



Progression of Non-Fiction Writing Genres

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

Progression in Discussion Texts

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

Common forms of discussion text:

Non-fiction book on an 'issues'

Write-up a debate

Leaflet or article giving balanced account of an issue

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

Writing letters about pollution, factory farming or smoking

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

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

Discussion Purpose:

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

Generic text structure	Grammatical features	Planning and preparation
<p>The most common structure includes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a statement of the issues involved and a preview of the main arguments; • arguments for, with supporting evidence/examples; • arguments against or alternative views, with supporting evidence/examples. <p>Another common structure presents the arguments 'for' and 'against' alternatively.</p> <p>Discussion texts usually end with a summary and a statement of recommendation or conclusion. The summary may develop one particular viewpoint using reasoned judgements based on the evidence provided</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Written in the present tense. This can include other forms such as present perfect e.g. some people have argued...some people have said... • Generalises the participants and things it refers to using uncountable noun phrases (some people, most dogs), nouns that categorise (vehicles, pollution) and abstract nouns (power). • Heading and subheadings can be used to aid presentation. • Paragraphs are useful for organising the discussion into logical sections. • Uses adverbials e.g. therefore, however to create cohesion within and across paragraphs. • Writers need to make formal and informal vocabulary choices to suit the form of the writing by making generic statements followed by specific examples e.g. Most vegetarians disagree. Dave Smith, a vegetarian for 20 years, finds that ... • Layout devices such as diagrams, illustrations, moving images and sound can be used to provide additional information or give evidence • The passive voice can sometimes be used to present points of view e.g. It could be claimed that...it is possible that...some could claim that... • Degrees of formality and informality can be adapted to suit the form of the discussion e.g. whether writing a formal letter on an informal blog. This can include vocabulary choices e.g. choosing habitat rather than home...indicates rather than shows • Because arguments include hypothetical ideas, conditional language, such as the subjunctive form can sometimes be used e.g. If people were to stop hunting whales... • In discussions, complex ideas need developing over a sentence. Colons and semi-colons can be useful for separating and linking these ideas. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Questions often make good titles e.g. Should everyone travel less to conserve global energy? • Use the introduction to show why you are debating the issue e.g. There is always a lot of disagreement about x and people's views vary a lot. • Make sure you show both/all sides of the argument fairly. • Support each viewpoint you present with reasons and evidence. • If you opt to support one particular view in the conclusion, give reasons for your decision • Don't forget that discussion texts can be combined with other text types depending on your • Re-read your explanation as if you know nothing at all about the subject. Check that there are no gaps in the information • Remember that you can adapt explanatory texts or combine them with other text types to make them work effectively for your audience and purpose.

Progression in Explanatory Texts

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

Common forms of explanatory text:

Explaining electricity, forces, food chains etc. in science

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

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

Explaining religious traditions and practices in RE

Encyclopaedia entries

Technical manuals

Question and answer articles and leaflets

Science write-ups

Year group	Grammatical features to include in explanations
1	n/a
2	Consistent use of present tense Questions can be used to form titles Question marks are used to denote questions (Y1) Use conjunctions e.g. so...because
3	Express time, place and cause using conjunctions (e.g. so, because), adverbs and prepositions Heading and subheadings used to aid presentation
4	Use fronted adverbials Use of paragraphs to organise ideas Create cohesion through the use of nouns and pronouns
5	Indicate degrees of possibility using adverbs and modal verbs Use layout devices to provide additional information and guide the reader Create cohesion within paragraphs using adverbials Relative clauses can be used to add further information Parenthesis can be used to add clarification of technical words
6	Adapt degrees of formality and informality to suit the form of the explanation Create cohesion across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices which can include adverbials The passive voice can be used

Explanation Purpose:

To explain how or why, e.g. to explain the processes involved in natural/social phenomena or to explain why something is the way it is.

