiring literacy. However, structured literacy approaches do not focus only on what is taught; how literacy is taught is equally important. Teachers can use [teaching resources to support structured literacy approaches](#) to guide their implementation of these components. [Teacher guidance for accelerating progress in literacy](#) is also available to support teachers to meet the needs of students who need targeted support.

The teaching focus on the structured literacy approach components that take a lifetime to develop (such as vocabulary and comprehension) expands during Years 4–6. This expansion is because some of the components that are developed in a relatively short time frame (such as phonemic awareness and phonics for decoding) have been systematically taught during Years 0–3.

English Language Learners (ELLs)

Students learning English as an additional language are likely to need targeted support to learn English for everyday communication and to access the academic language of the curriculum. They may also begin learning English for the first time at any year level.

Some students will still be working through a decoding scope and sequence, and this may include English language learners who begin attending an English-medium school during Years 4–6. Teachers use diagnostic assessments to pinpoint needs and strengths and provide these students with intensive, accelerative, targeted support using age-appropriate materials.

Teachers use the [English Language Learning Progressions \(ELLP\) and English Language Learning Progressions \(ELLP\) Pathway](#) to plan targeted language support for new learners of English and those that are developing proficiency in the English language. While some everyday language may develop without explicit instruction

through interactions with peers, it will be important to ensure that academic and subject-specific language is explicitly taught. Teachers also support bilingual and multilingual students to connect with and use their first and heritage languages as valuable resources to progress learning and strengthen language and literacy outcomes.

Working with texts

Working with texts is at the core of English. How texts are used and how they are chosen are important considerations. Although reading and writing are described in separate strands, they are often used together. Texts that students read are used as models for writing, and writing is often a response to what they have read.

Teachers can support effective engagement with texts through the following practices:

- Read rich-language texts daily to students. This continues to be important because it provides opportunities to build students' vocabulary, content knowledge, knowledge of text structures and features, word knowledge, comprehension skills, and love of books. Read texts to students that are fun and that speak to their interests, identities, languages, and cultures.
- Explore a wide range of New Zealand, Pacific, and international texts with students, enabling a variety of interpretations and responses and providing windows into different places, times, and cultures. Provide opportunities to strengthen students' knowledge and understanding of New Zealand perspectives when making meaning.
- Provide opportunities and support for students to select texts for reading and writing based on their preferences and interests and talk about favourite texts. Give students choice and opportunities to collaborate.
- Encourage reading at home to reinforce engagement with texts and extend reading experiences beyond the classroom.

The texts that students read become increasingly complex over time. During Years 4–6, texts will include oral, visual, and written texts (fiction and non-fiction) in print and digital media.

Texts students read may include School Journals and other reading resources produced by the Ministry of Education. These texts have been specifically designed for students in New Zealand, so they can see themselves and their communities reflected in what they read. They include stories and ideas that value te ao Māori and

Māori perspectives and works by Pacific authors and others who have made New Zealand their home.

Deep comprehension of texts is grounded in the activation of prior knowledge and accumulation of new knowledge — what students already know shapes how they understand new information, making knowledge itself a powerful tool for meaning-making. Readers can relate ideas in texts to their personal experiences and prior knowledge by identifying relevant connections and reflecting on how these connections influence their understanding and interpretation.

Noticing, recognising, and responding to students' strengths and needs

Provide age-appropriate materials for students who need intensive, accelerative, targeted support to build their decoding skills. At the same time, scaffold their access to year-level texts so that the development of their content knowledge, vocabulary, and comprehension skills is not restricted to the level of their decoding skills.

Except when they are specifically learning to decode text or reading for pleasure, students who are still consolidating their decoding skills need to access year-level texts. Help students do this by adapting the supports and scaffolds for students, rather than by simplifying or modifying texts. An effective way to accelerate students' learning is to work with a small group to explore the content of year-level texts together, explicitly teaching the features of year-level texts that carry meaning. This will enable them to make sense of texts that are above their traditional 'instructional level'. When this is not possible, remove barriers and provide alternative ways to access year-level texts, for example, by using audio versions or print-to-speech software. Students who need to accelerate their decoding skills will continue to require frequent, intensive, and explicit teaching and practice in flexible small groups, targeting their decoding needs.

Although fluent readers may still work with simple texts, particularly to reduce cognitive load when new skills and concepts are being introduced, they will be working predominantly with texts that are at least at their year level. This does not mean you should prevent able readers from reading more complex texts; most texts will be at their year level or above. Students who reach fluency and comprehension mastery at an accelerated rate of progress need opportunities for enrichment and extension and ample opportunity to read increasingly challenging texts.

Student-read Year 4 level texts

The texts that students use to meet the reading demands of the curriculum at this level will be of varying lengths. They will often include:

- language, settings, and contexts that reflect New Zealand’s unique bicultural and multicultural heritage, including kupu Māori and culturally grounded narratives, experiences, and perspectives
- some abstract ideas that are clearly supported by concrete examples in the text or easily linked to students’ prior knowledge
- some texts where information and ideas are implicit and where students need to make inferences based on information that is easy to find (because it is nearby in the text and there is little or no competing information)
- a straightforward text structure, such as one that follows a recognisable and clear text form, with some compound and complex sentences consisting of two or three clauses
- some words and phrases that are ambiguous or unfamiliar to students but whose meaning is supported by the context or clarified by visual features, such as photographs, illustrations, diagrams, or written explanations
- text that may have visual features that support the ideas and information (e.g. text boxes or maps) or figurative language, such as metaphors, similes, or personification.

Student-read Year 5 and 6 level texts

The texts that students use to meet the reading demands of the curriculum at this level will be of varying lengths. They will often include:

- language, settings, and contexts that reflect New Zealand’s unique bicultural and multicultural heritage, including kupu Māori and culturally grounded narratives, experiences, and perspectives
- abstract ideas, in greater numbers than in texts at earlier levels, accompanied by concrete examples in the text that help support the students’ understanding
- some ideas and information that are conveyed indirectly and that require students to infer by drawing on related pieces of information in the text and some information that is irrelevant to the identified purpose for reading (i.e. competing information) which students need to identify and reject as they integrate information in order to answer questions
- mixed text types (e.g. a complex explanation within a report) with sentences that vary in length and structure (e.g. sentences that begin in different ways, different kinds of complex sentences with subordinate clauses).

Deciding if a text is at a Year 5 or Year 6 level involves considering a range of different factors relating to text difficulty, including readability levels, length and complexity of the sentences, and sophistication of the vocabulary, ideas, concepts, and storylines. School Journals contain items that have been allocated reading year levels; these can be helpful for building a sense of text level to apply to other texts of varying lengths, including books.

Oral Language

Oral Language		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>			Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>		
		During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6	During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6
Communicating and Presenting	Verbal reasoning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Words such as 'if', 'might', or 'could' are used to explore possibilities or imagined scenarios (e.g. 'I might go to the beach if it is sunny tomorrow'). Asking and answering questions such as 'What else could happen?' helps build on ideas. Asking and answering clarification and cause and effect questions such as 'Why did that happen?' helps explore reasons and results. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Words and phrases such as 'because', 'so', 'this means that ...' are used to explain reasons and ideas, show results, and link concepts (e.g. 'The bus broke down, so I was late'). Asking and answering questions such as 'How does the author's view in this text differ from the speaker's in the video?' helps compare and explore different viewpoints or opinions. Asking and answering hypothetical and conditional questions such as 'What if the person had made a different choice?' encourages imaginative thinking about possibilities. Asking and answering questions such as 'What evidence from both texts supports your opinion?' helps justify thinking and make connections. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Words and phrases such as 'better', 'more effective', and 'important' are used to compare ideas, explain preferences, or indicate a judgement about how good, useful or important something is (e.g. 'Using a visual is a more effective way to explain this science concept than just using text, because it helps people understand how the parts work together'). Asking and answering evaluative and probing questions such as 'Which would be more effective?' or 'Why do you think that?' encourage reflection, analysis, and reconsideration of ideas. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using conditional and imaginative language (e.g. 'if', 'might', 'could') to describe possible actions, outcomes, or solutions when responding to ideas or situations Asking and responding to questions that seek clarification, extend ideas, and explore causes and consequences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using connective language (e.g. 'because', 'so', 'this means that ...') to explain ideas and begin to justify thinking by linking concepts across topics or texts Asking and responding to questions that compare viewpoints, explore hypothetical ideas, and justify reasoning by connecting ideas across topics or texts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using evaluative language (e.g. 'better', 'more effective', 'important') to compare ideas or approaches Asking and responding to probing questions that challenge assumptions and explore consequences, and supporting or critiquing ideas using evidence
	Presenting to others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Clear presentations have a strong introduction, well-organised main ideas, and a conclusion. Effective speakers choose words, ideas, and a presentation style (e.g. formal, informal, serious, humorous) that match the audience's knowledge, needs, and interests. A speaker's message is strengthened by including supporting evidence. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A speaker's message is strengthened by including responses to differing opinions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Presenting their ideas clearly, giving an introduction and conclusion when appropriate Being aware of audience needs and expectations Planning and adapting the content of a presentation for a specific audience and setting Drawing on knowledge of the world to support their own point of view and explore different perspectives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Planning and organising the content of a presentation so that the audience can make connections between points Being aware of audience needs and expectations Planning and adapting the content of a presentation for a specific audience and setting Giving supporting evidence (e.g. citing a text, a previous example, or a historic event) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Planning and constructing a detailed argument or narrative Anticipating and planning for audience needs and expectations, leading to more tailored and effective communication Assessing different viewpoints and presenting counter arguments Using direct quotes or citations to support an argument or view 	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Introductions in presentations or other speaking situations in New Zealand can include practices such as pepeha and mihi, acknowledging place and people, introducing the speaker, and supporting whanaungatanga Pepeha is a traditional Māori introduction that establishes a person's identity and connection to their ancestors through whakapapa, often including connections to their maunga, awa, iwi, hapū, and tūrangawaewae. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Beginning a presentation or speaking situation with an introduction that helps make connections with the audience, appropriate to the context. For example, sharing pepeha, which may include sharing whakapapa for Māori, using mihi to acknowledge people and place, or referring to shared experiences or interests to help the audience feel connected and engaged 				
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Purposeful use of body language — including facial expressions, gestures, posture, voice, and proximity (distance from others) — can convey meaning, highlight key ideas, express emotions and attitudes, and influence how the audience responds. Skilled speakers change their tone, volume, and pace to fit the message, audience, and situation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using body language to support meaning when presenting to an audience Considering their position and posture when presenting to an audience Using tone, volume, and pace to influence meaning and engage listeners 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using body language for effect when presenting to an audience Projecting their voice to a large audience and adjusting tone, volume, and pace to suit the purpose and audience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using posture and body language to develop a stage presence when presenting to an audience Using tone, volume, and pace strategically to influence listeners in various informal and formal settings 		
		Teaching Considerations: Non-verbal communication All year levels					

Oral Language		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>			Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>		
		During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6	During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Be mindful of cultural differences and unique neurodivergent preferences when teaching about non-verbal communication, as these can influence students' interpretations, degree of familiarity, and comfort. 					
	Listening and responding to others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Discussions have different purposes (e.g. sharing ideas, asking questions, giving feedback, and solving problems) and ways of participating (e.g. offering suggestions or opinions, and listening and responding to others' ideas). Comments such as 'Tell me more ...' and questions such as 'Can you give me an example?' encourage others to add more information. Questions such as 'What do you think?' or 'Would you like to add something?' encourage others to participate in discussions. What is said in a discussion can affect how others feel, so words need to be chosen carefully. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Effective discussions involve: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> listening to others and asking questions that connect to what they have said noticing when someone goes off topic and helping bring the conversation back to the main idea checking for understanding by asking questions or saying things in a different way. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Effective discussions involve: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> sharing different opinions in a respectful way, so everyone feels safe to speak noticing when people have similar ideas and working together to reach an agreement asking clear questions to help clarify complex information noticing who has or hasn't spoken and inviting others to share their thoughts thinking about what others have said and explaining how it has changed or confirmed existing ideas. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Making comments that encourage discussion and asking clarifying questions Giving and responding to natural prompts for turn-taking in conversation and considering the impact of their words on others 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Actively participating in discussions by picking up on others' contributions and asking relevant questions Identifying off-topic discussions Clarifying and paraphrasing information 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Challenging others' ideas with sensitivity Identifying similarities in perspectives and considering where collective agreement can be reached Asking specific questions to clarify complex information Developing an awareness of group dynamics and inviting those who haven't spoken to contribute Explaining how their thinking has changed or solidified in response to discussion
Communication for Learning	Reflective and strategic communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Goal-setting language (e.g. 'My goal is to ...', 'I'll try to ...') can be used to express intentions and plan learning. Emotion words (e.g. 'frustrated', 'proud', 'confused') and explanatory phrases (e.g. 'Because I didn't understand ...') help explain reactions to learning. Collaborative phrases (e.g. 'We could try a different way') can help students express ideas and work together effectively. Reflective sentence starters (e.g. 'I found it tricky when ...', 'Next time I'll ...') can help students express their thinking and learning choices. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strategic language (e.g. 'Next time I'll try ...', 'I chose this because ...') can help to justify choices and plan alternatives. Emotion words and metacognitive phrases (e.g. 'I felt stuck, so I paused to think ...', 'I was nervous, but I kept going because ...') help to reflect on how emotions influence learning strategies and contribute to persistence or disengagement. Collaborative and problem-solving phrases (e.g. 'I think the issue might be ...', 'Should we try a new strategy ...') support joint decision-making and adjusting plans during group problem-solving. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Empathetic language (e.g. 'It sounds like you felt ...', 'I think I would feel the same ...') can help acknowledge and respond to others' emotions during learning. Responsive language (e.g. 'That's a good idea — what if we also ...', 'I see what you mean — maybe we could add ...') helps students acknowledge others' contributions, extend ideas, and co-construct solutions during group learning. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expressing learning goals and intended approaches using appropriate oral language Describing emotional responses to learning and explaining what caused them Using collaborative language to work together and complete tasks Using reflective oral structures to talk about what was challenging, what helped, and what they might do differently next time 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using discussion and reflection to set specific learning goals and planning steps to achieve them Contributing to shared problem-solving by building on others' ideas and making decisions using collaborative language Justifying learning choices using strategic oral language Using contextually appropriate language to describe their emotions and reactions to learning experiences and explaining how those emotions influenced their thinking or actions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using discussion and reflection to monitor their progress and explaining how they are adapting their learning strategies and goals in response Using empathetic language to acknowledge and articulate the emotions of others Using responsive collaborative talk to co-construct solutions with peers

