TEXT TYPES

Descriptions

Scaffolds

Examples

This resource has been compiled for use by teachers, students and parents. It has been written to align with the revised English K-6 Syllabus.

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Acknowledgements:

English K-6 Syllabus, Board Studies, Sydney, March 1998 Literacy Across the Key Learning Areas, Years 7 and 8, NPDP, 1996

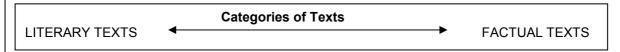
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English K-6 Syllabus Scope and Sequence of Text Types

For the purpose to this syllabus, texts are grouped and defined in particular categories. It is important to note that any such classification is to some extent arbitrary and that there is always likely to be overlap between ways of grouping and defining text types (see tables below).

Categories of Texts

Texts can be classified into the broad categories of literacy and factual texts. Both categories include media texts, which can be either literacy or factual in orientation. They also include all forms of electronic text.



The categories if texts indicated above can further subdivided into different text types.

Text Types ORAL AND WRITTEN			
LITERARY TEXTS	FACTUAL TEXTS		
Narrative Literary recount Observation Literary description Personal response Review	Factual description Information report Procedure Procedural recount Factual recount Explanation Exposition Discussion		

This list is not exhaustive but indicates a range of text types that are crucial to students' learning in the primary school curriculum and to participating effectively in the wider community. It does not include traditional story types such as myths and legends, as these may be either recounts or narratives.

It is important to note that these text types are somewhat idealised for teaching purposes. In real life, we often find 'mixed' texts. A narrative, for example, might include a description of the setting; a procedure for an investigation might conclude with an explanation of the scientific principle involved.

Text types and their structures should not be seen as straitjackets but as starting points. When students understand that:

- Different types of texts exist
- Texts serve different purposes
- Texts are typically structured in particular ways and
- Texts have characteristic grammatical features,

Then students are in a better position to create and manipulate texts and combine elements in a purposeful way.

It is not intended that all text types be taught fully and systematically in each stage. Teachers will focus on those that are most relevant to the content of their program. It is probable; however, that most of the text types will be encountered to some degree across the key learning areas.

Scope and Sequence of Text Types – English K-6 Syllabus (continued)

Literary texts

Literary texts include those spoken and written texts that explore and interpret human experience, usually in such a way as to evoke in the reader or listener a reflective, imaginative and/or emotional response.

There is a wide variety of literary texts, many of which may overlap, as in the case of narrative poetry, drama and poetic use of language in prose.

Literary texts are an important part of the English program. The engagement of a student with a literary text can be a powerful and evocative experience that shapes the student's imagination and thought. Reading quality literature can have a significant impact on how students see and relate to the world around them.

While literary texts are commonly thought of in terms of books, they may also be transmitted through other media such as magazines, film, radio, television and computers and in different combinations of media.

Factual texts

Factual texts are those that present information, ideas or issues in such a way as to inform, instruct, enlighten or persuade the reader or listener. Factual texts appear in all cultures.

Factual texts may be spoken or written and may include visual elements. In spoken texts an important part of the meaning may derive from facial expression, from gesture or from the use of technology. In written texts, meaning is also contained in visual elements such as graphs, maps, photographs, grids, diagrams, drawings and labels.

Whether written or spoken, factual texts present their content from a particular perspective. However, their perspective or point of view of the writer or speaker may not be overtly stated. Factual texts may suppress the point of view in an attempt to appear objective.

Although factual texts may purport to present accurate, objective information, they are not simply objective representations of reality. Rather, they are constructions of reality, created by a writer or speaker.

Many of the written texts that students will encounter in their schooling, and indeed throughout their lives, will be factual. Teachers need to ensure that students are equipped with the skills and knowledge to create and interpret factual texts. Students need to learn about the ways in which these texts construct and present information and knowledge about a subject. Students should be encouraged to explore the ways in which the factual texts they encounter are similar to and different from those described in the syllabus.

While factual texts are commonly associated with print, they may also be spoken. Types of factual text such as procedure, discussion, exposition and recount may be in spoken forms.

Factual texts are also commonly found in media forms. They are shaped by the particular technology of the medium of transmission. The medium of transmission may at times appear to lend authority to the information in the text. For instance, 'news' is often presented as if it were an accurate 'information report' rather that a highly subjective recount. On television, for example, the camera, in particular, determines the point of view that an audience may have on the subject by such things as the type and angle of the shot.