Generic text structure	Grammatical features	Planning and preparation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A general statement to introduce the topic being explained. E.g. In the winter some animals hibernate. • The steps or phases in a process are explained logically, in order. E.g. When the nights get longer ... because the temperature begins to drop ... so the hedgehog looks for a safe place to hide. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Written in present tense e.g. Hedgehogs wake up again in the spring.) • Questions can be used to form titles e.g. How do hedgehogs survive the winter? Why does it get dark at night? • Question marks are used to denote questions. • Use of adverbs e.g. first, then, after that, finally... • Use of conjunctions e.g. so, because... • Use prepositions e.g. before, after... • Cohesion can be created, and repetition avoided through the use of nouns and pronouns e.g. <u>Many</u> mammals...<u>they</u> feed their young... • Indicate degrees of possibility using adverbs e.g. perhaps, surely... Sometimes modal verbs can be used to express degrees of possibility e.g. might, should, will... • Fronted adverbials can be used e.g. During the night, nocturnal animals... • Relative clauses can be used to add further information e.g. Hedgehogs, which are mammals... • Degrees of formality and informality can be adapted to suit the form of the discussion, so an informal tone can sometimes be appropriate e.g. You'll be surprised to know that ... Have you ever thought about the way that ...? And a formal, authoritative tone can also be adopted e.g. oxygen is constantly replaced in the bloodstream... • The passive voice can sometimes be used e.g. gases are carried... • Layout devices such as heading, subheadings, columns, bullets etc. can be used to present information clearly. • Paragraphs are useful for organising the explanation into logical sections. • Brackets, dashes and commas can be used to add extra information inside parenthesis • e.g. oxygen (a gas found in air) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Choose a title that shows what you are explaining, perhaps using why or how. • Decide whether you need to include images or other features to help your reader, e.g. diagrams, photographs, a flow chart, a text box, captions, a list or a glossary. • Use the first paragraph to introduce what you will be explaining. • Plan the steps in your explanation and check that you have included any necessary information about how and why things happen as they do. • Add a few interesting details. • Interest the reader by talking directly to them • Re-read your explanation as if you know nothing at all about the subject. Check that there are no gaps in the information • Remember that you can adapt explanatory texts or combine them with other text types to make them work effectively for your audience and purpose.

Progression in Instruction Texts

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

Common forms of instructional text:

How to design and make artefacts

Technical manuals: how to operate computers, phones, devices

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

How to play a game

Writing rules for behaviour

How to cook and prepare food

Timetables and route-finders

Posters, notices and signs

Instructions on packaging

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

Instructions Purpose:

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

Generic text structure	Grammatical features	Planning and preparation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Begin by defining the goal or desired outcome. E.g. How to make a board game. • List any material or equipment needed, in order. Provide simple, clear instructions. If a process is to be undertaken, keep to the order in which the steps need to be followed to achieve the stated goal. • Diagrams or illustrations are often integral and may even take the place of some text. (Diagram B shows you how to connect the wires.) • A final evaluative statement can be used to wrap up the process. E.g. Now go and enjoy playing your new game. Your beautiful summer salad is now ready to eat. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use of imperative/command sentences e.g. Cut the card ... Paint your design ...some of these may be negative commands e.g. Do not use any glue at this stage... • Commas in lists can be used to separate required ingredients/materials • Conjunctions, adverbs and prepositions can be used to order and explain the procedure e.g. when this has been done...next add...after doing this... • Relative clauses can be used to add further information e.g. Collect your jam from the fried, which may be bought or homemade... • Cohesion can be created, and repetition avoided through the use of nouns and pronouns e.g. Add <u>the egg</u> and then beat <u>it</u> with a whisk. • Additional advice can be added through the use of parenthesis e.g. (It's a good idea to leave it overnight if you have time) ... Conditional adverbials can be used, including as fronted adverbials to make suggested alternatives e.g. <u>If you would like to make a bigger decoration</u>, you could either double the dimensions of the base or just draw bigger flowers. • Modals can be used to suggest degrees of possibility e.g. you should...you might want to... • Different degrees of formality may be required e.g. Cook for 20 minutes/Pop your cheesecake in the oven for 20 minutes. • Headings can be used to separate the equipment from the procedure. • Layout devices such as bullet points, numbers or letters to help your reader keep track as they work their way through each step. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use the title to show what the instructions are about. E.g. How to look after goldfish. • Work out exactly what sequence is needed to achieve the planned goal. • Decide on the important points you need to include at each stage. • Keep sentences as short and simple as possible. • Avoid unnecessary adjectives and adverbs or technical words, especially if your readers are young. • Appeal directly to the reader's interest and enthusiasm. E.g. You will really enjoy this game. Why not try out this delicious recipe on your friends? Only one more thing left to do now. • Use procedural texts within other text types when you need a set of rules, guidelines or instructions to make something really clear for the reader.

Progression in Non-Chronological Report Texts

Non-chronological reports describe things the way they are, so they usually present information in an objective way. Sometimes, the selection of information by the writer can result in a biased report. As with all text types, variants occur and non-chronological reports can be combined with other text types. A text that is essentially a non-chronological report written in the present tense may include other text types such as other types of report, e.g. when a specific example is provided to add detail to a statement.