Reading

Reading		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>			Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>			
		During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6	During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6	
Word Recognition and Reading Enrichment	Decoding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding a multi-syllable word can occur at the letter-sound (grapheme–phoneme) level and syllable level, and can involve using knowledge of meaningful word parts (morphemes) and word origins. The number of syllables in a word is the same as the number of vowel sounds (phonemes). A multi-syllable word can have even emphasis on each syllable (e.g. fan-tas-tic) or one syllable can have emphasis and others not (e.g. buck-et, a-bout). In a multi-syllable word, the vowel in the syllable without emphasis will be a schwa sound. A schwa sound is a weak vowel sound (phoneme), often resembling short /i/ or short /u/, where the spelling does not match the vowel phoneme. Multi-syllable words can be broken down into parts with their own meaning (morphemes) to support decoding. Word origins (etymology) can support decoding by helping readers understand and recognise spelling and pronunciation. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decoding multi-syllable words by applying their knowledge of English and te reo Māori: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> phonics syllables morphemes word origins 			
	Fluency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading comprehension depends on reading fluently with accuracy, natural pace, automaticity, and expression. Reading comprehension can be negatively affected by reading at a rate that is too fast or too slow. Reading with expression involves responding to punctuation, sentence structure, and language features. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading year-level texts accurately and expressively, including correct pronunciation of kupu Māori, reflecting understanding of the text while maintaining a natural pace of reading, at oral fluency rates appropriate for Year 4 students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading year-level texts accurately and expressively, including correct pronunciation of kupu Māori, reflecting understanding of the text while maintaining a natural pace of reading, at oral fluency rates appropriate for Year 5 students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading year-level texts accurately and expressively, including correct pronunciation of kupu Māori, reflecting understanding of the text while maintaining a natural pace of reading, at oral fluency rates appropriate for Year 6 students 	
	Developing confident readers	<p>Teaching Considerations: Fluency</p> <p>All years</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Information about Oral Reading Fluency (ORF) assessments that are scored based on ORF norms for each year is available on Tāhūrangi. All te reo Māori grapheme-phoneme correspondences have been included in the teaching sequence for Years 2-3. Some students may still need support to correctly pronounce the /ng/ sound which is similar to the English /ng/ in 'sing'; a common mistake is pronouncing <ng> as it appears in the word 'finger', which should be explicitly addressed during teaching. Another common mistake is pronouncing <au> like the /ow/ as in town when it sounds more like the /ow/ in snow. It is important to note that there are unique dialects across iwi and regions with differences in pronunciation and vocabulary. While teachers are not expected to teach these dialects, understanding that some learners may pronounce kupu Māori in ways that align with their whakapapa is key to fostering inclusive and respectful language practices. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using strategies for identifying and selecting texts based on their interests Identifying their strengths and successes Reading for longer periods by choosing familiar or interesting texts and using strategies to stay focused, such as finding a quiet space and setting reading goals 			
Comprehension	Vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Knowledge of meaningful parts of words (morphemes) and word origins (etymology) can help with working out a word's meaning. Meaningful parts of words (morphemes) include base words, roots, and affixes. Affixes are meaningful parts of words (morphemes) that are added to a base word or root and include prefixes and suffixes. A base word can stand alone, and affixes can be added to change the meaning or how it is used in a sentence. A root or root word typically requires affixes to form a complete word and is often derived from Greek or Latin origins. The meaning of unfamiliar words can be worked out by using explicit and implied information from surrounding words, sentences, and ideas in the text. Text glossaries can support pronunciation and understanding of kupu Māori in New Zealand texts, such as those in school journals. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inferring from the context and using a developing knowledge of morphemes to determine the meaning of words with an affix Using knowledge from other Year 4 learning areas and topics to determine the meaning of root and base words, whole words, and phrases in a text 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inferring from the context and using an increasing knowledge of morphemes to independently determine the meaning of words with more than one affix Using knowledge from other Year 5 learning areas and topics to determine the meaning of root and base words, whole words, and phrases in a text 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Independently inferring from the context and knowledge of morphemes to understand challenging words Using knowledge from other Year 6 learning areas and topics to determine the meaning of base words, whole words, and phrases in a text Identifying idioms and expressions from their own and others' cultures 	
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There are some phrases and sayings, called idioms, that rely on shared cultural knowledge to understand their meaning (e.g. 'bring a plate'). 					

Reading		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>			Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>		
		During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6	During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6
		Teaching Considerations: Vocabulary All years <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Explicitly teach vocabulary that is at students' age-appropriate, oral-language levels, rather than at their decoding levels. Encourage them to proactively ask questions about unfamiliar words. New vocabulary learning will centre on discipline-specific words and words that express abstract concepts. In addition, English language learners and students with language-related learning challenges will benefit from explicit teaching and incidental support for some common, everyday vocabulary. 					
Text form, structure, style, and features		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Understanding the structure of a text and the way language is used helps with understanding that text. Narrative texts: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> often begin by introducing the setting and characters, develop through a problem or goal and the actions to address it, and end with a resolution may be divided into chapters include dialogue and sensory words or phrases that describe how things look, sound, smell, taste or feel. Information texts: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> introduce a topic, organise ideas clearly, and often have visual features such as headings and diagrams include language features such as precise and topic-related vocabulary. Persuasive texts: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> present a series of arguments with supporting facts and details, and end with a strong conclusion use emotive language. Poems: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> are written in lines and stanzas and often have rhyming words or a rhythm use figurative language, which involves using words creatively to evoke feelings, create strong images, and make writing more interesting and expressive. Visual features such as diagrams, illustrations, and graphs help with understanding the information in a text. Organisational features in texts such as contents, index, glossary, headings and sub-headings help with reading a text. Authors make deliberate choices about specific words, structure, and visuals to guide how audiences understand and respond to the text. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Texts can be compared — examining their structure, language, and visual features — to understand the similarities and differences in style and purpose. Media refers to different ways of communicating information and stories to people — including through newspapers, websites, television, radio, and social media — and media texts are created to inform, entertain, or influence audiences. Digital media texts use features such as images, audio, video, print, and hyperlinks to communicate meaning, and are accessed through digital devices. Authors may use persuasive techniques such as emotional appeal, exaggeration, repetition, or rhetorical questions to influence the audience. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying the structure used in a text and how this is used to communicate ideas clearly Exploring how authors use language for effect, including both literal language (which means exactly what it says) and figurative language, to create mood, emphasise ideas, or convey deeper meaning Identifying specific language and visual features and explaining how they impact the audience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Exploring how authors use structure, language, and text features to communicate ideas clearly and support their purpose Explaining how authors use language to create impact, including how literal language communicates facts or direct meaning, and how figurative language adds depth, emotion, or imagery to a text 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying and comparing how effectively different texts use structure, language, and visual features to suit their purpose and audience Explaining how authors use language to create meaning and impact Explaining how features such as images, sound, and layout are used in media texts to inform, entertain, or influence the audience Explaining how digital features help communicate meaning and support understanding in digital media texts Identifying persuasive techniques and explaining how these techniques are used to influence the audience 	
Comprehension strategies		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading involves checking for understanding before, during, and after reading texts. Meaning can become unclear for different reasons when reading across a range of texts, and readers use a variety of supporting strategies (e.g. annotating, rereading, adjusting reading rate, asking and answering questions, and visualising) to monitor and restore their understanding. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Monitoring and confirming their understanding across a range of texts and sources of information by annotating, rereading, adjusting their reading rate, asking and answering questions, and visualising 		
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An inference is an understanding formed by the reader combining information in the text and their own prior knowledge and ideas. Making connections within a text involves identifying how ideas, events or characters relate to each other to deepen understanding of the text. Summarising helps readers understand and remember ideas by condensing what the text says into a shorter form, focusing on the most important information. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inferences are strengthened by identifying and using explicit and implicit evidence from within the text, alongside prior knowledge and ideas. Summarising involves identifying and selecting key details, then organising them to show how ideas are connected and what matters most in the text. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inferences can be justified and refined by comparing interpretations and evidence with others. Summarising involves identifying how ideas or themes are developed across the whole text, and organising key details to show how ideas build, shift, or connect to reveal the overall meanings and messages. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Making predictions, inferences, and connections within the text, using information from the text and prior knowledge and ideas Summarising a text by providing the key details in sequence, explaining how the details support the meanings and messages of the text Identifying key details and implied information in the text to draw a simple, supported conclusion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Making inferences, using explicit and implicit evidence from the text (including quotes or references to images) and prior knowledge, to extend the understanding of a text and the author's purpose Summarising a text by organising key details to show how the ideas and messages are introduced and connected across the text 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Making inferences using explicit and implicit evidence, justifying the inferences using evidence from the text, and comparing their inferences with the interpretations of others Summarising a text by identifying how the key ideas or messages develop across the whole text and organising key details to show how ideas build, shift, or connect to reveal deeper meanings

Reading	Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>			Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>		
	During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6	During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Drawing conclusions involves interpreting what the whole text suggests, using both stated and implied information to form a supported statement — a conclusion that is clearly expressed and backed by evidence from the text. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Drawing a supported conclusion involves using key details and implied information to explain what the text means or what the author wants the reader to understand. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Drawing conclusions involves interpreting key details and implied information to make a reasoned statement about the whole text — a statement that uses evidence from the text, shows logical thinking or personal judgement, and connects the meaning to broader ideas, concepts, or the author's intent. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying and interpreting key details and implied information to draw a supported conclusion about the meaning of the text or the author's intended message 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interpreting key details and implied information to draw a reasoned conclusion about the whole text that is supported by evidence, reflects thoughtful analysis, and connects the messages and meaning to broader ideas, concepts, or the author's purpose
Teaching Considerations: Comprehension strategies All years <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Activating prior knowledge and building background knowledge (including key vocabulary) before reading improves students' ability to comprehend the text. The most effective way to build background knowledge is through the teaching of content from other learning areas. Comprehension strategies are taught and revisited in the context of reading texts and used together. They are tools to support students to make sense of complex ideas and texts and build knowledge, not goals in themselves. Using strategies, such as summarising, also supports retention of what students have read. 						
Critical Analysis	Context and purpose	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Texts are created to express ideas, share feelings, or persuade audiences to think or act in certain ways. Texts can portray people, places, and ideas in different ways depending on what the author wants the audience to feel or think. The same topic can be presented in different ways depending on the author's purpose and intended audience. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Authors write with specific audiences and purposes in mind, and make deliberate choices to communicate particular ideas, messages, or viewpoints. Bias can be present in texts, and authors may include or exclude information to support their viewpoint or argument. Digital media texts are created by people or organisations with different purposes and not all information online is accurate, fair, or trustworthy. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying how people or places are presented in a text and explaining how that influences the audience's point of view 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Comparing how people, places, or ideas are represented in different texts and explaining how these representations influence the audience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying bias in a text by recognising when an author presents only one side of an issue or omits key information to influence the audience Considering who created a digital media text, why it was made, and whether the information can be trusted
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some texts, such as pūrākau (traditional Māori stories and oral histories) are passed down to share cultural knowledge, explain relationships with the natural world, and guide how people live and relate to others and to self. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying how people, places, or the natural world are portrayed in pūrākau and considering the messages these portrayals may convey 	
	Interpretations and connections	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Readers can relate texts to their own knowledge, experiences, and cultural understandings by identifying relevant connections within and between texts and reflecting on how these connections influence their understandings and interpretations. Discussing similarities and differences in how texts are understood or viewed by others helps readers deepen their understanding of different viewpoints. Responses to texts can include sharing personal thoughts and feelings about ideas in texts. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Different readers may have different responses to texts and by respectfully acknowledging those differences the understanding of texts can be deepened. Readers can build on others' contributions to text discussions, asking questions, or offering new viewpoints. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Different readers may interpret and respond to texts in diverse ways, and that engaging with their viewpoints can deepen understanding and broaden their own thinking. Interpretations of texts can be supported using examples or evidence from the text. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Making connections within and between texts, and with their own knowledge, experiences, and cultural understandings, to discuss differences and similarities in how the texts are interpreted or viewed Sharing their interpretation of ideas in texts, acknowledging that others may interpret texts differently, and considering how others' ideas might strengthen or challenge their own 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Making connections within and between texts, describing how the ideas in texts connect with their own topic knowledge, lived experiences, cultural knowledge, and practices Contributing to text discussions by building on others' ideas and comparing different interpretations

Writing

Writing		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>			Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>								
		During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6	During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6						
Transcription Skills	Handwriting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing for extended periods requires stamina and fluency, which develop through regular practice and attention to comfort and posture. Handwriting becomes automatic and effortless over time, allowing the writer to focus on ideas and sentence structure, rather than letter formation. Fluent and legible handwriting is important for communicating clearly for all writing tasks. Maintaining a comfortable and consistent posture supports focus, reduces fatigue, and enables writers to handwrite for longer periods. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Handwriting with increasing fluency, while maintaining legibility, when writing multi-paragraph texts Organising their writing environment, including their seating position and the position of their book 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Handwriting with ease and automaticity when writing longer texts Consistently maintaining a comfortable writing posture 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Handwriting with ease and automaticity when writing for multiple purposes throughout the school day Consistently maintaining a comfortable writing posture when handwriting 		
	Keyboarding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Efficient keyboarding begins with placing both hands in their home position on the middle row of the keyboard and then learning the correct finger for each key to reduce errors and increase typing speed. The Shift key is used to access capital letters and additional punctuation. Maintaining a comfortable and consistent posture supports focus, reduces fatigue, and enables writers to type for longer periods. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using efficient keyboarding to develop speed and accuracy Consistently maintaining a comfortable writing posture when using a keyboard 								
	Spelling	<p><i>[The content within <> is the grapheme and within // is the phoneme]</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Accurate spelling means breaking words into syllables and morphemes, then listening for each phoneme in the syllable and choosing the correct grapheme to represent it. The same phoneme can be spelt in different ways. A prefix is a meaningful part added to the beginning of a word, which has a consistent spelling pattern and changes the meaning of the word. A suffix is a meaningful part added to the end of a word, which has a consistent spelling pattern and can change the word type (e.g. change the verb 'teach' to the noun 'teacher'). Prefixes and suffixes can affect the spelling of the root word. A contraction is the shortened form of two combined words. Contractions follow predictable spelling patterns by leaving out certain letters and replacing them with an apostrophe. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelling words with: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <ea>, <ey> representing /long a/ <y>, <ey> representing /long e/ <igh>, <y>, <ie> representing /long i/ <oe> representing /long o/ <ew>, <ue> representing /oo/ as in 'mood' Spelling words with: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> soft c: <c> representing /s/ soft g: <g> representing /j/ (both usually followed by the letter 'e', 'i', or 'y') Spelling words with prefixes (un-, dis-, re-) and suffixes (-est, -ful, -less) Spelling contractions for two-word phrases ending with have, would, will (e.g. 'I've', 'he'd', 'she'll') 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelling words with: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <eigh> representing /long a/ <ie> representing /long e/ <ough> representing /long o/ <ue> representing /long u/ <aw> and <au> representing /or/ Spelling words with prefixes (semi-, sub-, mis-, multi-, pre-) and suffixes (-tion, -sion, -cian) Spelling contractions correctly 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelling words with less-common vowel and consonant graphemes (e.g. <ough>, <eigh>, <aigh>, <augh>, <kn>, <mb>, <sc> as /s/, <wr> as /r/), noting the unusual correspondences and where these occur in the word Using the three different spellings for the /air/ phoneme: <air>, <are>, <ear> Spelling words with prefixes indicating number (e.g. uni-, bi-, tri-, dec-) and suffixes that change words into a noun (e.g. -logy, -ism, -ment) and demonstrating understanding of their meanings 		
		<p>Teaching Considerations: Handwriting</p> <p>All years</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> If handwriting difficulties persist after an extended period of appropriate instruction, consider using assistive technologies to support composition. Guidance about teaching handwriting is available on Tāhūrangi. 											