Summary of Text Types

Text Type	Purpose	Structure	Language features
Narrative	To entertain, create, stimulate emotions, motivate, guide, teach	 Orientation Complication/Evaluation Resolution Coda (optional) 	 Usually specific participants Time words used to connect events Action words predominate in complication and resolution Noun groups important in describing characters and settings
Recount -Literary -Procedural -Factual	To tell what happened Literary recounts are to entertain	 Orientation Series of events Sequenced in time (literary recounts) Personal comments reorientation 	 Descriptive language Past tense Time words to connect events Words which tell us where, when, with whom, how
Description	To describe a particular living, non-living or natural phenomenon.	 Introduction Characteristics features, e.g. appearance qualities Conclusion (optional) 	 Particular nouns Variety of adjectives Use of similes, metaphors and other types of figurative language
Response	To summarise and respond personally to an artistic work.	Context of artistic workDescription of artistic workJudgement	 Words which express judgements Descriptive language Present tense Persuasive language
Information Report	To classify or describe general classes of phenomena	General statement or classificationDescription	Technical languageSimple present tenseGeneralised terms
Procedure	To achieve a goal/outcome through a sequence of steps	GoalMaterials needed (<u>optional</u>)Steps	 Verbs usually at the beginning of each instruction Words or groups of words which tell us how, when, where, with whom Use of commands
Explanation	To explain how or why something occurs in scientific and technical fields	 Phenomenon identification Explanation sequence Concluding statement (optional) 	 Complex sentences Technical language Use of words such as 'because', 'as a result', to establish cause/effect sequence Passive voice Simple present tense
Exposition	To persuade by arguing one side of the issue	ThesisArgument (1-n)Reinforcement of Thesis	 Words that quality e.g. usually, probably Words that link arguments e.g. firstly, on the other hand Evaluate language Modals e.g. must, certainly
Discussion	To examine issues from more than one perspective and make recommendations based on evidence.	Opening statementArguments, for and againstConclusion	 Words that link arguments Varying degrees of modality Use of adverbials of manner e.g. deliberately

Narrative

What do narratives do?

Narratives are closely related to recounts. As we saw in the narrative snippet in Module 1, Narratives share many of the same language features. One difference lies in the build up in a Narrative to some kind of problematic climax which is then resolved.

Narratives also are characterised by comments that make judgements about the characters and events.

Narratives are central to the key learning area of English.

What do narratives look like?

Classic narratives have four crucial stages. Theses are:

Orientation:

The purpose of the orientation is to inform the reader about the WHO, WHAT, WHEN or WHERE of the story.

Complication:

The complication is the backbone of the narrative. It is the stage of the story which provides the plot device on which the action turns.

Evaluation:

The evaluation is the characters' response to the events taking place in the story. Thoughts, feelings are common in this stage.

Resolution:

The resolution is the stage of the narrative in which the problems of the complication are resolved.

The evaluation stage is often integrated into other stages of a narrative; most commonly the Complication stage.

What are the language features of the narrative?

The narrative usually refers to specific characters and things, not to groups of things.

Time words are used to connect events, words or groups of words which refer to WHEN, e.g. at three o'clock; after; in the morning.

Action verbs predominate in complication and resolution as these stages contain the action of the narrative, e.g. run; lope; scamper.

Noun groups are important in describing characters and settings.

Narratives frequently use long groups of words which describe a thing (usually a noun). The descriptive information is usually contained in larger noun groups rather than in separate sentences, e.g. 'Two sensuous, grey, furry Burnese cats are...' rather than 'There are two cats. They are grey. They are furry. They are Burmese.'

Narrative

Purpose:

To entertain, create, stimulate emotions, motivate, guide or teach through story

Structure:

- Orientation setting the scene
- Complication/Evaluation problem and series of events
- Resolution of the problem
- Coda (or moral) optional

Language:

- usually specific participants
- time words used to connect events
- action words predominate in complication and resolution
- noun groups important in describing characters and settings

How to Write a Narrative

Orientation:	Key Words:
Complication/Evaluation:	
Resolution:	
Coda: (optional)	

Narrative

The Fight Text Structure

Language Features

Orientation gives a setting for events and introduces the "I" the narrator.

It all happened when I was walking home from school. Two kids from my class decided to pick on me. They started yelling stupid names like spazzo, pigface etc. I didn't mind this. I also didn't mind Kelly punching me in the shoulder. What I did mind was the Kelly kept me occupied while Matthew (better known as Roberts) rode my bike around the cul de sac of the street.

Use of word chains to build topic information, e.g. pick on, yelling, punching, mind, didn't mind, chased, threw punches.

