Tertiary Education Commission
Te Amorangi Mātauranga Matua

LEARNING PROGRESSIONS

FOR ADULT LITERACY

Mā te mōhio ka ora:
mā te ora ka mōhio

Through learning there is life:
through life there is learning!

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LEARNING PROGRESSIONS
FOR ADULT LITERACY

Foreword

E ngā iwi, e ngā reo, e ngā mana, e rau rangatira mā.

Tēnā koutou, tēnā koutou, tēnā tatou katoa.

We are delighted to release this latest version of the learning progressions, knowing that many people involved with adult literacy and numeracy in New Zealand are keen to put it to use.

Thank you so much to the many people who have contributed to the production of this document, through the preparation of material and by providing advice and suggestions for improvement.

As we continue our effort to ensure that every New Zealander has the crucial literacy and numeracy skills they need for living and learning, the progressions offer a robust framework for other tools and resources, a focus for continuing to develop high quality teaching and learning, and a common language for use in the many settings where literacy and numeracy are developed.

Supporting adults to develop these skills is not as easy as ABC. This sector will always need evidence-based research, informed managers and dedicated tutors who are committed to the challenge of improving their teaching. These progressions, with their accent on strengthening learners' expertise, are key tools in our "kete" to help us rise to the task.

Mā te mōhio ka ora: mā te ora ka mōhio

Through learning there is life: through life there is learning!

Janice Shiner
Chief Executive
Tertiary Education Commission

Contents

Introduction 4

The structure of the progressions 5

Listening, speaking, reading and writing progressions 7

Listen with Understanding 8

Vocabulary progression 8
Language and Text Features progression 9
Comprehension progression 10
Listening Critically progression 11
Interactive Listening and Speaking progression 12

Speak to Communicate 13

Vocabulary progression 13
Language and Text Features progression 14
Using Strategies to Communicate progression 15
Interactive Listening and Speaking progression 16

Read with Understanding 17

Decoding progression 17
Vocabulary progression 18
Language and Text Features progression 19
Comprehension progression 20
Reading Critically progression 21

Write to Communicate 22

Purpose and Audience progression 22
Spelling progression 23
Vocabulary progression 24
Language and Text Features progression 25
Planning and Composing progression 26
Revising and Editing progression 27

Further information 28

The links between listening, speaking, reading and writing 29
Additional details about each progression 30
The research base 43

References 44

Glossary 45

Strand charts 54

Listen with Understanding 54
Speak to Communicate 56
Read with Understanding 58
Write to Communicate 60

Introduction

To work and participate effectively in a modern knowledge society, New Zealand adults require a certain level of expertise in listening, speaking, reading and writing. Adults who have not yet developed this expertise will find it difficult to fully participate. If they and their teachers understand how expertise develops and if they have a clear picture of the steps they can take, they will be able to make progress in learning to listen, speak, read and write more effectively.[1]

The learning progressions set out in this book provide a framework that shows what adult learners know and can do at successive points as they develop their expertise in literacy learning. This framework can be used as a guide to identifying the next steps for adult learners. Each progression covers a particular aspect of learning.

The progressions can be used in many different adult learning settings. They describe what is learned in the order that it is usually learned. They can be used to:

- gain a basic picture of an adult learner's current skills, strategies and knowledge in oral and written English
- identify the English-language demands of specific workplace, community, or personal tasks and texts, and
- provide a sequence for teaching and learning programmes and suggestions to use in designing such programmes.

The progressions are neither a curriculum nor a teaching and learning programme. They are not, as they stand, an assessment tool and they are not a set of teaching and learning activities. Rather, teachers and managers of adult literacy learners are invited to use the progressions as a basis for developing or adapting their own curricula, programmes, assessment tools and teaching and learning activities.

The professional development resources that accompany this booklet suggest some ways in which to develop materials based on the progressions for many different purposes. They also include some models for text analysis and diagnostic assessment as well as a range of teaching and learning activities.

The learning progressions do not describe all of the knowledge and skills needed to meet any specific achievement standards or Unit Standards on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF).[2] The progressions do, however, have a natural link to the national assessment system. The highest step in each progression describes the knowledge and skills that underpin the literacy competencies demonstrated by learners with level 2 or 3 NQF qualifications. Adult learners who acquire all the knowledge and skills described in the relevant progressions will have a sound foundation to build on if they decide to study for achievement standards or Unit Standards at level 3, 4 or 5 of the NQF.