Writing		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>			Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>		
		During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6	During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Apostrophes are used to show that something belongs to someone or something (as well as for contractions). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Where the apostrophe is placed depends on whether the noun is singular or a plural ending in 's'. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adding an apostrophe to show singular possession (e.g. 'the dog's bowl') 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelling words with apostrophes to show singular and plural possession, adding a possessive apostrophe after the 's' if a plural noun ends in 's' (e.g. 'the boys' sister') 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelling words with apostrophes to show possession
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A homophone is a word that sounds the same as another word but has a different meaning and usually a different spelling. Spelling homophones correctly is important for clarity. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using common homophones correctly (e.g. correctly distinguishing between 'their', 'there', and 'they're'; 'your' and 'you're'; and 'we're' and 'where') 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using less-common homophones correctly, (e.g. correctly distinguishing between 'queue' and 'cue'; 'minor' and 'miner'; 'you' and 'ewe') 	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There are specific spelling conventions for adding suffixes to root words. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adding a vowel suffix to one-syllable CVC words by doubling the final consonant (e.g. 'hop' → 'hopping') 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Either keeping the 'y' or changing to an 'i' when adding a suffix 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelling plurals of words ending in 'f' or 'fe' by changing the 'f' or 'fe' to 'ves' (e.g. 'leaf' → 'leaves', 'knife' → 'knives')
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Words ending in a consonant followed by -le have a predictable spelling pattern. When the first syllable of a word ending in -le is closed (a short vowel followed by a consonant), the final consonant is doubled before adding -le (e.g. 'rip' → 'ripple'). When the first syllable of a word ending in -le is open (ends in a vowel with a long vowel sound), -le is added directly after the consonant (e.g. 'ta' → 'table'). 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using the correct spelling pattern for words ending with a consonant and '-le' (e.g. 'table') 		
		<p>Teaching Considerations: Spelling All years</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teach students groups of words that share the same grapheme-phoneme correspondences or morphological elements. 					
Composition	Audience, purpose, and language choice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A text's intended audience and purpose shape its content, structure, text type, word choices, and style. Different audiences may interpret or respond to the same text in different ways, so writers need to consider the potential impact of their writing on others. Vivid, emotive, or descriptive language can enhance creative writing and help engage the reader. Choosing the best word helps convey an exact meaning, and words with similar meanings (e.g. 'freezing,' 'frosty', 'chilly', 'cool') can create different effects depending on the context, audience, and purpose of the writing. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying the audience and purpose for a text Planning and writing with the audience in mind, by selecting the appropriate text type, language register, and words to best communicate the intended meaning Selecting and using words and phrases appropriate to the purpose of writing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Planning and writing with an audience and purpose in mind so that their writing is in the most appropriate text type and style Justifying their use of language register and words to best communicate the intended meaning to the intended audience Considering how different audiences may be affected by the text they are creating Selecting and using words and phrases that clearly express actions, feelings, situations, or conditions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Planning and writing for an intended audience and purpose, making careful choices about the most appropriate text type and style, language, register, and words, and justifying these choices Making deliberate choices about what content to include or leave out in the texts they create, based on their understanding of how the writing may affect others Selecting and using words and phrases that clearly express differences, additions, and other logical connections

Writing		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>			Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>		
		During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6	During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6
Sentence structures, grammar, and punctuation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Figurative language is used to purposefully create vivid images and effects that engage the reader. A simile is a comparison between two things using 'like' or 'as'. A metaphor is a direct comparison that says one thing is another. Imagery is descriptive language that helps the reader imagine what something looks, sounds, feels, smells, or tastes like. Personification gives human actions or feelings to non-human things. Alliteration is the repetition of the same sound at the beginning of words. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An idiom is a common phrase that means something different from the literal words. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using figurative language, such as similes and metaphors, to create vivid images and engage the reader 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Deliberately and carefully selecting and using literary devices, including simile, metaphor, and personification, to create vivid images and effects to engage the reader 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Deliberately selecting and using a range of literary techniques, including imagery, personification, figurative language, alliteration, and idioms, to meet the purpose of the writing and engage the reader 	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A fragment is an incomplete sentence because it lacks something important, such as a subject or verb. A run-on sentence happens when two or more complete thoughts that could stand alone as separate sentences are joined without proper punctuation or conjunctions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Independent clauses can stand alone as complete sentences, while dependent clauses cannot. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An adverb is a word that adds detail to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb by describing how, when, where, or to what extent something happens. An adverbial phrase is a group of words that acts like an adverb. Clauses contain a subject and a verb, while adverbial phrases do not. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying fragments and run-on sentences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying dependent and independent clauses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Explaining the difference between a clause and an adverbial phrase and identifying these in a variety of sentence structures 	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Different sentence structures and types can be used to enhance the impact of a text. A short, simple sentence can add impact and intensity. A complex, expanded sentence can add description and detail. Phrases are groups of words that work together but do not contain both a subject and a verb so cannot stand alone (e.g. 'full of energy', 'in the morning', 'under the table'). Phrases can be inserted into sentences in different positions (beginning, middle, or end). Varying the position of phrases adds interest. Writers can experiment with the way sentences are structured by saying them, to see how they sound, before writing them down. Writers combine a variety of sentence lengths and types in a piece of writing to keep it engaging and avoid sounding repetitive. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Combining sentences orally, inserting phrases, and varying the position of the phrase Using a range of sentence structures and types to suit the purpose of the writing and enhance its impact 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Combining sentences orally to create a range of structures and identifying the impact of the different structures Using a range of sentence structures and types to suit the purpose of the writing, avoiding repetition of certain structures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Combining sentences orally to create a range of structures, choosing their preferred structure and justifying their choice Using a range of sentence structures and types, rearranging the order of clauses and phrases for optimal effect 	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expanding sentences improves writing by adding detail, clarifying meaning, and making it more precise and engaging. An adverbial phrase is a group of words that acts like an adverb. An adverbial phrase expands a sentence by providing more information about how, when, where, or to what extent something happened. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expanding sentences using adverbial phrases 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expanding sentences using adverbial phrases and appositives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expanding sentences using adverbial and adjectival phrases and appositives 	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An appositive is a word or phrase that gives more information about a noun by renaming or explaining. 					
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An adjectival phrase is a group of words that describes a noun by giving more information about it, often answering questions such as 'what kind?' or 'which one?'. 				
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Understanding and consistently applying the knowledge they already have about correct beginning and ending sentence punctuation helps make writing clearer and easier for others to read and understand. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using beginning and ending sentence punctuation correctly and consistently throughout multi-paragraph texts 			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Commas are used to separate two independent clauses when they are joined by a conjunction. Commas follow adverbs or adverbial phrases at the start of sentences, improving flow and readability. 						

Writing		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>			Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>		
		During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6	During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Commas are used with appositives to separate extra information about a noun, helping the sentence stay clear and easy to understand. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using commas correctly with independent clauses, adverbs, and adverbial phrases, with some support 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using commas correctly with independent clauses, adverbs and adverbial phrases, and appositives, with some support 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Independently using commas correctly with independent clauses, adverbs and adverbial phrases, and appositives
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Speech marks (quotation marks) are used to show exactly what someone is saying. Punctuation, such as commas, full stops, question marks, and exclamation marks, is placed inside the speech marks when it is part of the spoken words. Each new speaker's words should start on a new line to help readers follow who is speaking. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using speech marks and commas correctly for direct speech, with some support 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using speech marks, commas, and other associated punctuation correctly for direct speech, with some support 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using speech marks, commas, and other associated punctuation correctly for direct speech, independently 	
	Writing to entertain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Texts to entertain include poetry and narratives (e.g. stories, fairy tales, diaries, and traditional tales). Narratives generally follow a predictable structure, which begins by introducing the setting and characters, develops through a problem or goal and the actions taken to address it, and ends with a resolution. Narratives are driven by what the character wants or needs, and how they try to achieve it. Time connectives are words or phrases (such as 'first', 'after that', or 'meanwhile') that show when something is happening/has happened and help link events in order to make writing easier to follow. Dialogue is a conversation between two or more characters. Dialogue is used in narratives to show relationships, reveal feelings, and move the story forward. Sensory details are words or phrases that describe how things look, sound, smell, taste, or feel, helping the reader imagine the scene more clearly (e.g. 'the crunchy leaves', 'a sweet smell', 'a loud bang'). Poetic language, devices, and structures include sensory language, rhyme, and stanzas. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing texts to entertain that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> reflect personal experiences and knowledge contain narrative elements: character, setting, problem/purpose, plan, action, resolution begin to include paragraphs to organise events include time connectives begin to include dialogue begin to include sensory details describe characters' thoughts and feelings provide a sense of closure include poetic language, devices, and structures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing texts to entertain that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> reflect personal experiences and knowledge contain narrative elements: character, setting, problem/purpose, plan, action, resolution are organised into paragraphs include time connectives include sensory details to make their writing vivid and build the characters include dialogue provide a conclusion that follows naturally from the preceding events include poetic language, devices, and structures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing texts to entertain that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> reflect personal experiences and knowledge contain narrative elements: character, setting, problem/purpose, plan, action, resolution are well structured into paragraphs develop the plot using transitional words or phrases develop characters by including actions and feelings may include shifts in time and several settings include sensory details to build character and setting for effect provide a sense of closure that ends the story effectively include poetic language, devices, and structures 		
	Writing to inform	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Texts to inform include reports, newspaper articles, biographies, and explanations. Informative texts introduce a topic and organise ideas clearly, grouping related information into paragraphs. Linking words and phrases connect ideas, helping the writing flow smoothly. Precise and topic-related vocabulary makes writing clearer and more informative, especially when explaining facts and ideas. Informative texts end with a concluding statement, which wraps up the topic and reinforces the main idea. Informative texts often include visual features (e.g. illustrations, diagrams, photos, maps, and graphs). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing texts to inform that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> reflect personal experiences and knowledge introduce a topic, and group information together using simple paragraphs begin to include linking words and phrases (e.g. 'also', 'another', 'together with') include topic-related vocabulary have a concluding statement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing texts to inform that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> reflect personal experiences and knowledge begin to introduce some simple visuals to support meaning (e.g. drawings, photos) develop the topic with facts and related examples include precise and domain-specific vocabulary provide concluding sentences related to the information 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing texts to inform that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> reflect personal experiences and knowledge introduce a topic clearly, and group related information logically into paragraphs include headings and visual features to support the meaning of their writing develop the topic with facts, definitions, details, and examples that support the main idea include precise language and domain-specific vocabulary begin to include words and phrases to clarify, illustrate, or compare ideas (e.g. 'especially', 'for example', 'in contrast') provide concluding sentences related to the information or explanation 		

Writing		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>			Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>		
		During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6	During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6
Writing to persuade		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Texts to persuade include letters, advertisements, reviews, speeches, discussions, and arguments, and often explore social issues that are topical for students. Persuasive texts introduce a topic and clearly state an opinion or position. Paragraphs group related ideas and reasons, helping to organise arguments logically and build a convincing case. Linking words and phrases connect opinions with reasons and examples, making the writing flow smoothly. Persuasive writing ends with a concluding statement or paragraph, which reinforces the position and leaves a strong final impression. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing texts to persuade that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> reflect personal experiences and knowledge introduce a topic and state their opinion organise writing into one or more paragraphs, with supporting reasons for their opinion begin to include some linking words and phrases (e.g. 'because', 'for example', 'also') to connect their opinions with the reasons provide a concluding statement 		
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Persuasive writing can include the use of emotive words and phrases to convince readers. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing texts to persuade that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> reflect personal experiences and knowledge introduce a topic and state an opinion on it, using the first person organise writing into two or more paragraphs, grouping related opinions and reasons support opinions with facts and details use linking words and phrases (e.g. 'in addition', 'for instance') to connect the opinion with the reasons provide concluding sentences related to the opinion 		
Writing Processes	Planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Organisers (e.g. graphic organisers or mnemonics) help plan and structure writing clearly by supporting thinking before and during the writing process. Different writing tasks suit different organisers because of variations in text purposes and structures. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using organisers to organise and plan writing 		
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Making notes reduces information into key words and phrases to capture the most important ideas. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Organising notes into categories helps make sense of key information. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Making notes, reducing information into key words and phrases 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Making notes, organising key information into categories 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Choosing and using the most appropriate graphic organiser or mnemonic for the writing task Making notes by gathering key information from a range of print and digital sources and organising it into categories
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Setting specific writing goals helps writers improve their writing by focusing on what they want to get better at. Reflecting on their writing content and process helps writers understand what worked well and what they can improve. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Setting and working towards specific writing goals based on reflection on their own writing content and processes 			
	Drafting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Notes and key words from planning need to be turned into complete sentences that clearly explain ideas. A well-structured non-fiction paragraph may include a topic sentence, detail sentences, and a concluding sentence. A topic sentence introduces the main idea. A detail sentence explains the idea. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Organised notes can be grouped into paragraphs based on categories or ideas. A multi-paragraph non-fiction text may include sub-topics. A multi-paragraph fiction text may include an orientation, a series of events that build tension, and a resolution that brings the story to a close. A poem with multiple stanzas may separate ideas, images, or emotions into distinct sections. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Linking words and phrases help connect paragraphs and create cohesion across the whole text. Different writing purposes require different text structures, which may include headings and subheadings or separate stanzas. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Transferring ideas from planning organisers or mnemonics into sentences Writing a non-fiction paragraph that has a topic sentence, detail sentences, and a concluding sentence Writing a fiction paragraph or a poem stanza that has a clear focus and uses descriptive or figurative language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Transferring organised information from planning into draft paragraphs for each category or idea Writing multi-paragraph non-fiction texts which include an introduction, sub-topics, and a conclusion Writing multi-paragraph fiction texts that include an orientation, a series of events that build tension, and a resolution that brings the story to a close 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Transferring organised information from planning and ensuring there are links between paragraphs and cohesion across the text Writing multi-paragraph texts for a range of purposes, organising the information and ideas to best suit their intended purpose, using headings and subheadings appropriately

Writing		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>			Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>		
		During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6	During Year 4	During Year 5	During Year 6
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A concluding sentence sums up the idea. • A well-structured fiction paragraph may include a clear focus on a moment or event, descriptive language to build character or setting, and a sense of progression or change. • A well-structured poem may include a central idea or image, and poetic devices (e.g. rhythm or figurative language) that contribute to the overall mood or meaning of the poem. 				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writing poems that may include multiple stanzas that separate ideas, images, or emotions into distinct sections 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writing poems and organising each poem's ideas, images, or emotions in a way that best achieves the intended impact, which may include using multiple stanzas
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A new paragraph is usually signalled by either leaving a line space or indenting the first line. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using layout conventions to indicate paragraphs 	
	Revising and editing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rereading each sentence and paragraph while writing ensures the writing makes sense and sounds right. • Making changes to texts in response to feedback can improve clarity for the intended audience. • Identifying and correcting grammar and meaning errors helps readers understand the writer's message. • Editing includes checking that known punctuation and layout conventions have been used correctly. • Editing includes checking for correct spelling. • Dictionaries are valuable tools for finding or confirming the spellings of unknown words. • Giving, receiving, and responding to feedback improves writing. 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rereading to check at the sentence, paragraph, and whole-text level • Making simple revisions to their texts to improve the clarity for the intended audience and purpose (e.g. replacing words, adding sentences, using audience and peer feedback) • Making edits to draft paragraphs using known punctuation • Using a word card or simple dictionary to find the spellings of unknown words • Giving feedback to and receiving feedback from peers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reading and checking continuously while writing • Making revisions to the content of draft texts to improve clarity and focus for the intended audience and purpose (e.g. seeking audience and peer feedback and deleting or improving words, phrases, or sentences) • Noticing errors in grammar and meaning and making corrections as they write, with support from the teacher • Making edits to draft multi-paragraph texts using known punctuation and layout conventions • Using a simple or online dictionary to find the spellings of unknown words • Seeking and responding to audience and peer feedback 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Independently reading and checking continuously while writing, throughout the school day across all learning areas • Making revisions at the word, sentence, and text structure levels, with the purpose and audience in mind • Noticing errors in grammar and meaning and independently making corrections as they write • Making edits to improve the clarity of a range of texts using known punctuation and layout conventions • Using a physical or online dictionary to find or confirm the spellings of unknown words • Selectively accepting or rejecting audience and peer feedback and justifying their decision

Phase 3 (Years 7–8) teaching sequence

Teaching sequence guidance

This section provides guidance about structured literacy approaches, English language learners, and working with texts to support effective teaching of the year-by-year teaching sequences.