Complication includes evaluation. e.g. I didn't mind sentences, e.g. It all happened when I was walking home from school.

complex

of

Resolution

Use of action verbs, e.g. walking, punching

This was harmless. But, still riding, he kicked off my bag and jumped off the bike leaving it to fall. This made me sore. I gave in to my temper. When Matthew saw this he took off. So it was me and David Kelly to battle it out. I chased him around and around the street. When I finally caught him I threw punches galore.

Use of saying verbs, e.g. yelling

Use of thinking verbs, e.g. mind Use of complex verbal

e.g.

started

yelling

aroup.

Use

Coda

Use of conjunctions to build relations of time and cause between events, e.g. when, so

Most of them missed. Kelly managed to escape and run home. I think I was the victor, but if I was, I don't think it was worth it.

Use of past tense, e.g. chased, caught

Use of saying thinking verbs to indicate what characters thinking and feeling, an aspect of important narrative.

Recount

There are three types of recounts: Literary, Procedural and Factual.

What do recounts do?

Recounts are retelling of past events. They are usually written as a series of events in the order in which they happen.

What do recounts look like?

Orientation:

The first stage tells us about who, what, where and when, to help the reader place the events in time and place.

Sequence of Events:

This is the retelling of the events in sequence, which is organised in time.

Personal Comments:

These are found interspersed throughout literary recounts and may reflect evaluations.

Reorientation:

This is only used in literary recounts to 'round off' the sequence of events.

What are the language features of a recount?

Descriptive words are used to construct a description of the world in which the events are taking place.

Typically, the past tense is used to relate the events.

These events are linked together using time reference, e.g. the next day, once, afterwards.

Recount

Literary

Procedural

Factual

Purpose:

To reconstruct past events by retelling them in the order in which they occurred. Literary recount also has the purpose to entertain.

Structure:

- Orientation or Opening: Information about who, where and when
- Series of events in the order that they occurred

Literary:

- Personal comments and/or evaluation remarks (interspersed throughout the record)
- A reorientation, which 'rounds off' the sequence of events

Language Features:

- descriptive language
- past tense
- time words to connect events
- words which tell us where, when, with, who, how

How to Write a Recount

LITERARY

PROCEDURAL

FACTUAL

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Sequence of Events:

NB: Include personal comments for literary recounts

Reorientation: (literary only)

Recount

Text Structure

The History of Electronic Communication

Orientation introduces background information

Statement of significance

Record of events

In the past people used different ways to communicate over long distances, such as smoke signals, drums and flags. Inventions such as the telephone, radio and television made communication over greater distances possible.

In 1837, Samuel Morse invented a system that transmitted sound pulses through a wire. These sounds were sent and received by an operator who knew the special Morse code. This allowed communication over long distances.

On 10 March 1876, Alexander Graham Bell invented the first telephone. A human voice was sent along a wire using magnets and an electric current. He spoke to his friend and fellow inventor, Thomas Watson, who was in another room.

Guglielmo Marconi discovered a way of sending and receiving radio waves at the turn of the century. In 1901 he amazed the world by sending a radio message across the Atlantic Ocean. Radio became a vital part of world communication, especially for ships and planes.

In 1930s the first televisions were built. This was the first time that sound and pictures were transmitted together. Colour television was developed in the 1950s.

During this century many more forms of technology have been invented that allow people to communicate over long distances and even keep a record of that communication. Fax machines send printed information anywhere in the world. In the future, new technology will continue to make long distance electronic communication even faster and more efficient.

Language Features

Use of word families and chains to build topic information, e.g. smoke signals, drums, telephone, radios

Use of adverbial phrases telling 'when' to sequence events in time, e.g. In 1837, on 10 March 1876; use of these as beginning focus (theme) of clause

Use of technical terms, e.g. sound pulses

Use of action verbs, e.g. invented. sent

Use of passive voice, e.g. 'by an operator' is the doer of 'sent'

Use of noun groups, e.g. human voice

Use of passive voice allows writer to omit 'doer' of action, e.g. These sounds were sent and received by an operator.

Use of abstract words, e.g. television, communication, information

Description

What do descriptions do?

Descriptions focus out attention on the characteristic features of a particular thing. These texts are particularly important in English and Science.

While description can occur as 'stand alone' texts, they are often part of a longer text, such as the description of a character or setting in a story or biography. Although they might not always be seen as distinct text type, it is felt that the ability to describe someone or something in detail is an important skill that can contribute to a number of text types.

What do descriptions look like?

Descriptions are usually organised to include:

An introduction:

This section is an introduction to the subject of the description.

Characteristic features:

These are the characteristic features of the subject, e.g. physical appearance, qualities, habitual behaviour, significant attributes.