Common forms of report text:

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

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

Comparing and describing localities or geographical features

Describing the characteristics of religious groups and their lifestyles in RE

Information leaflets, Catalogues, Magazine articles

Tourist guidebooks & Non-fiction books

Encyclopedia entries

Letters

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

Non- Chronological Reports Purpose:

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

Generic text structure	Grammatical features	Planning and Preparation
<p>In the absence of a temporal (chronological) structure where events happen in a particular order, non-chronological reports usually have a logical structure. They tend to group information, often moving from general to more specific detail and examples or elaborations. A common structure includes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • an opening statement, often a general classification (Sparrows are birds); • sometimes followed by a more detailed or technical classification (Their Latin name is...); • a description of whatever is the subject of the report organised in some way to help the reader make sense of the information. For example: • its qualities (Like most birds, sparrows have feathers.); • its parts and their functions (The beak is small and strong so that it can ...); • its habits/behaviour/ uses (Sparrows nest in ...) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Often written in the third person and present tense e.g. They like to build their nests ... It is a cold and dangerous place to live. • Sometimes written in the past tense, as in a historical report e.g. Children as young as seven worked in factories. They were poorly fed and clothed and they did dangerous work. • Questions can be used to form titles e.g. Who were the Victorians? What was it like in a Victorian school? • Question marks are used to denote questions. • Use of conjunctions e.g. so, because... • Use prepositions e.g. before, after... • Cohesion can be created, and repetition avoided through the use of nouns and pronouns e.g. <u>The Victorians</u> liked...<u>they</u> were particularly fond of... • Non-chronological reports are often organised into sections. This makes paragraphs useful. • Headings can be used to organise different sections. • Layout devices such as heading, subheadings, columns, bullets etc. can be used to present information clearly. Consistent use across the text helps create cohesion. • The passive voice is frequently used to avoid personalisation, to avoid naming the agent of a verb, to add variety to sentences or to maintain an appropriate level of formality for the context and purpose of writing. E.g. Sparrows are found in ... Sharks are hunted ... children were taught ... • Requires the writer to appreciate the difference between vocabulary typical of informal speech and that appropriate for formal speech e.g. the habitat of wood mice rather than where wood mice live. • Adjectives and specifically comparative adjectives can be used to create description e.g. Polar bears are the biggest carnivores of all. They hibernate, just like other bears. A polar bear's nose is as black as a piece of coal. • Brackets, dashes and commas can be used to add extra information inside parenthesis. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Plan how you will organise the information you want to include, e.g. use paragraph headings, a spidergram or a grid. • Gather information from a wide range of sources and collect it under the headings you've planned. • Consider using a question in the title to interest your reader (Vitamins – why are they so important?). • Try to find a new way to approach the subject and compose an opening that will attract the reader or capture their interest. Use the opening to make very clear what you are writing about. • Include tables, diagrams or images e.g. imported photographs or drawings that add or summarise information. • Find ways of making links with your reader. You could ask a direct question e.g. Have you ever heard of a hammerhead shark? or add a personal touch to the text e.g. So next time you choose a pet, think about getting a dog. • Re-read the report as if you know nothing about its subject. Check that information is logically organised and clear. Use other text-types within your report if they will make it more effective for your purpose and audience.

Progression in Persuasive Texts

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

Common forms of persuasive text:

Writing publicity materials such as tourist brochures based on trips to places of interest; writing editorials to newspapers about controversial issues

Writing letters about topics such as traffic on the high street or deforestations

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

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

Writing book reviews for other pupils

Book blurbs Political pamphlets

Applying for a job or a position on the school council

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

Persuasive Texts Purpose:

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

Generic text structure	Grammatical features	Planning and Preparation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An opening statement (thesis) that sums up the viewpoint being presented. (Greentrees Hotel is the best in the world. School uniform is a good idea.) • Strategically organised information presents and then elaborates on the desired viewpoint. (Vote for me because I am very experienced. I have been a school councilor three times and I have ...) • A closing statement repeats and reinforces the original thesis. (All the evidence shows that ... It's quite clear that ... Having seen all that we offer you, there can be no doubt that we are the best.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Written in the present tense. This can include other forms such as present perfect e.g. people have said... • Often refers to generic rather than specific participants e.g. Vegetables are good for you. They ... This means that cohesion is created through the combined use of nouns and pronouns. • Uses adverbials e.g. therefore, however to create cohesion within and across paragraphs. • Uses logical conjunctions, adverbials and prepositions e.g. This proves that ... So it's clear ... Therefore ... • Paragraphs are useful for organising the content into logical sections. • Requires the writer to make formal and informal vocabulary choices by moving from generic statements to specific examples when key points are being presented. (The hotel is comfortable. The beds are soft, the chairs are specially made to support your back and all rooms have thick carpet.) • Sentence types include rhetorical questions e.g. Do you want to get left behind in the race to be fashionable? Want to be the most relaxed person in town? So what do you have to do to? • Modals can be used to suggest degrees of possibility e.g. this could be...you should...you might want to... • Sometimes the second person is useful for appealing to the reader e.g. e.g. this is just what you've been looking for. This also enables adaptation of the Degrees of formality and informality so that the text appeals to the reader. • Adjectives can be used to create persuasive noun phrases e.g. delicious chocolate...evil hunters... • In some formal texts, it may be possible to use the passive voice e.g. It can be said...it cannot be overstated... • Repetition can be used to strengthen your point of view. This also acts as a cohesive device. • Because arguments include hypothetical ideas, conditional language, such as the subjunctive form can sometimes be used e.g. If people were to stop hunting whales... 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decide on the viewpoint you want to present and carefully select the information that supports it. • Organise the main points to be made in the best order and decide which persuasive information you will add to support each. • Plan some elaboration/explanation, evidence and example(s) for each key point but avoid ending up with text that sounds like a list. • Think about counter arguments your reader might come up with and include evidence to make them seem incorrect or irrelevant. • Try to appear reasonable and use facts rather than emotive comments. • Choose strong, positive words and phrases and avoid sounding negative. • Use short sentences for emphasis. • Re-read the text as if you have no opinion and decide if you would be persuaded. • Remember that you can use persuasive writing within other text types.