Structured literacy approaches

Structured literacy approaches are evidence-based approaches to literacy instruction that are explicit, systematic, and cumulative. For the purposes of communication, reading, and writing, these approaches incorporate the following components:

- oral language, encompassing spoken and signed languages, including New Zealand Sign Language (NZSL), and, for students who are non-verbal, any first language communication methods a student uses, such as augmentative and alternative communication (AAC), and expressions such as vocalisations, gestures, movements, and images
- phonemic awareness
- systematic synthetic phonics to develop spelling skills
- handwriting
- vocabulary
- morphology
- syntax
- fluency
- text structure
- writing processes
- comprehension.

These components are reflected in the content of the English teaching sequence statements. Systematically and explicitly teaching these components to novice learners strengthens their understanding, helps to manage their cognitive load, and maximises their progress in acquiring literacy. However, structured literacy approaches do not focus only on what is taught; how literacy is taught is equally important. Teachers can use [teaching resources to support structured literacy approaches](#) to guide their implementation of these components. [Teacher guidance for accelerating progress in literacy](#) is also available to support teachers to meet the needs of students who need targeted support.

During Years 7–8, teaching focuses more strongly on those structured literacy approach components that are flexible and continue to develop throughout a person's life, such as vocabulary and comprehension.

In Years 7–8, most students will have already mastered some structured literacy approach components that are normally acquired relatively quickly, such as phonemic awareness and phonics for decoding. They will be consolidating other components and using them with increasing independence and confidence, such as reading fluency, handwriting, and spelling.

English Language Learners (ELLs)

Students learning English as an additional language are likely to need targeted support to learn English for everyday communication and to access the academic language of the curriculum. They may also begin learning English for the first time at any year level.

Some students will still be working through a decoding scope and sequence, and this may include English language learners who begin attending an English-medium school during Years 7–8. Teachers use diagnostic assessments to pinpoint needs and strengths, and provide these students with intensive, accelerative, targeted support using age-appropriate materials.

Teachers use the [English Language Learning Progressions \(ELLP\) and English Language Learning Progressions \(ELLP\) Pathway](#) to plan targeted language support for new learners of English and those that are developing proficiency in the English language. While some everyday language may develop without explicit instruction through interactions with peers, it is increasingly important to ensure that academic and subject-specific language is explicitly taught during these years. Teachers also support bilingual and multilingual students to connect with and use their first and heritage languages as valuable resources to progress learning and strengthen language and literacy outcomes.

Working with texts

Working with texts is at the core of English. How texts are used and how they are chosen are important considerations.

Teachers choose texts that are suitable for their students' learning levels and interests and that will support the learning described in Years 7–8. This ensures that selected texts are both engaging and suitably challenging.

Teachers can support effective engagement with texts through the following practices:

- Provide opportunities for students to select texts based on their preferences and interests and to explore new authors and texts outside their comfort zone.
- Establish a classroom reading community that discusses different kinds of texts, where students can listen to others' viewpoints and make informed text recommendations for others.
- Design purposeful, rich, extended opportunities for students to share their thoughts about texts and topics.
- Read aloud just for pleasure, helping to build a love of reading and story, while building vocabulary, comprehension, and a classroom reading community.
- Encourage reading at home to extend students' engagement with texts and support the development of independent reading habits.

To 'engage meaningfully' with texts means more than just reading or listening; it includes students' identifying key ideas, discussing, and applying what they learn from texts. The teaching sequence supports students to learn how to:

- comprehend and interpret key ideas and details within increasingly complex texts
- create various types of texts for different audiences and purposes, using effective language and accurate grammar
- use a range of strategies to understand texts, including comparing and synthesising ideas
- synthesise insights from texts to produce original responses — such as written, visual, or oral presentations — that demonstrate understanding and creativity.

Studying different types of text forms together, such as stories, poems, and articles, helps students compare and contrast them, enhancing their comprehension and critical thinking skills. Some texts can be studied in more detail than others. Engaging with a variety of texts multiple times allows students to gain a deeper understanding of how texts communicate ideas and represent the world.

Deep comprehension of texts is grounded in the activation of prior knowledge and accumulation of new knowledge — what students already know shapes how they understand new information, making knowledge itself a powerful tool for meaning-making. Readers can relate ideas in texts to their personal experiences and prior knowledge by identifying relevant connections and reflecting on how these connections influence their understanding and interpretation.

Students who are still consolidating their decoding skills need to access year-level texts¹ to develop skills and knowledge (including vocabulary, comprehension, and content knowledge) alongside their peers. Teachers support students to do this by adapting supports and scaffolds for students, rather than by simplifying or modifying texts. An effective way to accelerate students' learning is to work with a small group to explore the content of year-level texts together, explicitly teaching features of the texts that carry meaning. This will enable the students to make sense of texts that are above their traditional 'instructional level'. When this is not possible, remove barriers and provide alternative ways to access year-level texts — for example, by using audio versions or print-to-speech software.

A key point is that the difficulty of a text for a particular student is determined by the relationship between the text, the complexity of the task, and the student's existing knowledge and expertise.

¹ Texts whose subject matter and reading challenges are appropriate for a given student's year level; for example, School Journal Level 4 texts are designed for students in Years 7–8 and so are a good model for the range of text forms and text complexity these students should encounter.

The following table outlines expectations around text form, range, and complexity for Years 7–8. Appropriate consideration of text complexity will ensure students can access all relevant knowledge and practices within the teaching sequence. This includes selecting texts that are both accessible and sufficiently challenging, while also meeting the criteria for form, range, and complexity. Guidance for this can be found in the Example Texts supporting document.

Text specifications	
Text forms and range ²	Text complexity
<p>In each year, students must engage meaningfully with:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • at least one novel • a selection of poetry³ • a selection of non-fiction texts.⁴ <p>Teachers may also choose from a range of other text forms, such as, film, drama, short stories, and visual, spoken, multimodal, and digital texts.⁵</p> <p>Teachers should ensure that students experience historical and contemporary texts that are widely regarded as high quality.⁶ These texts must include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • seminal texts that have had a significant and lasting impact on how people understand key ideas from different cultures and times • texts by a range of authors representative of New Zealand's rich bicultural (both Māori and Pākehā) and multicultural literary heritage • texts from around the world • texts from popular and youth cultures. <p>Students should also be supported to select texts for personal interest and enjoyment.</p>	<p>Texts should be of varying lengths, have an appropriate level of complexity, and include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • words and phrases with multiple meanings that require students to know and use effective word-solving strategies • sentences that vary in length, including long, complex sentences that contain a lot of information • visual features that contain main ideas, such as illustrations, photographs, text boxes, diagrams, maps, charts, or graphs • language features that support analysis of how meaning is shaped, including those explicitly identified in the teaching sequence • ideas and contexts that are relevant to students' lives — for example, age-appropriate characters overcoming challenges • ideas that invite critical thinking • layers of meaning and/or information that require students to infer meaning or make judgements.

² Different types of text forms can be studied together to show how they compare and contrast. Some texts can be studied in more detail than others.

³ A selection of poems, varying in length, complexity, and theme, from one or multiple poets, that support literary analysis and student engagement.

⁴ Non-fiction texts may be drawn from other learning area contexts to help students develop content knowledge alongside their understanding of text language and structure, for example, an information

report in Science about water cycles or an extract of a speech studied in Social Sciences about the women's suffrage movement.

⁵ While full-length texts are encouraged, carefully selected extracts, chapters, scenes, or visual segments may also be appropriate, provided they offer rich opportunities for student engagement.

⁶ High-quality texts are well crafted, engaging works of fiction or non-fiction that address meaningful themes, offer rich opportunities for interpretation and discussion, and provide significant educational value and challenge.

Oral Language

Oral Language		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>		Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>	
		During Year 7	During Year 8	During Year 7	During Year 8
Communicating and Presenting	Verbal reasoning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Precise and purposeful language is needed to analyse ideas, critique perspectives, interpret meaning, and structure arguments clearly for listeners. Creating and answering questions supports deep thinking by exploring different perspectives, testing assumptions, and considering possible consequences. Assumptions are things people believe without proof and questions (e.g. 'What are we assuming about this person's motivation?' and 'Where is the evidence for that?') can be used to check whether those beliefs are fair or accurate. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Evaluative and modal language such as 'more convincing', 'less reliable', 'stronger argument', 'likely', and 'unlikely' helps us compare ideas, indicate probabilities, and communicate judgements. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Asking and answering open-ended questions that test assumptions and consider possible consequences Using spoken language to make inferences and draw conclusions by interpreting ideas, justifying thinking, and using evidence from discussion or experience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Asking and answering follow-up questions that explore different viewpoints, consider possible consequences, and challenge assumptions Using evaluative and modal language to critique ideas, weigh strengths and limitations, and structure oral responses that clearly support judgements with evidence
	Presenting to others	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Effective presentation planning involves selecting language, structure, tone, and content that suit the audience, purpose and form, for example: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> in speeches, rhetorical questions (e.g. 'Have you ever wondered why ...?') can engage the audience, inclusive pronouns (e.g. 'us', 'we', and 'our') help build connection, and cue cards can be used to support delivery in storytelling, figurative language can layer meaning and build atmosphere, a clear narrative structure supports coherence, and pace, volume, and tone help convey mood and guide audience attention in podcasts, conversational language (informal, natural-sounding speech that mimics everyday conversation) builds rapport, a planned sequence of segments or topics supports clarity and engagement, and the inclusion of examples, signposting, and analogies helps orient the listener. Some presentation forms, such as formal debates, structured interviews, and mock trials, follow mandated conventions that support structured engagement and respectful disagreement. Oral language structures (e.g. rhetorical devices, mihi, pepeha, whaikōrero) can reflect cultural identity and influence how messages are delivered and received. Cultural expressions and content relatable to the audience can deepen engagement. Voice modulation and non-verbal communication can guide audience attention, reinforce meaning, and strengthen impact. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using form-specific language and structural devices to shape presentations Identifying and using oral language structures from their own and others' cultures in ways that are culturally responsive and appropriate to engage the audience Using the conventions of structured presentation forms to acknowledge opposing views or present counter-arguments, supporting their stance with evidence 	
	Listening and responding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Paraphrasing means restating others' ideas in their own words to show understanding or clarify meaning. Effective discussions require everyone to show respect, include others, and work to understand each other by listening carefully, handling disagreements calmly, and staying focused on the topic. Group discussions are often organised through the allocation of specified roles (e.g. facilitator, speaker, listener, questioner, and summariser) which help ensure the conversation is inclusive, focused, and respectful. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying and planning for an audience's age, interests, and prior knowledge about the topic Using relatable experiences and cultural expressions (e.g. whakatauki, kiwaha, proverbs, popular sayings) to connect with the audience Using examples, direct quotes, or citations to support an argument or view, selecting sources that are appropriate and persuasive for the intended audience Varying pace, volume, and tone to keep the audience engaged Using non-verbal communication techniques (including gesture and facial expressions) to support meaning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Anticipating and responding to an audience's response, using relevant cultural expressions, examples and analogies, and figurative language that connects with their experiences Using vocal expression effectively by adjusting volume, pace, and tone to suit the audience and purpose Using a range of non-verbal communication techniques to enhance meaning and strengthen impact
				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Clarifying and extending others' ideas by paraphrasing, asking thoughtful questions, or offering connected examples Identifying different perspectives within a discussion and summarising areas of agreement or difference Taking on different roles in group discussions to support inclusive and focused talk 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Shaping group dialogue by monitoring and adjusting tone, pace, and contributions to support progress Challenging ideas constructively by testing logic, checking facts, exploring implications, and summarising areas of agreement or difference Leading group discussions by managing turn-taking, reinforcing collaboration, and responding to social cues

Oral Language		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>		Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>	
		During Year 7	During Year 8	During Year 7	During Year 8
Communication for Learning	Reflective and strategic communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Explaining ideas clearly, asking questions, and responding to others during discussion can help students reflect on and adjust their thinking. Giving and receiving verbal feedback using specific phrases (e.g. 'One thing that worked well was ...', 'Next time you could try ...') supports goal-focused learning. Planning what to say, rephrasing when misunderstood, and acknowledging others' contributions before responding are oral strategies that support respectful and constructive communication. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reflective oral language (e.g. 'I chose that strategy because ...', 'Next time I'll try ...') enables students to talk about their learning in ways that help them monitor progress, evaluate strategies, and plan next steps. Respectful and inclusive language (e.g. 'Can you tell me more about your view?', 'I see your point ...') supports constructive dialogue, especially during disagreement or when discussing different viewpoints. Clarifying and connecting language (e.g. 'So what you're saying is ...', 'That links to what we learnt before ...') helps students deepen understanding and make connections between ideas during collaborative discussion. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reflecting on how discussion has influenced their own or others' thinking, using specific examples from the dialogue Giving and receiving feedback using specific, constructive phrases to support learning Selecting and applying oral strategies to participate respectfully in group discussion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using precise and purposeful oral language in self-reflection to articulate strategic choices, evaluate progress, identify strengths and challenges, and plan targeted next steps Using respectful and inclusive language when discussing a controversial topic or managing a disagreement, including acknowledging differences of opinion and asking questions to better understand others' viewpoints Using clarifying and connecting oral language to build shared understanding, link ideas across contributions, and support collaborative thinking during discussion