There may also be some optional evaluation interspersed though the text and an optional concluding comment.

What are the language features of a description?

The language of description is characterised by noun groups used to provide information. Use of thinking and feeling verbs to express the writer's personal view about the subject are also common. The use of similes, metaphors and other types of figurative language can also be used, particularly in literary descriptions.

Description

Purpose:

To describe a particular living, non-living or natural phenomenon. Descriptions can 'stand alone' but are often part of other texts, e.g. Information Reports.

Structure:

- An introduction or classification
- Characteristic features, e.g. physical appearance, qualities, habitual behaviour, significant attributes
- Concluding statement (optional)

Language Features:

- Use of nouns, e.g. my teacher, the Opera House
- Use of a variety of types of adjectives, e.g. opinion, factual, numbering, classifying
- Use of action verbs
- Use of similes, metaphors and other types of figurative language, particularly in literary descriptions

How to Write a Description

Introduction/Classification: (What is it?)	Key Words:
	35//
Characteristics: (What does it look like?)	
Characteristics: (e.g. What can it do?)	
Characteristics: (e.g. What are its special featu	res?)
Conclusion: (Optional)	

Description

Text Structure	Henry Ford and his Ford Motor Company	Language Features
Subject Description e.g.	Henry Ford was a famous American engineer and car manufacturer. He was born on a farm in Dearborn in Michigan in 1863.	Use of synonyms, e.g. cars, automobiles
contextual information	Why Henry Ford was famous	Use of noun groups which include adjectival clauses, e.g. automobiles that
oignificance	He was the first man to mass produce cars at a price which people could afford. Although at first, like other car	only well-to-do people could afford
significance in history	companies, he made automobiles that only well-to-do people could afford, he wanted to build a car that was cheap enough for most families to own and in 1903 he succeeded.	Use of feeling verbs, e.g. wanted
	How Henry Ford set up his company	
	Ford was very interested in horseless carriages. He decided to build one himself. He began to experiment with engines	Use of relating verbs, e.g. Ford was very interested
important	until his first car was made in 1893. Night after night he would work on it like a madman. At last in 1896 the vehicle was ready for a trial run. He then ran it around the block. It	Use of thinking verbs, e.g. decided
episode in life	was ready for a thai run. He their rail it around the block. It went well. Finally, in 1903, the Ford Motor Company was founded.	Use of variety of adverbs, e.g. time: in 1896 purpose: for a trial run place: round
	What made his company famous?	the block manner: well
	The employees were happy to work for him because he reduced their hours from 9 to 8 per day and paid them \$5 per day, whereas the average company paid a skilled worker \$2.50.	Use of sentences that contain two or more clauses combined in complex ways, e.g. The employees were very
Description and significance of company	The thing that made his company famous was his mass production line. Instead of having each person build the entire motor car, he had one person doing their own small job.	happy to work for him because he reduced their hours from 9 to 8 per day and paid them
	Because this saved a lot of time and money, Ford could offer more cars to the American public at a lower price than anyone before him.	
	In the past, other companies that did not have mass production lines wasted more time and money and produced	

cars one by one.

Response

What do responses do?

Responses are used to respond to an artistic work in either the written, visual or aural form. They are texts written about texts and are important in English and Creative Arts as they allow individual responses to be made.

What do responses look like?

In order to achieve this purpose, responses can be structured in the following way:

Context of Artist Work:

This section of the text provides the context for the work. Details such as the name of the text, who wrote/painted it and when, and brief synopsis can be included in this section.

Description of Artistic Work:

This section describes in detail key features or significant events in the text.

Judgement:

This section provides a personal response to the text and can include some recommendation about the text, e.g. written text suitable for adolescent readers.

What are the language features of response?

In the context stage the language response is characterised by verbs that relate actions while the Judgement stage uses words that express feelings about texts. Language is often abstract, e.g. the analysis; the interpretation; and it is very descriptive. They are usually written in the present tense as they relate individual responses to a text.

Response

Purpose:

To summarise and respond personally to an artistic work/text.

Structure:

- Context a section on the features and background of the work
- Description a section which describes features or key events in the work
- Judgement a personal response and recommendation

Language Features:

- words which express judgements
- descriptive language
- present tense
- persuasive language

How to Write a Response

Context:	Key Words:
	110,11010101
Description:	
Judgement:	

Information Report

What do information reports do?

Information reports are essentially descriptions that classify and describe things in general and specific terms. They are particularly important in subject such as Science, TAS and Geography, which classify and describe the physical world and subjects such as Creative Arts and History.

What do information reports look like?