Progression in Recounts

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

Common forms of recount texts:

- Retelling stories in English lessons and other curriculum areas such as RE
- Giving accounts of schoolwork, sporting events, science experiments and trips out
- Writing historical accounts
- Writing biographies and autobiographies
- Letters and postcards
- Diaries and journals
- Newspaper reports & Magazine articles
- Obituaries
- Encyclopedia entries

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

Recount Purpose:

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

Generic text structure	Grammatical features	Planning and Preparation
<p>Structure often includes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • orientation such as scene-setting or establishing context (It was the school holidays. I went to the park ...) • an account of the events that took place, often in chronological order (The first person to arrive was ...) • some additional detail about each event (He was surprised to see me.) • reorientation, e.g. a closing statement that may include elaboration. (I hope I can go to the park again next week. It was fun.) <p>Structure sometimes reorganises the chronology of events using techniques such as flashbacks, moving the focus backwards and forwards in time, but these strategies are more often used in fiction recounts</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Usually written in the past tense with space for pupils to use the past progressive form <u>playing</u>, I <u>was hoping</u>... • Opportunities also exist for the use of the past perfect e.g. The children <u>had tried</u>... earlier in the day, the owls <u>had hunted</u>... and Past perfect progressive forms e.g. the children <u>had been singing</u>... we <u>had been hoping</u> to go on this trip for a long time... • Some forms may use present tense, e.g. informal anecdotal storytelling (Just imagine – I'm in the park and I suddenly see a giant bat flying towards me!) which also enables writing to meet different levels of formality and informality. In these cases it is also possible to extend opportunities to writing using the present progressive e.g. I <u>am</u> really <u>hoping</u>... • Conjunctions are useful for coordinating events and showing subordination e.g. we went to the park so we could play on the swings... • Events being recounted have a chronological order, so conjunctions, adverbs and prepositions are used e.g. then, next, first, afterwards, just before that, at last, meanwhile. • Noun phrases (some people, most dogs, blue butterfly) can be used to add detail and interest the reader • The subject of a recount tends to focus on individual or group participants, which requires the use of either first or third person e.g. Third person they all shouted, she crept out, it looked like an animal of some kind). • In personal recounts, the first person is used e.g. I was on my way to school ... We got on the bus... • Recounts can take many forms (diaries, letters, newspaper reports) paragraphing can be used to organise all of these. • Uses adverbials e.g. therefore, however to create cohesion within and across paragraphs. • Different degrees of formality may be required for different forms e.g. high formality if recounting in the style of a broadsheet newspaper or informal in a personal diary. • Modals can be used to suggest degrees of possibility e.g. I should never have... they must be allowed... • Inverted commas can be used to punctuate direct speech e.g. eye-witness reports in newspapers, retelling a conversation in a diary or letter... 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Plan how you will organise the way you retell the events. You could use a timeline to help you plan. • Details are important to create a recount rather than a simple list of events in order. Try using When? Where? Who? What? Why? questions to help you plan what to include. • Decide how you will finish the recount. You'll need a definite ending, perhaps a summary or a comment on what happened (I think our school trip to the Science Museum was the best we have ever had). • Read the text through as if you don't know anything about what it is being recounted. Is it clear what happened and when? • Is the style right for the genre you are using? (Technical/formal language to recount a science experiment, powerful verbs and vivid description to recount an adventure, informal, personal language to tell your friends about something funny that happened to you.)