Reading

Reading		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>		Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>	
		During Year 7	During Year 8	During Year 7	During Year 8
Reading Enrichment	Fluency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Skilled reading aloud requires using expression and intonation that suits the text form (e.g. poems, plays, narratives, and non-fiction texts) and purpose. Skilled reading with expression requires understanding of the text and enhances audience comprehension. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reading year-level texts accurately and expressively, including correct pronunciation of kupu Māori, reflecting understanding of the text while maintaining a natural pace of reading Adjusting their reading expression and intonation according to the purpose of reading and the nature of the texts they are reading 	
	Developing confident readers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strategies for selecting texts at the right level of challenge include considering prior knowledge and reading an extract to assess whether the text is manageable and engaging. Strategies for expanding their repertoire of texts include swapping recommendations with others (e.g. as part of a classroom reading community) and looking for different text types and forms that share high-interest topics. Strategies for building reading stamina include setting reading goals, tracking progress, and using comprehension techniques — such as adapting the pace of reading or summarising content — to engage with longer and more complex texts. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using a range of strategies for identifying and selecting texts, including how to choose an appropriate level of challenge and to expand their repertoire of texts Discussing preferences and opinions about texts being engaged with independently Applying strategies for sustained independent reading to engage with longer and more complex texts 	
Comprehension	Vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expanding vocabulary, especially academic and content-specific terms, is essential for interpreting and engaging with increasingly complex texts. Many English words come from different language origins (e.g. Anglo-Saxon, Latin, and Greek) and these origins affect both the meaning and structure of these words. Greek and Latin roots and affixes are common in English words (e.g. tele-, bio-, auto-, pre-, sub-) and help with understanding unfamiliar vocabulary. Strategies for finding the meaning of academic and content-specific words and phrases include using the context, knowledge of morphemes, knowledge of word origins, and a glossary or dictionary. Text glossaries and online dictionaries can support pronunciation and understanding of kupu Māori in New Zealand texts. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using a range of strategies to ascertain the meaning of academic and content-specific words and phrases in year-level texts Identifying roots and affixes to determine meaning of unfamiliar words Using year-appropriate academic and content-specific words and phrases with accuracy Using print and digital dictionaries for pronunciation and definition, for both English and everyday te reo Māori 	
	Text form, structure, style, and features	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Texts on the same topic can be written in different forms, such as an article, a poem, a speech, or a narrative. Authors use tools like characterisation, setting, and plot to shape meaning and influence how readers understand stories. Texts are organised into structural parts (e.g. chapters, verses, sections, or scenes) that contribute to the development of meaning of the text as a whole. Different forms have unique language, structural, and visual features that create different effects. Language, structural, and visual features of a text are shaped by its purpose and audience. Language features are used in texts to reflect purpose and audience, and to create particular effects. These include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> allusion repetition rhetorical questions hyperbole listing cliché 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying different text forms created for specific purposes and explaining how these shape the audience's experience Describing how authors use characterisation, setting, and plot to shape meaning in texts Identifying structural parts of texts and explaining how these contribute to the overall meaning Identifying language features in texts and explaining how these features contribute to meaning and influence the audience Identifying visual features and explaining how these features contribute to meaning and influence the audience Identifying and examining how specific features of digital media texts communicate messages and influence audience understanding and engagement 	
				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Examining different text forms, focusing on how characterisation, setting, and plot help communicate meaning Examining texts that blend forms or purposes (e.g. poetry that aims to persuade or narrative texts based on factual content, such as biographies or historical novels) Examining language and structural features across different text forms and considering their impact on the audience and their effectiveness in achieving the text's purpose Examining visual features and considering their impact on the audience and their effectiveness in achieving the text's purpose Examining how digital and media texts integrate structural, visual, and interactive features to shape meaning, engage audiences, and achieve specific communicative purposes 	

Reading		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>		Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>		
		During Year 7	During Year 8	During Year 7	During Year 8	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ contrast ○ puns. • Visual features are used in texts to reflect purpose and audience, and to create particular effects — such as angles, shots, framing, contrast, symbolism, and emanata. • A text can combine different forms or serve more than one purpose. • Social, historical, and cultural context influences the structure, style, and features of a text, and what it communicates. • Media texts use features such as images, audio, video, print, layout, and sound to inform, entertain, or persuade; they are shared through platforms such as TV, radio, newspapers, websites, and social media. • Digital media texts use deliberate structures, styles, and features (e.g. navigation menus, hyperlinks, interactive elements, and embedded videos) to shape meaning, guide the user experience, and influence how messages are received, interpreted, and shared. • Many media texts are digital; when shared online, they use digital features (e.g. hyperlinks, video, and audio) to communicate meaning and often combine modes to support understanding. 				
	Comprehension strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Readers monitor and actively manage their understanding while reading a variety of texts and sources, by applying a range of strategies — such as annotating, rereading, reading ahead, asking questions, visualising, and consulting references — to support continued meaning making. • Inferences can deepen understanding of settings, characters, themes, and ideas. • Themes are the deeper ideas or messages in a text that many people can relate to — such as love, loyalty, bravery, injustice, and self-acceptance. • Making inferences involves interpreting subtle or layered information to uncover deeper meaning, helping readers to engage more critically with the author’s message or viewpoint. • Readers can compare and synthesise key ideas and themes within and across texts to deepen understanding. • Conclusions made about texts should be well supported by evidence from the text, and show insight into the author’s purpose, message, or viewpoint. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitoring and confirming their understanding across a range of texts and sources by selecting appropriate strategies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Making inferences within a text and at a whole text level to develop understanding of settings, characters, themes and ideas and justifying inferences with explicit and implicit evidence • Identifying and summarising key ideas and themes in texts, explaining how supporting details develop and connect these ideas • Drawing conclusions by selecting and explaining evidence that supports a reasoned interpretation of the author’s purpose, message, or viewpoint 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Making inferences across a range of texts to deepen understanding of setting, characters, themes, and ideas, using explicit and implicit evidence — including subtle details or layered information — to interpret meaning • Summarising key ideas and themes within and across texts by comparing and synthesising key details to explain how they relate • Drawing conclusions by synthesising evidence across a text to support a coherent interpretation of the author’s purpose, message, or viewpoint
Critical Analysis	Context and purpose	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Texts are the result of deliberate choices in content, structure, and form to serve specific purposes (e.g. to inform, persuade, entertain, provoke, or challenge). • Texts represent topics, people, places, positions, perspectives, and ideas in particular ways, and can be influenced by the purpose, time and place in which they were created. • Texts from New Zealand — including pūrākau, biographies, oral histories, and contemporary literature — reflect the culture, history, and values of the communities who live here. • Media and digital media texts (e.g. news articles, social media posts, and digital advertisements) present people, ideas, events, and issues from particular perspectives that are shaped by the creator’s purpose, audience, and platform, which can lead to different representations of the same topic across contexts. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Considering the author’s purpose that underpins the text by examining content, structure, and form • Explaining how topics, people, places, or ideas are represented in texts • Identifying the positions and perspectives that are represented and how the text is influenced by the time and place it was created • Explaining how texts from New Zealand reflect culture, history, or values through the way they represent topics, people, places, and ideas • Explaining similarities and differences in how media and digital media texts present the same topic or idea depending on the context and purpose 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Comparing how topics, people, places, or ideas are represented in texts and considering how these representations reflect or challenge particular positions or perspectives • Comparing how multiple texts from New Zealand reflect cultural, historical, or societal values and discussing the different perspectives they present • Comparing how different media and digital media texts present the same issue or idea, considering differences in perspective, tone, and techniques used to influence the audience 	
	Interpretations and connections	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Texts often explore themes, messages, or viewpoints that connect with personal experiences, prior knowledge, and other texts, helping deepen understanding and reveal broader meaning. • Understanding of texts can deepen through respectful sharing and comparison of different interpretations. • Cultural and social elements in texts — such as values, rituals, ceremonies, symbolism, art, and social roles — reflect the practices, worldviews, and values of the communities and cultures they come from, and help readers understand deeper meanings. • Texts can be challenged or reinterpreted by examining the perspectives that are included or excluded, and how these choices shape meaning. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explaining how ideas in texts connect to experiences, skills, knowledge, and other texts • Using evidence from a text, along with prior knowledge, to interpret meaning and compare with other texts • Acknowledging and building on others’ ideas, respectfully challenging other students’ interpretations • Identifying cultural and social elements that are represented in a range of texts and explaining how they help communicate meaning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Examining whose perspectives are included or excluded in texts and how meaning can be affirmed, challenged, or reinterpreted 	

Writing

Writing		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>		Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>	
		During Year 7	During Year 8	During Year 7	During Year 8
Transcription Skills	Handwriting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Handwriting stamina — the ability to write for extended periods — is developed and sustained through everyday practice. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Handwriting with fluency while maintaining legibility, size, spacing, and slope 	
	Keyboarding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Efficient keyboarding relies on knowing the keyboard layout and using all fingers on the correct keys to improve speed and accuracy. Regular keyboarding practice helps develop accuracy, speed, and the ability to write fluently. Keyboarding fluency, accuracy, and stamina allow writers to shift their focus from typing to developing ideas and structuring their writing. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using efficient keyboarding with fluency and accuracy 	
	Spelling	<p><i>[The content within <> is the grapheme and within // is the phoneme]</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some spelling patterns are ambiguous — they don't follow regular rules for the sounds they make. Ambiguous spelling patterns often come from older forms of English or other languages. The schwa is the most common vowel sound in English, making a quiet short vowel /i/ or /u/ sound, and it can be spelt with any vowel letter. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelling words with ambiguous vowel spelling including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <ei> representing /long a/ (e.g. 'reign') or /long e/ (e.g. 'ceiling') 'ou' representing short /u/ (e.g. 'enough') 'a' representing /o/ (e.g. following 'w' as in 'was' and 'qu' as in 'quad') 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelling words with ambiguous vowel spellings including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> schwa for unstressed syllables (e.g. awkward, water) <or> representing /er/ following 'w' (e.g. worse)
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some words are spelt with less common or unusual consonant spellings. These words are often from other languages or old English. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelling words with ambiguous consonant spellings, including <gh> representing /f/ (e.g. 'enough') and <ch> representing /ch/, /sh/, or /k/ 	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Words can be broken into syllables and morphemes, and many words share common patterns or parts that support understanding of their meaning and spelling. Some words have silent letters, and they are often derived from old English or other languages. A homophone is a word that sounds the same as another word but has a different meaning and usually a different spelling. Spelling homophones correctly supports clear communication and helps avoid confusion between words with different meanings. Two-syllable prefixes usually keep their full spelling when added to root words. Chameleon prefixes change spelling to ease pronunciation, but their meaning stays the same. In a small number of words ending in 'f' or 'ef', the final consonant changes to 'v' before adding a suffix (e.g. 'leaf' → 'leaves'). When adding suffixes such as -ation, -ition, -tory, or -tive to verbs, the vowel in the last syllable often changes spelling and sound (e.g. 'exclaim' (long 'a') → 'exclamation' (short 'a')). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spelling words with less common silent letters: <gn> = /n/, <gh> = /g/, <ps> = /s/, <pn> = /n/, <mn> = /m/, <rh> = /r/, and <pt> = /t/ Spelling words with two-syllable prefixes (e.g. 'inter-', 'over-', 'circum-', 'contra-', 'ambi-', 'ante-', 'anti-') Spelling words with suffixes '-able', '-ible', and '-ure' 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using the correct spelling for advanced homophones (e.g. patients–patience, cite–site–sight, l'll–aisle–isle) Spelling words with common chameleon prefixes (e.g. 'in-', 'im-', 'il-', and 'ir-' meaning 'not', and 'con-', 'col-', 'co-', 'com-' 'cor-' meaning 'with' or 'together') Spelling words where the consonant changes when adding the suffix (e.g. 'mischief' → 'mischievous') and where the vowel changes when adding the suffix (e.g. 'explain' → 'explanation') 	
Composition	Audience, purpose, and language choice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A text's purpose, and the intended audience's anticipated reaction, influences the author's choice of content, form, genre, and style. Different text types use specific features and techniques to create meaning. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A mode is a channel of communication, such as a written text, images, visual design, audio, or video. The careful selection of a mode or modes can enhance a text's messages. Reflecting on how well writing achieves its purpose and communicates meaning helps improve clarity and impact. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Planning and writing with a specific audience and purpose in mind, making choices in form, genre, and style to communicate meaning and anticipating the reaction of the audience Selecting and using a range of language features (e.g. listing, repetition, rhetorical questions) to meet the purpose of the writing and explaining how they help to communicate ideas to the audience Selecting and using words that clearly express the intended meaning, including deciding between synonyms for effect Using a physical or appropriate digital thesaurus to locate synonyms 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Selecting or deliberately combining modes to enhance the message in texts in relation to their purpose Using codes and conventions of different modes and text types in the texts they compose Considering the effectiveness of the writing in relation to its purpose Deliberately selecting and using a range of language features (e.g. hyperbole, cliché, contrast, pun) to shape meaning and influence the audience, explaining the intended effect Deliberately selecting and using words and phrases that clearly express their intended meaning, considering the nuances of synonyms to enhance clarity, impact, and personal voice Using a physical or appropriate digital thesaurus to locate synonyms for different purposes
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Authors deliberately choose words and language features to suit the text's audience and purpose. Words that are synonyms carry subtle differences in their meaning, tone, or intensity (often referred to as 'shades of meaning') which allow for precise expression. Choosing the most accurate synonym can convey meaning with greater clarity and impact. A thesaurus is a useful tool to support word choice. 			