In order to achieve this purpose information reports are frequently structured in the following way:

General statement or classification:

This section of the text can do several things. It can classify the thing being described, locate it in time and space and/or preview the rest of the description to follow:

Description:

This section of the text sets out the description in the report. Typically, it will consist of paragraphs each of which deal with a different aspect of the description.

Each paragraph usually contains a sentence which previews the information in the rest of the paragraph. This sentence can be called a topic sentence or paragraph preview.

Sometimes there is a sentence which has a function of previewing a section of text which may include a number of paragraphs. The sentence which previews a section of text is known as a section preview.

What are the language features of an information report?

The language of information reports often reflects the technicality of the subject being discussed, e.g. meteorology, terms such as 'average rainfall' or 'cold front' would be the technical terms used rather the 'how much it rains' or 'the bit where it gets cold'.

They are often written in the present tense, giving the idea of timeless truth, e.g. 'drought occur' rather the 'there was a drought last year'.

Terms are generalised, that is, they refer to general things, e.g. 'droughts' rather than 'that drought last year' and evaluate, e.g. 'layer of wood' rather than 'layer of beautiful wood'.

In subjects such as English and Creative Arts, the features of information reports can be used for writing that describes particular characters and settings from novels in English and elements of particular artworks or musical pieces in Creative Arts. Information reports in the Humanities may make use of evaluation language, e.g. Picasso is viewed as on of the great modernist painters of the 20th century.

Information Report

Purpose:

To classify and/or describe general classes of phenomena.

Structure:

- Opening general statement that defines or classifies your topic
- Description: A series of sequenced paragraphs explaining facts about the topic (with or without headings), e.g. features, behaviour or types

Language Features:

- technical language
- simple present tense
- generalised terms

How to Write an Information Report

General Statement:	Key Words:
Description:	
Classification – What is it? > > > Description – What does it look like? > > > > > > > > > > > > > > > > > > >	
Description – What can it do? > > > > > > > > > > > > > > > > > >	
Description – What are its special features? > > > > > > > > > >	

Information Report

Text Structure

General statement identifies and classifies the subject of the information report

Paris Report

The city of Paris is the capital of France. It is very old and built either side of the river Seine. Paris is named after a Celtic tribe called Parisii who lived on an island in the river. Paris is famous for its museums, galleries and is a leader of fashion in the world.

At the centre of the city if an island called Ile' de' la cite, crowned by the cathedral of Notre Dame. Many nobles were imprisoned on the islands Palais de Justice during the French Revolution.

Description: Key places identified according to locations; historical background given. The oldest bridge in Paris is called Pont Neuf (new bridge) although it is over 400 hundred years old!

The River Seine divides Paris into a right bank and left bank. Much of the city was rebuilt to a new plan in the 1800s.

On the hill behind the Louvre is the white church of Sacre Coeur and the artist's quarter of the Monmartre. On the left bank are the older, narrower streets of the student or Latin quarter and the Sorbonne University. Further down the river is the Eiffel Tower on Champs de Mars.

The Louvre was once a royal palace. Since the revolution it has been a museum. A huge glass prism stands in one courtyard. The Mona Lisa is a famous painting in the Louvre. People says she has a mysterious smile

Another famous landmark is the Arc de Triomphe, which was built to celebrate Napoleon's victories. Twelve avenues lead from it in a star shape.

Language Features

Use of word families to build topic information e.g. Paris, France, Seine

Use of present tense

Use of relating verbs to identify, e.g. The city of Paris is the capital of France, and to relate descriptions to the subject, e.g. it is very old

Use of noun groups to build descriptions, e.g. the oldest bridge in Paris

Uses the subject 'the city of Paris' and places the city as the beginning focus of the clause, e.g. the oldest bridge in Paris, the river Seine, the Louvre. This pattern of choice of theme plays a part in the successful organisation of the text.

Information Report

Written by	
Introduction	
	1
Sequence of statements presenting information	
Concluding statement	

Procedure

What do procedures do?

Procedures give us instructions about how to do or make something.

Procedures are important in subjects like Design and Technology, PD/H/PE, Visual and Performing Arts and Science.

What do procedures look like?

Goal:

This first stage states the aim of what we are trying to make or do.

Materials:

This is an optional stage where materials or equipment needed to achieve the goal are listed.

Steps:

This is followed by the steps in the order in which they have to be performed.

What are the language features of a procedure?

The language of procedures can be technical. They often begin with a command, e.g. collect and place. There are also words or phrases that specify how, where, e.g. carefully; after 5 minutes. The layout is an important characteristic of many procedures. By placing each step on a new line, the writer points to the order in which the steps are to be performed. These are often numbered so it becomes unnecessary to use time words, e.g. next, then; after that.