Writing		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>		Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>	
		During Year 7	During Year 8	During Year 7	During Year 8
	Sentence structures, grammar, and punctuation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using a variety of complex sentence structures adds depth and detail, and shows how ideas are linked. A complex sentence with a relative or adjective clause includes extra information about a noun that helps make the writing more descriptive and detailed. A relative (or adjective) clause is a group of words that describes a noun and begins with who, whom, whose, which, or that (a relative pronoun) or where, when, or why (a relative adverb). A complex sentence that combines phrases and clauses helps writers express detailed and connected ideas. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing complex sentences with relative or adjective clauses Using their understanding of different sentence structures to craft sentences that effectively communicate ideas, using complex sentences with adjectival or relative clauses to illustrate the connections between ideas 	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some sentence parts — such as indirect objects, predicate nouns and adjectives, participles, and adverbial phrases — add detail and depth to writing, helping readers clearly understand what is meant. Abstract nouns are words that name ideas, feelings, qualities, or concepts — things you cannot see or touch. An adverbial phrase expands a sentence by providing more information about how, when, where, or to what extent something happens. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> An indirect object is a person or thing that receives the benefit of the action, and it usually comes between the verb and the direct action. A predicate noun is a word that comes after a linking verb (e.g. 'is') and explains who or what the subject is, renaming the subject. A predicate adjective is an adjective that comes after a linking verb (e.g. 'is') and explains more about the subject. A participle is a verb form with endings such as –ing, –ed, and –en that can act like an adjective and describe the noun. A gerund is a verb form that ends in –ing and functions as a noun in a sentence, such as 'swimming' or 'reading'. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Crafting sentences that communicate meaning clearly, correctly using: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> abstract nouns verb tenses adverbial phrases 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing compound-complex sentences Using their understanding of sentence structures to craft sentences that effectively communicate ideas, using complex sentences that combine phrases and clauses to illustrate the connections between ideas
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writers make deliberate choices about using active or passive voice to control sentence focus and emphasis. Using active voice helps make writing more direct, clearly showing who is doing the action. Passive voice focuses on the action or the person/thing receiving it and is useful when the doer is unknown or not as important as the action. A colon is used to separate a list after a complete sentence or for introducing explanations. A semicolon is used to separate two independent clauses that are closely related in meaning, helping to avoid a run-on sentence or a comma splice (an error where a comma is incorrectly used instead of a semicolon or a full stop). 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Distinguishing between active and passive voice and making deliberate choices about which to use when writing Using colons for introducing a list after a complete sentence (e.g. 'The recipe calls for several ingredients: flour, sugar, eggs, and butter') Using colons for introducing explanations or examples (e.g. 'There was only one thing left to do: finish the project') Using semicolons to separate two independent clauses (e.g. 'The weather was perfect for a hike; the sun was shining and the sky was clear') 	
	Writing to entertain	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Narratives, poems, and descriptive texts use language and structure to entertain, evoke emotion, and engage readers. Real or imagined experiences can be shaped creatively to build interest, suspense, or emotional connection with the reader. Paragraphs, stanzas, and scenes help organise ideas and events in a logical or artistic sequence, guiding the reader through the text. Descriptive details and sensory language help readers visualise and emotionally connect with the text. A strong conclusion provides a sense of closure, resolution, or reflection that ties back to the main ideas or events in the text. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing texts to entertain that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> present real or imagined experiences or events introduce a situation and setting that help the reader, listener, or viewer understand what is happening and where are well structured, using paragraphs, stanzas, or scenes to create a sense of sequence include carefully selected words and phrases, relevant descriptive details, and sensory language to convey experiences and events provide a resolution or sense of closure that follows from the rest of the text 	
				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing texts to entertain that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> present real or imagined experiences or events or a combination of these orient the reader, listener, or viewer by establishing a situation and setting that supports the purpose of the text use a variety of techniques to sequence events, thoughts, or experiences and signal shifts from one setting or idea to another include carefully selected words and phrases, relevant descriptive details, and sensory language to capture the action and convey experiences and events provide a resolution that follows from and reflects on the rest of the text 	

Writing		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>		Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>	
		During Year 7	During Year 8	During Year 7	During Year 8
	Writing to inform	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Informative texts are written to communicate information, explain ideas, or present arguments clearly and logically. • Different forms of informative writing (e.g. reports, explanations, arguments, discussions, articles, biographies, character profiles, scripts for presentations, and responses to text) have their own specific features. • Headings, illustrations, charts, tables, and multimedia elements can support understanding by organising and visually representing information. • Transition words and phrases (e.g. 'for example', 'however', 'in contrast') help link ideas and guide the reader through the text. • Relevant facts, definitions, examples, and quotations strengthen the credibility and clarity of an informative text. • Referencing sources shows where information came from and helps the reader decide if it is reliable. • Information from media, including digital sources of information, needs to be checked against other text sources to confirm validity. • Precise language and domain-specific vocabulary help explain complex ideas accurately and effectively. • A concluding paragraph should summarise key points and leave the reader with a clear understanding of the topic. • Information from media, including digital sources of information, needs to be checked against other text sources to confirm validity. • Creative Commons means content like pictures or music can be used if the creator is named and the rules are followed. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writing texts to inform that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ clearly introduce the topic and organise ideas and information logically into paragraphs ○ include headings and visual features such as illustrations, charts, tables, and multimedia (when useful for aiding comprehension) ○ include words and phrases to clarify, illustrate, or compare ideas ○ include relevant facts, definitions, examples, and quotations ○ provide references for the sources of information used in the text ○ include precise language and domain-specific vocabulary to explain the topic ○ provide a concluding paragraph which highlights the most important points • Considering whether a digital or media text is trustworthy by considering who created it, what evidence it presents, and how the information is supported or sourced • Using digital content responsibly by citing sources and, where appropriate, asking permission before sharing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writing texts to inform that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ clearly introduce the topic, provide a preview of what will be covered, and organise ideas and information logically within and across paragraphs ○ include considered use of headings and visual features such as illustrations, charts, tables, and multimedia ○ link ideas within and across categories of information using carefully selected and varied transition words, phrases, and clauses (e.g. similarly, consequently, conversely) ○ include relevant and carefully selected facts, definitions, examples, and quotations ○ provide references for the sources of information used in the text ○ include precise language and domain-specific vocabulary to explain the topic ○ provide a concluding paragraph which highlights the most important points and encourages further reflection • Interrogating the validity of digital and media texts by examining authorship, use of evidence, and signs of bias • Engaging in the responsible use of digital content, including linking to or citing sources for created texts and considering copyright and Creative Commons when sharing to a wider audience
	Writing to persuade	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Persuasive texts aim to convince the audience to adopt a particular viewpoint or take a specific action. • Different forms of persuasive writing (e.g. opinion pieces, advertisements, letters to the editor, arguments, presentations, debates, and discussions) have their own specific features. • Clearly stating a preferred position helps the audience understand the writer's viewpoint. • Persuasive texts use emotive words and phrases to convince readers of their preferred position. • Organising reasons and evidence logically strengthens the argument. • Using trustworthy sources helps persuade the audience. • Persuasive conclusions often restate the key points and leave a strong final impression. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Providing evidence to undermine the opposing side of the argument strengthens the writer's position. • Rhetorical devices (e.g. hyperbole, anecdotes, and contrast) are used to shape meaning, persuade audiences, and enhance communication by adding emphasis and emotional impact. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writing texts to persuade that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ introduce a preferred position and organise the reasons and evidence clearly ○ support the stated position with clear reasons and relevant evidence, using trustworthy sources ○ include emotive language that is compelling but respectful ○ have a concluding section that clearly restates their position 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writing texts to persuade that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ clearly introduce a preferred position, acknowledge alternative or opposing position(s), and organise the reasons and evidence logically ○ support the preferred position with logical reasoning and relevant evidence, using accurate, trustworthy sources ○ include emotive language and rhetorical devices that are compelling but respectful ○ present the opposing position with evidence, pointing out why the preferred position is stronger ○ have a concluding section that clearly restates their position and ends with a strong statement that reinforces why the reader should support it

Writing		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>		Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>	
		During Year 7	During Year 8	During Year 7	During Year 8
Writing Processes	Planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different writing purposes, forms, and genres need different planning and note-taking strategies (e.g. graphic organisers, outlines, mind maps) to help organise ideas clearly. • Categorising and synthesising notes enables writers to identify patterns, gaps, and connections in their thinking. • Effective planning helps clarify ideas, structure content, and meet the intended writing purpose. • Writers improve their work by setting specific goals for their writing and reflecting on how their planning strategies supported those goals and shaped the final product. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using appropriate planning and note-taking strategies for specific writing tasks • Taking notes using key words and phrases to support idea development • Organising ideas logically into paragraphs, sections, or stanzas • Setting, working towards, and self-evaluating against specific writing goals based on analysis of writing content and processes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Selecting and adapting planning and note-taking strategies to meet the needs of the writing purpose, form, or genre • Synthesising and prioritising notes using key words, phrases, and annotations to support idea development and coherence • Structuring ideas into cohesive sections, using transitions and paragraph organisation that suit the writing purpose • Reflecting on planning strategies, considering their effectiveness in supporting the writing purpose
	Drafting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Notes and key ideas from planning need to be turned into writing that follows the usual structure of the selected text type. • Multi-paragraph texts should be clearly organised to suit the writing purpose and audience. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Transferring ideas from planning to writing, including transferring main ideas to topic sentences • Using structural features such as linking words across the whole text to support cohesion • Writing multi-paragraph texts for specific purposes, organising the information and ideas using structures that best suit the purpose and audience (e.g. chronological order, cause and effect, compare and contrast, or narrative sequencing) 	
	Revising and editing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Revising is a process that involves improving the content, style, features, and tone of a text to better suit the audience, purpose, and message. • Feedback can provide valuable information about how the writing could be improved, and writers need to think carefully about whether or how to use it. • Carefully checking writing for spelling, punctuation, and formatting errors improves clarity, and tools such as digital dictionaries and editing software can help. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Making revisions to the content, style, features, and tone of draft texts and adding, deleting, and re-sequencing words and sentences to improve clarity, focus, grammar, and coherence for the intended audience and purpose • Requesting and selectively using peer feedback to determine where revision is needed, justifying their decision when the feedback is not used • Editing draft texts, checking for errors in spelling, punctuation, and formatting 	

Phase 4 (Years 9–10) teaching sequence

Teaching sequence guidance

This section provides guidance about structured literacy approaches, English language learners, and working with texts to support effective teaching of the teaching sequences.

In Years 9–10, the focus shifts from foundational literacy development to the integrated and purposeful application and analysis of language. Building on the knowledge and skills developed within the Oral Language, Reading, and Writing strands in Years 0–8, students are taught to engage with texts more critically and creatively.

Years 9–10 is structured into two strands: Text Studies and Language Studies. Each element within these strands draws directly from the Years 0–8 strands: within Text Studies, the element of Textual and Critical Analysis deepens the skills developed in Reading; within Language Studies, the element of Crafting Texts builds on Writing, and the element of Oral Communication extends Oral Language.

Students will analyse, interpret, and respond to a wide range of literary and non-fiction texts, exploring themes, structures, and contexts, while studying the features of language to understand how they shape meaning and influence interpretation. Building on this understanding, students will engage in the creation of texts, applying their knowledge of language, structure, and style to purposefully construct meaning and communicate effectively. By connecting the analytical elements of Text Studies with the expressive and constructive elements of Language Studies, teachers deepen students' understanding of both, fostering a greater appreciation for the power of language and texts in academic and everyday contexts.

In Year 10, the practices from Year 9 are consolidated and new practices are introduced.

Structured literacy approaches

Structured literacy approaches are evidence-based approaches to literacy instruction that are explicit, systematic, and cumulative. In Years 9–10, literacy instruction — including comprehension and language conventions such as spelling, punctuation, and syntax — is embedded within the disciplinary context of subject-English. It is applied to an increasingly diverse and complex range of literary and non-fiction texts, allowing students to deepen their understanding of language structures and meaning across forms and genres. Some students will be continuing to consolidate their literacy skills and will benefit from targeted or tailored support.

Providing opportunities for regular review and practice of literacy skills throughout their English programme will support all students' access to future learning pathways and life experiences.

English Language Learners (ELLs)

Students learning English as an additional language are likely to need targeted support to learn English for everyday communication and to access the academic language of the curriculum. They may also begin learning English for the first time at any year level.

Teachers use the [English Language Learning Progressions \(ELLP\) and English Language Learning Progressions \(ELLP\) Pathway](#) to plan targeted language support for new learners of English and those that are developing proficiency in the English language. While some everyday language may develop without explicit instruction through interactions with peers, it will be increasingly important to ensure that academic and subject-specific language is explicitly taught during these years. Teachers also support bilingual and multilingual students to connect with and use their first and heritage languages as valuable resources to progress learning and strengthen language and literacy outcomes.

Working with texts

Working with texts is at the core of English. How texts are used as well as how they are chosen are important considerations. Teachers choose texts that are both engaging and suitably challenging for their students.

Teachers can support effective engagement with texts through the following practices:

- Support students to develop agency and independence in their reading by providing opportunities for intentional choice over some of the texts they engage with and create. Encourage them to select texts based on personal interests, relevance, or reading goals, such as exploring new genres, improving comprehension, or reading a certain number of texts. Prompt reflection on these choices by helping students consider how well the texts align with their preferences or serve a specific purpose, and how their engagement with texts evolves over time.
- Ensure that interactions with texts reflect the languages, identities, and cultures of all students and support multiple ways of presenting, engaging with, and demonstrating learning.
- Give students opportunities to engage with high-interest, relevant, and meaningful texts, and provide collaborative and meaningful opportunities to create texts. Include reading aloud as a way to explore interpretation, share ideas, and build confidence in peer or public contexts.
- Design purposeful, rich, extended opportunities for students to share their thoughts about texts and topics.

To ‘engage meaningfully’ with texts means more than just reading or listening; it includes students analysing, evaluating, and applying what they learn from texts.

The choice of texts depends on the teaching purpose. For example, if the goal is to teach narrative techniques, teachers might use a novel. If the focus is on persuasive writing, teachers might choose speeches or opinion pieces. Different types of text forms can be studied together to show how they compare and contrast. Some texts can be studied in more detail than others. Students can engage meaningfully with a range of texts — whether fully, partially, or comparatively — depending on how each supports the learning focus. By engaging with a variety of literary and non-fiction texts

and having multiple opportunities to do so, students enhance their comprehension and critical thinking skills, gaining a deeper understanding of how texts communicate ideas and represent New Zealand and the world.

Deep comprehension of texts is grounded in the activation of prior knowledge and accumulation of new knowledge — what students already know shapes how they understand new information, making knowledge itself a powerful tool for meaning-making. Readers can relate ideas in texts to their personal experiences and prior knowledge by identifying relevant connections and reflecting on how these connections influence their understanding and interpretation.

Encouraging students to read for pleasure further fosters a lifelong love of reading, enriching their personal growth and appreciation of diverse perspectives. Teachers provide opportunities for students to select texts that reflect their interests, identities, or fulfil academic and personal goals, enabling them to build engagement, broaden their repertoire, and strengthen their sense of agency as readers. Supporting reading at home further reinforces these habits, helping students develop independence and deepen their connection with texts beyond the classroom.

Students who need intensive, accelerative, targeted support to build their decoding skills need age-appropriate materials that reflect their interests. At the same time, they need scaffolded access to year-level texts so that the development of their content knowledge, vocabulary, and comprehension skills is not restricted to the level of their decoding skills.

A key point is that the difficulty of a text for a particular student is determined by the relationship between the text, the complexity of the task, and the student’s existing knowledge and expertise.

The following table outlines expectations around text form, range, and complexity for Years 9–10. Appropriate consideration of text complexity will ensure students can access all relevant knowledge and practices within the teaching sequence. This includes selecting texts that are both accessible and sufficiently challenging, while also meeting the criteria for form, range, and complexity. Guidance for this can be found in the Example Texts supporting document.