Procedure

Purpose:

To tell how to do something, e.g. instructions, directions or rules.

Structure:

- Goal or opening statement of what you are going to do
- A list of the materials or ingredients you are going to use in the order you are going to use them (optional)
- The time ordered steps you are going to use to make your item

Language Features:

- verbs usually at the beginning of each instruction
- words or groups of words which tell us how, when, where, with, whom
- use of commands

How to Write a Procedure

Goal:	
Materials:	Key Words:
Steps:	

Procedure

Text Structure	How to Catch a Wave	Language Features	
Goal	Here's some advice for kids who are just learning how to surf.	Use of detailed noun groups (including adjective phrases) to provide compact information, e.g. a	
Materials Steps	 Use a light, small fibreglass board with a legrope and a wetsuit if it is cold. 	light, small fibreglass board with a legrope Use of adverbial clauses to indicate	
in chronological order all necessary steps included	 Find a safe, uncrowded spot on the beach. The water should not be too choppy so that you will get a clean ride. 	conditions, e.g. If Use of adverbial clauses to indicate reason, e.g. so that in order to	
	 Don't go out too far if you haven't surfed before. 	Use of adverbial clauses of time, e.g. until, when	
	 Wait until you see a small wave then lie on your surfboard. When the wave is close start paddling furiously. 	Use of adverbs to indicate manner, e.g. furiously Use of different forms of modality to make meanings stronger or weaker, e.g. could, should	
	 If you are more experienced, you could try kneeling on the board once you are on the wave. 	Use of the beginning of the sentence to focus the reader's attention, e.g. The most important	
	 The most important thing is to keep your balance or else you will end up falling off the board! 		

Explanation

What do explanations do?

- These texts explain how or why things happen. They can be about a wide range of subjects, for example:
- the physical world in Geography or Science
- the human world in History and PD/Health/PE
- aspects of character and plot in English
- · how a technical effect is achieved in Visual Arts
- how equipment is used in TAS

What do explanations look like?

Statement of Phenomenon:

Explanations begin by identifying the thing to be explained.

Explanation Sequence:

This next stage shows how they work. The backbone of an explanation of a sequence of events.

Concluding Statement: (optional)

The sequence of events or processes is joined together in two main ways.

The first is by cause and effect links using words such as because; as a result; causes; is caused by; due to.

The second is by time links using words such as after; following; then; initially.

What are the language features of an explanation?

The language of explanations is often technical, that is, it uses technical terms used in the subject and it is also abstract. Abstract things are those which cannot be seen, touched or heard. In explanations, these abstract words often refer to processes, e.g. and so the seed germinates. This germination...

This concept of a seed germinating means the student needs to make a connection between the action of the seed germinating and the name of the process, i.e. germination.

The language is generalised in this example, e.g. we talk about classes of things rather than individual things, e.g. seeds, not my seeds. The tense is generally simple present, as in reports, in order to give a sense of timelessness.

Explanation

Purpose:

To explain scientifically how or why something occurs – usually a technological or natural phenomenon.

Structure:

- Phenomenon identification a general statement about your topic
- A series of specific statements in chronological order
- Concluding statement (optional)

Language Features:

- technical language
- use of words such as 'because', 'as a result', to establish cause/effect sequences
- complex sentences
- passive voice
- simple present tense

How to Write an Explanation

Statement of Phenomenon:	Key Words:
Explanation Sequence:	
Concluding Statement: (optional)	

Explanation

Text Structure

How Do Floods Occur

Statement of Phenomenon In winter there is snow on the mountains. When spring comes the sun comes out, it shines onto the snow. The snow melts. The melting snow turns into water and flows off the mountain and enters the rivers. The huge amount of water makes the water level rise.

Explanation sequence

If rocks and concreted areas surround rivers they can cause floods. If it rains the rain falls onto the rocks, nothing can sock up the water. The water flows down the rocks and into the river.

When it rains for a long time the huge amount of rain cannot soak into the soil. The water forms small streams. The streams all lead to the main river and feed it. As the water enters the river the water level rises. If there is not a dam on the bank of the river the river will flood.

Background information (optional)

During spring while the rivers are still blocked by ice, floods occur in Siberia. The snow melts but the river is unable to flow because of the ice. The river stops and builds up. When it gets up as high as the ice, it is already so high that it causes a flood.

Though floods occur in most parts of the world they do not occur very often. In the past 250 years there were 150 major floods. The most flood-prone river is the Huang He River (also called the Yellow River and China's Sorrow) which is located in Northern China.

Use of action verbs to build sequence of actions, e.g. comes, melts

Use of action verbs to create casual relation, e.g. makes, cause of

Use of noun group to build detailed description of water, e.g. the huge amount of water

Use of classifying adjective, e.g. concreted areas

Uses action verbs and nouns throughout explanation to build topic information and word chains, e.g. snow, mountains, water level rises

Use of complex sentences and casual conjunctions to construct cause and affect relationships, e.g. If...

Use of time conjunctions, e.g. 'when', 'as' to sequence events; these conjunctions come first in the sentence, thus focusing the reader's attention on the time sequence.

Use of adverbial phrases of time and place to tell where and when actions occurred, e.g. in most parts of the world, often

Use of action verb 'cause' to construct casual relationship

Exposition

What do expositions do?

Expositions are used to persuade by arguing one side of an issue.

What do expositions look like?

In order to achieve this purpose, expositions can be structured in the following way:

Statement of Position (thesis):

This section of the text states the author's position on the issue to be argued and previews the arguments that will follow. This information which previews is known as a text preview.

Arguments:

This section states the arguments to be presented. An argument is comprised of a series of points and elaborations. Each paragraph usually contains a sentence which previews the remainder of the paragraph. Sometimes there is a sentence which has the function of previewing a section of text which may include a number of paragraphs. A sentence which previews a section of text is known as a section preview.

Each argument state consists of a 'point and elaboration'. In the elaboration the argument is supported by evidence.

Reinforcement of Position Statement:

The final state restates the author's position and sums up the arguments raise.

What are the language features of an exposition?

The language features of expositions are characterised by emotive words such as alarmed; problems; worried.

Words that qualify statements, e.g. usually; probably; are also used. Words that link arguments together, e.g. firstly; in summary; on the other hand; however; therefore; are also characteristic language features.

Exposition

Purpose:

To state a position with respect to an issue and argue a case for or against.

Structure:

- Statement of Position the author's position and preview of argument
- Arguments (more than one)
- Reinforcement of position statement

Language Features:

- words that qualify, e.g. usually, probably
- words that link arguments, e.g. firstly, on the other hand
- modals, e.g. must, certainly
- evaluative language, e.g. important, significant, valuable

How to Write an Exposition

Statement of Position (thesis):	Key Words:
Arguments:	
Reinforcement of Position Statement:	

Exposition

Text Structure

Ned Kelly – Guilty or Innocent?

Language Features

Background information

Statement of position

This project has been based on a computer program about the trial of Ned Kelly which gave us the evidence used in the original trial. After examining a number of incidents, we came to the conclusion that Ned Kelly was treated unfairly as he only committed half the crimes he was accused of.

Use of abstract nouns, e.g. conclusion, predicting how the argument will be structured (i.e. in terms of the incidents)

Argument 1

- background information
- point
- elaboration -elaboration

In the Fitzpatrick incident, Ned was charged with the attempted murder of Constable Fitzpatrick. We believe that Ned was not quilty as Fitzpatrick's story is not believable because (i) he contradicted himself; (ii) he had just been to the pub and we think that the wounds he had on his arm were not from bullet shots (which Fitzpatrick claimed) but from a broken glass which he might have been drinking his brandy in; (iii) and finally, he was kicked out of the police force later on because of his reputation for lying.

In the Stringybark Creek incident, Ned was charged with the

wilful murder of Constable Lonigan, Scanlon and Kennedy.

Ned resisted arrest and had to shoot Lonigan three times.

Kelly says that it was not murder but self defence and he

gave Lonigan a chance to surrender. We feel the McIntyre's

evidence is weak. He said that the bullets came from the

back and not from the front. Dr Nicholson finds the opposite.

stating that Lonigan stood his ground and met Ned on equal

Use of the beginning of the sentence to focus the reader's attention. e.g. In the Fitzpatrick incident....

Use of clauses linked by conjunctions to show reasoning, e.g. We believe that Ned was not guilty as Fitzpatrick's story is not believable because

Use of text connectives to structure argument. e.g. finally

Use of passive form to

maintain focus, e.g. he was kicked out of ...

Use of evaluative language to persuade reader, e.g. wilful murder, evidence is weak

Use of saying verbs when quoting someone, e.g. said, stating

Use of modality, e.g. probably

Use of clauses combined in various ways

Use of thinking verbs to express opinion, e.g. believe

conclusion, e.g. should

Argument 2

- background information
- point
- elaboration
- point
- elaboration

Argument 3

- background

information

- elaboration

- point

terms.