Text specifications	
Text forms and range ⁷	Text complexity
<p>In each year, students must engage meaningfully with:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • at least one novel • a selection of poetry⁸ • at least one film <u>or</u> drama text • at least one short story • at least one non-fiction text. <p>Teachers may also choose from a range of other text forms, including visual, spoken, multimodal, and digital texts.</p> <p>Teachers should ensure that students experience historical and contemporary texts that are widely regarded as high quality.⁹ These must include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • seminal texts that have had a significant and lasting impact on how people understand key ideas from different cultures and times • texts by a range of authors representative of New Zealand’s rich bicultural (both Māori and Pākehā) and multicultural literary heritage • texts from around the world • texts from popular and youth cultures. <p>Students should also be supported to select texts for personal interest and enjoyment.</p>	<p>Texts should be of varying lengths, have appropriate complexity, and include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • multiple perspectives, which may be expressed across a number of texts • language features that may require students to use strong inferencing skills and to actively draw on their background knowledge to interpret the intended meaning • features of text that require analysis and interpretation, such as complex plots, abstract ideas, and structural choices that help shape meaning • themes that may challenge assumptions and deepen understanding.

⁷ Different types of text forms can be studied together to show how they compare and contrast. Some texts can be studied in more detail than others.

⁸ A selection of poems, varying in length, complexity, and theme, from one or multiple poets, that support literary analysis and student engagement.

⁹ High-quality texts are well crafted, engaging works of fiction or non-fiction that address meaningful themes, offer rich opportunities for interpretation and discussion, and provide significant educational value and challenge.

Text Studies

Text Studies		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>		Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>		
		During Year 9	During Year 10	During Year 9	During Year 10	
Textual and Critical Analysis	Features of text	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Text forms and genres are selected and adapted by authors to achieve specific purposes. Tropes are recurring features of text — such as storytelling patterns (e.g. the hero's journey, rags-to-riches), character types (e.g. the wise mentor, the chosen one), or plot devices (e.g. a mysterious prophecy, mistaken identity) — that authors use to shape meaning and guide audience expectations. Characterisation, plot, setting, ideas, narrative perspective, trope, language, style, and structure are key tools authors use to shape meaning. Features of text can be examined individually and together to support interpretation of meaning, reveal underlying themes, and allow connections with the text to emerge. Media and digital media texts use deliberate language, structure, and multimodal features to establish credibility and influence how audiences respond to, interpret, and share information. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Examining features of text across a range of forms, including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> in the novel, explaining how features of text — such as characterisation, plot development, setting, trope, and narrative perspective — work together to shape meaning and create effects in poetry, explaining how features of text — such as rhythm, figurative language, lineation, sound devices, and imagery — work together to shape meaning and create effects in the short story, explaining how features of text — such as characterisation, pacing, setting, compressed plot structure, and narrative perspective — work together to shape meaning and create effects in drama, explaining how features of text — such as dialogue, stage directions, tension, dramatic irony, and conflict — work together to shape meaning and create effects in film, explaining how features of text — such as narrative progression, cinematography, lighting and sound design, dialogue, and visual storytelling — work together to shape meaning and create effects in non-fiction, explaining how features of text — such as perspective, tone and register, use of evidence, domain-specific vocabulary, and structure — work together to shape meaning and create effects in oral presentations, explaining how features of text — such as emotive or persuasive language, tone, structure, gesture, and diction — work together to shape meaning and create effects in visual images, explaining how features of text — such as composition, framing, colour, message, and symbolism — work together to shape meaning and create effects in media and digital texts, explaining how features — such as tone, visuals, structure, narrative framing, and clickbait — work together to shape meaning, influence perception, and position audiences Comparing how features are used across different forms and genres to shape meaning and influence audience response Evaluating how effectively features are used to communicate ideas, guide audience expectations, and create effects 		
	Context and purpose	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A text is influenced by its historical, cultural, and social contexts, as well as its place in a literary tradition. A literary tradition is the collective body of works, styles, and conventions that shape how literature is created, shared, and interpreted within a particular culture, language, or historical period. New Zealand has a distinctive national literary tradition that reflects our context and engages with and enriches global literary traditions. Understanding the context in which a text was written may provide deeper insights into the text's themes, characters, and meaning, as well as the author's purpose. Authors have specific purposes for writing; their purpose influences the deliberate choices they make about the language, structure, style, and tropes in their texts. Texts often reflect and respond to their context, and may include or exclude particular ideas, groups, or perspectives, which can provide insight into the wider societal values and issues of their time. Evidence within a text can be used to develop and support interpretations of the author's purpose. Misinformation (false information shared by mistake), disinformation (false information shared deliberately), and malinformation (true information shared to harm) can appear in texts, particularly in media and digital media texts. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Examining the literary, historical, cultural, and social context of a text Drawing conclusions about an author's purpose by examining a text's content, structure, language, and style Identifying and interpreting explicit and implicit perspectives and portrayals of groups of people in a range of texts, and the effect of what or who is and is not included Interpreting evidence from a text to support conclusions about the author's purpose and meaning Identifying misinformation, disinformation, and malinformation in media and digital media texts by examining indicators such as emotional language, unreliable sources, misleading purpose, or manipulated or missing context 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analysing the relationship between a text and its context, identifying how it reflects, reinforces, or contests dominant values and viewpoints of its time Examining how an author may use tropes to deliberately place a text within a literary tradition Evaluating the impact of misinformation, disinformation, and malinformation in media and digital media texts by analysing language, source credibility, purpose, and context
	Interpretations and connections	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Texts and their meanings are not static — how texts are viewed and interpreted by readers can shift across time, language, and place. Connections can be made between a text and other texts, personal experiences, and the wider world. Texts by authors from New Zealand may connect to both a global literary tradition and one that is unique to New Zealand. Interpretations are strengthened when supported by evidence from the text. A reader's own historical, cultural, and social background can influence how they interpret a text. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Examining connections between a text and other texts, personal experiences, and the wider world Analysing factors that lead to varied interpretations among readers Supporting connections and interpretations with specific evidence from a text 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Examining how authors draw on and connect different literary traditions to enrich meaning and explore cultural perspectives, such as pūrākau and short stories from other cultural contexts

Text Studies		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>		Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>	
		During Year 9	During Year 10	During Year 9	During Year 10
	Response to texts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal responses to a text may provide information about ourselves and others. • Personal responses to texts are shaped by individual experiences, cultural backgrounds, and social contexts and can reveal how readers construct meaning and relate to others. • Reading purpose influences response (e.g. a text read for pleasure may inspire emotional, imaginative, or personal responses, whilst a text read for analysis may require structured, critical, or comparative responses). • Response to text can be developed individually and collaboratively, where discussion — such as in book clubs or reading groups — supports the development, reconsideration, and refinement of ideas through engagement with multiple perspectives. • Response to text may change over time, upon rereading, or after engaging with others. • Some responses to a text may be intended by the author, others may not be. • Texts can be responded to in a wide range of formats, including written, visual, oral, dramatic, and digital forms. • Response to text can be public (reviews, promotional presentations) or private (journalling, reading logs, text annotations), and may inform future reading. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expressing their personal responses to texts in varied formats (e.g. podcasts, video essays, infographics, blogs) • Engaging respectfully with differing responses and multiple viewpoints that are not their own • Considering various viewpoints to refine their own interpretation and to identify deeper layers of meaning 	

Language Studies

Language Studies		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>		Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>	
		During Year 9	During Year 10	During Year 9	During Year 10
Crafting Texts	Audience and purpose	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Considering an audience involves analysing its characteristics (e.g. age, interests, background knowledge) and anticipating its expectations, which informs decisions about tone, content, structure, and mode of delivery. Clarifying purpose means recognising the communicative intention of a text (e.g. to argue a position, analyse a literary text, narrate an experience) and making deliberate choices about structure, language, and style that suit the form and disciplinary context. Text conventions vary across forms, modes and disciplines, and writers use specific combinations of language, structure, and style to engage their audience and achieve their intended purpose. Planning strategies (e.g. brainstorming, outlining, storyboarding, flow charts) can be purposefully selected and adapted to enhance clarity and coherence, depending on the form and purpose of the writing. Writers use feedback to evaluate and refine how effectively a text engages its audience and achieves its intended purpose. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Determining the audience and purpose for their writing and using this to guide planning Using planning techniques to organise ideas effectively in relation to form and purpose Applying language, structural, and stylistic features of different text forms to create texts for different purposes and audiences Reflecting on the effectiveness of their texts in achieving their intended purpose and making adjustments as needed 	
	Discursive texts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Discursive texts explore, discuss, or reflect on ideas and viewpoints, often presenting multiple perspectives rather than arguing for a single, specific position. Discursive texts can be crafted to achieve different communicative purposes, such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> to analyse — examining ideas, issues, or texts critically, often presenting evidence and reasoning from multiple angles to reflect — exploring personal thoughts, experiences, or responses to ideas or events to explore — considering a topic or question in an open-ended way, without necessarily reaching a conclusion to speculate — imagining possible outcomes, implications, or interpretations, often using hypothetical reasoning. Language features (e.g. rhetorical questions, modality, comparisons, cohesive devices), structural features (e.g. thesis or opening statement, topic sentences, paragraphing that builds or contrasts ideas, transitions between viewpoints, a reflective or synthesising conclusion), and stylistic features (e.g. balanced tone, precise vocabulary, varied sentence structures) shape how ideas are conveyed and how readers engage with discursive texts. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Planning and developing a sequence of ideas at conceptual, paragraph, and whole-text levels Using appropriate language, structural, and stylistic features for a selected audience and purpose Supporting their ideas with well-chosen details, descriptions, and examples, accurately citing sources used where appropriate Presenting multiple perspectives clearly and logically when developing a discursive response Anticipating and responding to opposing positions when developing a persuasive argument Using narrative techniques when crafting creative texts to organise events and guide the reader, such as changes in setting or time Evaluating and revising the content, structure, style, and language features of draft texts for effectiveness 	
	Persuasive texts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Persuasive texts aim to convince the reader to agree with a particular point of view, take an action, or adopt a certain belief; they use a combination of emotional appeal (pathos), logical reasoning (logos), and credible evidence (ethos). Persuasive texts are crafted for specific audiences and contexts, and may vary in tone, formality, and structure depending on the medium (e.g. speech, editorial, advertisement). Language features (e.g. emotive language, rhetorical questions, inclusive language, statistics), structural features (e.g. a thesis statement, counter-arguments, a conclusion with a call to action), and stylistic features (e.g. assertive tone, direct address) shape how ideas are conveyed and how readers engage with persuasive texts. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Refining their planning by developing detailed outlines to enhance the coherence and depth of their texts Comparing and connecting multiple perspectives when developing a discursive response, showing how ideas support, challenge, or build on one another Using rhetorical appeals to present and refute counter-arguments when defending a position in a persuasive text Combining narrative techniques when crafting creative texts to shape structure, reveal character, or build tension and atmosphere Establishing a voice in their texts, modifying language, style, and tone to suit the form, genre, audience, and purpose, and clearly expressing their thoughts and opinions Participating in peer reviews, offering and incorporating constructive feedback 	
	Creative texts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Creative texts explore ideas, emotions, and experiences in imaginative ways; they often use figurative language, symbolism, tropes, and other literary devices to engage the reader's senses and emotions. Creative texts can use a range of narrative techniques — including flashbacks, foreshadowing, and shifts in perspective or time — to structure and sequence events effectively. Language features (e.g. sensory details, metaphors, emotive language), structural features (e.g. metre, varied sentence structures, conflict and resolution), and stylistic features (e.g. tone, diction) shape how ideas are conveyed and how readers engage with creative texts. 			
	Visual and digital texts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Visual texts communicate ideas, emotions, and messages through design elements to convey meaning; they are designed for specific purposes (to entertain, inform, or persuade) and can take various forms, some of which, (including moving images) will incorporate oral language. Ethical use of media and digital texts involves respecting intellectual property, recognising bias, representing diverse perspectives, and participating responsibly in online environments. Language features (e.g. captions, quotations, dialogue), structural features (e.g. framing, perspective, sequencing), and stylistic features (e.g. lighting, contrast, colour schemes) shape how ideas are conveyed and how readers engage with visual texts. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Planning and developing ideas Creating a visual text, using language, structural, and stylistic features for a selected audience and purpose Evaluating and revising the content, structure, style, and language features of their visual text for effectiveness 	
				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Applying ethical practices when using and creating digital media, including checking the validity of information, citing sources accurately, representing diverse perspectives, and interacting responsibly in online environments 	

Language Studies		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>		Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>	
		During Year 9	During Year 10	During Year 9	During Year 10
	Literary essays	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A literary essay is a discipline-specific structured form of writing used to explore and communicate interpretations of a text, drawing on key features of text such as theme, character, language, style, and structure. • A literary essay follows a clear structure that includes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ an introduction with a clear, concise thesis statement that presents a main argument about the text and provides a focus for the essay ○ body paragraphs that each develop an idea supported by evidence from the text that is analysed to show how it supports the thesis ○ a conclusion that summarises the main points discussed in the essay. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing a clear thesis statement, stating a main argument about the text in a concise manner • Beginning each paragraph with a topic sentence, using connectives where appropriate • Using appropriate language, stylistic, and structural features of literary essays • Using relevant quotations and examples from the text • Explaining how selected evidence supports their main argument • Exploring the author's purpose and techniques • Summarising the main points discussed in the essay 	
	Grammar, punctuation, and vocabulary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accurate grammar is essential for creating clear, structured, and effective communication • Accurate grammar includes the correct use of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ clauses ○ tenses ○ different sentence types, including simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences ○ active and passive voice. • Accurate punctuation provides clarity in writing and can be used to help readers navigate text smoothly, emphasise key ideas, and control pacing. • Accurate punctuation includes the correct use of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ apostrophes for showing ownership and contractions ○ commas for lists and other purposes ○ colons for lists and explanations ○ semicolons to link related sentences ○ quotation marks for dialogue and titles ○ parentheses ○ dashes ○ hyphens. • Effective vocabulary choices support writers to convey their intended meaning and tone. • Effective vocabulary choices include the correct use of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ synonyms and antonyms to avoid repetition or to provide the appropriate level of formality for the purpose and audience of their writing ○ common idiomatic expressions. • Words have specific connotations, and selecting words with these connotations allows writers to subtly influence a reader's emotions, perceptions, and interpretations. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using different sentence types, including simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences • Identifying and accurately using clauses, tenses, and the active and passive voice • Using apostrophes correctly for showing ownership and contractions • Applying commas, colons, and semicolons appropriately in their writing • Using quotation marks for dialogue and titles • Correctly incorporating parentheses, dashes, and hyphens • Choosing words effectively to convey the right meaning and tone • Identifying and accurately using prefixes, suffixes, synonyms, antonyms, idiomatic expressions, and connotation • Adjusting the level of formality in their writing to suit different situations and audiences • Editing draft texts to improve their accuracy, checking for errors in spelling, punctuation, grammar, and structure, and correcting inconsistencies • Editing digital texts using word-processing software, including spelling and grammar checkers, making informed choices about the suggestions provided by these tools 	
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Refining their use of advanced punctuation techniques, including ellipses, brackets, and the Oxford comma, to improve the clarity, precision, and style of their texts 			