The Glenrowan incident was probably the most bold battle of the Kelly gang. The police sent up a special train to Glenrowan. The Kelly gang set up their base in the Jones' hotel. Although this was a gallant battle it was also a fatal battle as Joe Byrne, Dan Kelly and Steve Hart died as a cause of it. Ned was taken prisoner and taken to the trial. We believe that Ned is guilty on the charge of holding hostages, endangering the community, and the shooting of police troopers and hostages.

Reinforcement of position statement

> In our opinion, we say that Ned is guilty for half the things he Use of modality in did but received an unfair trial. He shouldn't have been hung publicly but given a long imprisonment.

Discussion

What do discussions do?

Discussions are used to consider an issue from more than one point of view in order to persuade the reader to act or think in a particular way. Discussions are used in the subject – English, Science, History, Creative Arts, Design and Technology and Personal Development/Health/Physical Education.

What do discussions look like?

Discussions are usually organised to include:

Statement:

This section has a statement outlining the issue, often accompanied by some background information about the issue.

Arguments:

This section states the arguments for and against, including evidence for different points of view.

Conclusion:

The final state stage might sum up both sides or might recommend in favour of one particular side.

What are the language features of a discussion?

The language features for discussion are similar to those of an exposition, with varying levels of certainty.

Discussion

Purpose:

To examine issues from more than one perspective and make recommendations based on evidence.

Structure:

- Opening statement presenting the issue
- Arguments, for and against, including evidence for different points of view (elaboration)
- Concluding statement and (optional) recommendation

Language Features:

- use of additive, contrastive and casual connectives to link arguments, e.g. similarly, however
- use of varying degrees of modality, e.g. perhaps, must, should
- use of adverbials of manner, e.g. deliberately, hopefully

How to Write a Discussion

Example One

Statement of Issue:

- > Definition
- > Background
- > Preview

Key Words:



Arguments For (1-n):

- > Point
- > Elaboration

Arguments Against (1-n):

- > Point
- > Elaboration

Conclusion:

Recommendation: (optional)

Exposition

Text Structure	Should Automatic and semi-automatic Guns be Banned?	Language Features
Case for	First I'll state my points on why they should be banned.	Use of connectives to order the argument, e.g. First
argument	Automatic and semi-automatic guns are military weapons. The automatic guns fire continuously for about 20 seconds firing a magazine of hundreds of bullets until the trigger is released. Although they are military weapons they are sold to the public and are found from urbanised areas to the country	Use of word chains to build topic information, e.g. guns, military weapons
	farms.	Use of conjunctions to build point and counterpoint, e.g. but,
argument	People buy them for keeping them at the house in case of a break-in but in that case you wouldn't need a giant weapon to fend off a robber and with children they can be fatal.	however
argument	Also people with psychiatric disorders should not be allowed to own or use a weapon like an automatic firearm or people with great emotional difficulties otherwise there might be another Strathfield massacre.	Use of noun groups, e.g. people with psychiatric disorders
argument	If the gun also falls into the wrong hands (like they usually do) it will result in murder, robbery and other crimes. If the gun is banned the rate of murder will go dramatically down.	
Case against	In this next section I'm going to talk about why they shouldn't be banned.	Use of beginnings of sentence to focus reader's/listener's attention, e.g. In this next section
argument	Farmers sometimes need these rifles not as weapons but maybe to put down a cow with broken legs or spinal cord as it is the quickest way to kill an animal without it feeling a long period of pain.	Use of varying degrees of modality (from stronger to weaker), e.g. shouldn't, maybe
Argument	Also people who shoot game for a sport will lose the privilege of having a gun that they can shoot a bullet immediately one after the other instead of losing sight of the animal.	Use of noun groups to compact information, e.g. people who shoot game for sport Use of higher modality
Conclusion/	Well as you can see I have more points for getting rid of the	to convince listeners in conclusion, e.g. must
Recommendation	weapons than against, so from this you obviously can see what must be done. Not only to make things safer but to bring humanity to parts of our society. I don't think that automatic or semi-automatic weapons should be distributed throughout the community in urbanised areas because the are just another excuse for trouble.	Use of abstract words, e.g. community, urbanised

Key Words:

How to Write a Discussion

Example Two

Statement of Issue: ➤ Definition		
> Background		
> Preview		
Arguments For: ➤ Point		
> Elaboration		
Arguments Against: ➤ Point		
> Elaboration		
Arguments For: ➤ Point		
> Elaboration		
Arguments Against: > Point		
> Elaboration		
Conclusion:		
Recommendation: (Optional)		