Language Studies		Knowledge <i>The facts, concepts, principles, and theories to teach.</i>		Practices <i>The skills, strategies, and applications to teach.</i>			
		During Year 9	During Year 10	During Year 9	During Year 10		
Oral Communication	Presenting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Presentations take many different forms and are crafted for different purposes, including to inform, to entertain, and to persuade. • Presenting an individual presentation requires: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ understanding their audience and purpose, and tailoring content, style, and tone to suit the context, level of formality, and intended impact ○ selecting an appropriate oral communication form — such as a seminar, formal speech, podcast, spoken word poetry, or whaikōrero — and understanding how oral traditions, past and present, contribute to meaning-making and audience connection ○ clear organisation of ideas, including a strong introduction, well-structured body, and compelling conclusion that suits the presentation's intent ○ using rhetorical devices, purposeful language choices, and presentation strategies (e.g. rhetorical questions, direct address, analogy, storytelling, hooks, signposting, visual aids) to structure ideas and engage the audience effectively ○ confident delivery techniques — including tone, pace, volume, gestures, facial expressions, and body language — to support meaning and maintain audience attention ○ practising their delivery to develop clarity, timing, and confidence. • Presenting collectively in interactive or responsive formats — such as debates, panel discussions, or collaborative presentations — may also require: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ clearly stating and defending a position or viewpoint ○ providing well-researched and credible evidence to support ideas ○ anticipating and responding to counter-arguments or alternative perspectives to strengthen their position ○ using persuasive language and rhetorical devices to respond to others, defend viewpoints, and influence audience thinking ○ maintaining a respectful and courteous tone that supports open, productive exchange in interactive settings ○ organising ideas logically and coherently to suit the format and audience. • Oral communication in New Zealand can be shaped by rich spoken traditions, such as mihi, pepeha, kōrero tuku iho, and whaikōrero. • Using spoken forms specific to New Zealand supports meaningful communication and respectful engagement when presenting to different audiences, when appropriate to the context. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communicating clearly, developing shifts in tone, pace, and volume according to their purpose and audience • Selecting and using an oral language form that supports their message and reflects cultural or contextual relevance • Ordering ideas and using specific structural devices and strategies to shape presentations • Presenting ideas, arguments, or viewpoints, using a range of language and structural features • Communicating fluently, using a range of techniques, expressions, and gestures for effect • Checking the credibility, relevance, and potential bias of information, selecting sources that support communication across varied contexts 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communicating clearly and expressively, adopting deliberate shifts in tone, pace, and volume according to their purpose and audience • Structuring presentations logically, combining sources, using deliberate structural devices, and sequencing ideas to build momentum, emphasise key points, and guide the audience's response • Presenting detailed ideas, arguments, or viewpoints, using a range of sophisticated language and structural features 	
	Listening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active listening involves questioning (e.g. open-ended questions, paraphrasing, asking for elaboration) for the purposes of clarifying and summarising, and promoting collaborative thinking by inviting others to extend, refine, or respond to ideas. • Critical listening involves questioning (e.g. Socratic questioning, probing questions) for the purposes of assessing the validity of a spoken text and identifying bias. • Listening across different genres and contexts requires recognising how purpose, audience, and form shape and enhance meaning. • Listening to oral traditions and culturally significant forms involves attending to language, rhythm, and delivery to understand meaning and intent. • Recognising the structure and purpose of spoken forms specific to New Zealand (e.g. mihi, pepeha, whaikōrero) supports active listening and understanding. 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using questioning techniques to clarify and summarise information and to support deeper discussion by encouraging others to extend, refine, or respond to ideas • Reflecting on how tone, language choices, and delivery can affect the way spoken contributions are received and understood by others 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using questioning to assess the validity of a spoken text and identify bias • Analysing how tone, language choices, and delivery affect the credibility and impact of spoken texts 	

Assessment requirements

High-quality assessment information should be used to inform the development and implementation of teaching and learning programmes, communicate student progress and achievement to parents, and monitoring and evaluation of how well the school is supporting every student to progress and achieve across the curriculum.

Using assessment to understand student progress and achievement

Assessment is an essential component of quality teaching and learning. Timely, high-quality, assessment information enables informed decision-making by teachers, whānau, and school leaders to improve student outcomes and progress. Its ultimate purpose is to empower students to reach their full potential by making learning visible, measurable, and actionable.

Using robust assessment data allows teachers to tailor their teaching to what works best for their students, including identifying areas where additional support is required. It also enables schools to provide parents, whānau, and caregivers with clear, meaningful information about their child's progress at school.

School leaders are responsible for ensuring systems and strategies are in place to closely monitor student progress and achievement and to prioritise actions that support classroom teaching. This includes the use of specified assessment tools as outlined below.

Teachers actively assess student progress in relation to the year-by-year teaching sequences, using effective assessment practices. As teachers are monitoring progress and achievement, they pay particular attention to whether students are making sufficient progress to engage in the next year of learning.

Effective assessment practices involve consistently monitoring, responding to, and reporting on student progress and achievement. This includes synthesising information from observations, conversations with students, periodic tasks and data from assessment tools (including those specified below) to build a well-rounded understanding of each student's knowledge and capabilities.

Using formative assessment to inform explicit teaching

Formative assessment is essential to explicit teaching because it helps teachers check what students understand at each step of the learning process. It allows them to adjust their instruction in real time by clarifying, modelling, or reteaching, so that every student can confidently move forward with new learning.

Assessment enables teachers to notice and recognise students' development, consolidation, and proficient use of learning area knowledge within daily lessons, and to provide timely, targeted feedback. Teachers respond to assessment insights by adapting their practice, for example, by adjusting the level of scaffolding or support provided.

In addition to ongoing observations, teachers use purposefully designed formative assessment tasks at key points throughout a unit or topic. These tasks highlight the concepts and reasoning students understand and apply, helping teachers identify learning barriers and ensure every student can demonstrate what they know and can do.

When planning next steps in teaching and learning, teachers consider students' strengths and responses along with opportunities for consolidation. These next steps may include:

- designing scaffolds to support and enrich students' learning
- providing opportunities for students to apply new learning
- planning lessons that revise, reteach, or consolidate learning.

Timely feedback and immediate attention to misconceptions helps students grasp new ideas efficiently and accurately, while also promoting deeper learning. Teachers use this feedback to prompt recall of prior knowledge, encourage connection between concepts and ideas, and expand students' understanding.

Specific assessment requirements — assessment tools

The assessment tools outlined here must be used in conjunction with other assessment approaches, such as observation, conversations, self-assessment, and learning activities. The results from these tools are shared with parents and whānau to keep them well informed about their child's progress.

Phonics Checks

Phonics Checks are used as part of a range of assessment tasks to help students become strong, confident readers and writers. The checks identify those who need additional help with their phonics learning, to ensure that when needed, early intensive literacy support is provided within the student's first year of school.

School boards and principals must make sure their staff administer the Ministry of Education's Phonics Check with each student at the following **two timepoints** in the first 12 months at school (i.e. starting in Year 0–1):

- at 20 weeks at school (after approximately two terms of schooling)
- at 40 weeks at school (after approximately four terms of schooling).

The first check at 20 weeks provides teachers with an early indication of how students are progressing with their literacy learning. It helps teachers to identify where students need support to accelerate learning to achieve as expected.

The second check at 40 weeks enables teachers to gauge the progress students have made in the second half of their first year at school, assessing more complex grapheme–phoneme correspondences and helps teachers to identify where additional support is needed.

Students' phonics knowledge after a year at school is a reliable predictor of later reading and spelling success. For school leaders, the 40-week check provides useful information for monitoring how well the school's programme and systems of support are successfully enabling early literacy progress. This information should be used to monitor patterns over time to inform the ongoing review and refinement of the school's strategic planning, ensuring that early literacy remains a key focus for improvement.

Most students should be able to do Phonics Checks. For some students, teachers need to address barriers associated with the environment, equipment, and engagement to make these checks more accessible.

Teachers should provide appropriate flexibility for children who may require additional support to successfully demonstrate their phonics knowledge during the check. This can be done by making sure adjustments are made available for learners with additional learning needs.

For a small number of students who are not yet making grapheme–phoneme connections, it may not be appropriate to administer Phonics Checks at the designated timepoints. This may also apply to some deaf or hard of hearing students who communicate primarily through NZSL. In such cases, this information should be clearly recorded in the Phonics Checks, and alternative, more appropriate methods of assessing literacy and communication progress should be used aligned to their support plan (e.g. an Individual Education Plan (IEP), Collaborative Action Plan (CAP), etc.).

Assessment tools for twice yearly assessment of reading and writing for Year 3–8 students

The use of reliable assessment tools alongside teachers' day-to-day observations, helps teachers notice each student's next learning steps, track their progress, and ensure timely support for those who need it.

School boards and principals must make sure that staff administer twice-yearly assessments for each student in Years 3–8 to monitor their progress in reading and writing using **one** of the following tools:

- SMART (Student, Monitoring, Assessment and Report Tool), provided by the Ministry of Education

- PATs (Progressive Achievement Tests), provided by the New Zealand Council for Educational Research
- e-asTTle (during 2026 only), provided by the Ministry of Education.

For some students, teachers may need to address barriers associated with the environment, equipment, or engagement to enable them to successfully participate in and demonstrate their knowledge during assessments.

For a small number of students with additional learning needs it may not be appropriate to use the specified tools. In these cases, alternative assessment methods should be used to assess progress in literacy and communication learning progress for the twice-yearly assessments, as agreed in the student's support plan.

Overall assessments of how students are progressing against curricula expectations

Monitoring each student's progress and achievement across all learning areas is essential. This requires the use of high-quality information informed by effective assessment practices, including robust and reliable assessment tools. It is important to monitor how each student is progressing and achieving across each learning area, using good quality information that is informed by effective assessment practices, including the use of robust and reliable assessment tools. It is critical that teachers have confidence in the evidence they use to support their instructional decisions.

To ensure consistency in how teachers make and communicate informed decisions about students' progress in English school boards and principals must ensure that staff use the common progress descriptors, **Emerging, Developing, Consolidating, Proficient, and Exceeding** — for each student, as outlined below.

Emerging

Students require support to meet curriculum expectation for their year level and/or goals as described in their personalised learning plan.

Developing

Students are making some progress towards curriculum expectations for their year level.

Consolidating

Students are meeting many curriculum expectations for their year level and are steadily strengthening their understanding across learning areas.

Proficient

Students are meeting curriculum expectations for their year level.

Exceeding

Students are exceeding curriculum expectations for their year level.

When making an informed decision, teachers need to consider progress and achievement across each knowledge strand of the learning area and select the progress descriptor that best describes how the student's progress is tracking towards the end of year expectation. Teachers should then use these strand level informed decisions to make an overall assessment of progress across the learning area. To do this, teachers should refer to the learning area sequence for each year level.

If assessments conducted during the school year show that a student is at the *Consolidating*, *Proficient*, or *Exceeding level*, then their progress is considered to be on track. For students identified at *Proficient* and *Exceeding*, teachers should provide extended learning opportunities and enrichment activities that reflect the breadth and depth of the curriculum.

If a student is at the *Emerging* or *Developing level*, their progress is considered to not be on track to meet curriculum expectations for their year level. For these students, teachers will need to adjust classroom practice, develop individualised responses, or trigger additional learning support. When appropriate, teachers should report against the goals outlined in the student's support plan.

If end-of-year assessments indicate that a student is at the *Proficient* or *Exceeding level*, their progress is considered to have met curriculum expectations. Students assess at the *Emerging*, *Developing*, or *Consolidating levels*, are considered to have not yet met curriculum expectations for their year level.

For students with additional learning needs, who have individualised progress goals and assessments outlined in their support plans, the common descriptors should generally still be used. However, in these cases, the descriptors reflect the student's overall progress against their individual goals rather than the year level curriculum expectations. School leaders must ensure that monitoring systems clearly indicate when descriptors are being applied to individualised goals, while also maintaining visibility of progress toward year-level curriculum expectations.

Reading, writing, and maths teaching time requirements

The teaching and learning of reading, writing¹⁰, and maths¹¹ is a priority for all schools. So that all students are getting sufficient teaching and learning time for reading, writing, and maths, each school board with students in Years 0–8 must, through its principal and staff, structure their teaching and learning programmes and/or timetables to provide:

- 10 hours per week of teaching and learning focused on supporting students' progress and achievement in reading and writing, and recognising the important contribution oral language development makes, particularly in the early phases of learning
- 5 hours per week of teaching and learning focused on supporting students' progress and achievement in maths.

Where reading, writing, and/or maths teaching and learning time is occurring within the context of national curriculum statements other than English or Mathematics & Statistics, the progression of students' reading, writing, and/or maths dispositions, knowledge, and skills at the appropriate level must be explicitly and intentionally planned for and attended to.

Boards must also continue to give effect to the existing [structuring teaching time for reading, writing and maths foundation curriculum policy statement for The New Zealand Curriculum](#).

¹⁰ While the terms reading and writing are used, these expectations are inclusive of alternative methods of communication, including New Zealand Sign Language, augmentative and alternative communication (AAC), and Braille.

¹¹ For simplicity, 'maths' is used as an all-encompassing term to refer to the grouping of subject matter, dispositions, skills, competencies, and understandings that encompasses all aspects of numeracy, mathematics, and statistics.

Regulatory context and implementation requirements

The National Curriculum for schooling consists of two pathways that together provide the statement of official policy relating to teaching, learning, and assessment in state and state-integrated schools in New Zealand:

- Te Marautanga o Aotearoa, which is designed for delivery in te reo Māori immersion and bilingual settings
- the New Zealand Curriculum, which is designed for delivery in all other state and state-integrated settings.

This document is the English Years 0–10 Learning Area (2025) for the New Zealand Curriculum. The Te Reo Rangatira Years 0–10 wāhanga ako (2025) for settings using Te Marautanga o Aotearoa is published separately.

The English Years 0–10 Learning Area is published by the Minister of Education under section 90(1) of the Education and Training Act 2020 (the Act) as a foundation curriculum policy statement and a national curriculum statement. These are the statements of official policy in relation to the teaching of English that give direction to each school's curriculum and assessment responsibilities (section 127 of the Act), teaching and learning programmes (section 164 of the Act), and monitoring and reporting of student performance (section 165 of the Act and associated Regulations). School boards must ensure that they and their principal and staff give effect to these statements.

The sections of the English Years 0–10 Learning Area that are published as a foundation curriculum policy statement are the teaching sequence guidance (that sits ahead of the year-by-year teaching sequences) and assessment requirements. These set out expectations for teaching, learning, and assessment that underpin the English national curriculum statement and give direction for effective English teaching and learning programmes. The rest is published as a national curriculum statement. This sets out what students are expected to learn over their time at school, including the desirable levels of knowledge, understanding, and skill to be achieved in English.

The foundation curriculum policy statement and national curriculum statement for the English Years 0–10 Learning Area come into effect on 1 January 2026, replacing the existing English Learning Area statements through to Year 10 (curriculum level 6). The remainder of the existing (2009) national curriculum statement for the English Learning Area remains in force for Years 11–13 (curriculum levels 7–8). Schools should choose the appropriate English Learning Area statements for their students' needs. For example, schools may choose to make use of the Years 0–10 teaching sequence for some senior secondary students if they are working below curriculum level 7.