The research that informed the development of the learning progressions is described in a companion booklet, *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy: Background Information*.

The progressions and Te Reo Rangatira (the Māori language)

The progressions show the development of expertise in listening, speaking, reading and writing in New Zealand English and the examples used

1 Adults also need basic numeracy knowledge, skills and strategies. The numeracy progressions are presented in a companion booklet, *Learning Progressions for Adult Numeracy*.

2 Students within the school sector work towards these standards in order to get the National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) and many adult learners also work towards them, for example, in adult learning courses in institutes of technology and polytechnics.

include some words from Te Reo that are commonly used in New Zealand. This acknowledges Māori iwi as tangata whenua and reflects the fact that Te Reo is one of our official languages. Most New Zealanders regularly use, see or hear Te Reo and Māori concepts in their everyday lives. People who are fluent in Te Reo as well as English move easily between both languages and may respond to a question in English by using both languages. Tutors can acknowledge and reflect this in their own teaching, while at the same time using the progressions as a guide for literacy development.

The structure of the progressions

The strands

A strand of thread is made up of many individual fibres. In the same way, each strand of the learning progressions is made up of several progressions, which together describe the development of expertise within the strand. The learning progressions for literacy are organised in the following four strands:

- Listen with Understanding
- Speak to Communicate
- Read with Understanding
- Write to Communicate.

The strands are interconnected. For example, learners listen to the sounds in the words they say in order to read and write those words.

The progressions

The term progression is used to describe a set of steps along a continuum, each step representing a significant learning development as learners build their expertise. Each progression highlights a particular area of learning within a strand. The progressions are intended to illustrate a typical learning pathway.[3] The titles of the progressions are listed on page 7.

A progression implies a continuous, sequential movement towards expertise rather than a series of separate tasks to be mastered in order to "move up". For this reason, individual steps within a progression are distinguished from one another in this book by referring to their place in the sequence (for example, "the second step in the reading comprehension progression") rather than by using numbers, stages or levels. The learning progressions reflect the way that all learners continually build on and extend their existing knowledge and skills.

The progressions are also interconnected. For example, a wide vocabulary is needed for learning in all the progressions in reading, writing, speaking and listening.

The steps

Development within any one progression is not evenly spaced and some of the shifts in development involve more learning than others. The amount of learning needed will also depend on the learner. Adults do not all learn in the same way. Some need to spend more time learning certain skills, or consolidating the learning, than others do.

On the pages that show each progression, the steps to competence in that progression are represented by pikopiko with increasing numbers of fronds. The initial learning step is represented by a single koru, the next step by a pikopiko with two fronds and so on. The final step is represented in most cases by a pikopiko with six fronds.

3 Although no adult learner is ever completely typical, there are typical patterns of progress common to the majority of adult learners.

The koru (in its mature forms, the pikopiko) was chosen as the symbol for the steps in each progression because it is a familiar and valued image for New Zealanders and because its natural and gradually unfolding growth pattern could be seen to reflect the process of successful learning, or ako. As fronds mature, new fronds begin to grow, nourished and sheltered by the work of the existing fronds, the plant's root system and a favourable environment. Pikopiko is an indigenous food picked directly from ngahere (the forest) which can give and sustain life. In the same way, ako can give and sustain intellectual and spiritual life.

The steps vary in size and quantity from one progression to another. This is because the writers have tried to show steps at parallel stages of a typical learner's development across all the progressions. Not all the steps however, involve the same amount of learning, and the development of skills, strategies and knowledge does not always occur in evenly sized or spaced steps.

In the reading and writing strands, for example, only one progression (the Decoding progression, on page 17) has six separate steps. In all of the other reading and writing progressions, there are some double steps (the movement in the progression is shown over two steps), because the learning described by the bullet points takes time to develop, consolidate and practise. This is considered to be the equivalent of two steps in a progression.

A different kind of variation occurs in places where the learning in one progression depends on prior learning in another. For example, learners cannot begin to use language and text features in their writing until they have gained familiarity with written words and sentences and the basic purposes of written texts – learning which occurs at the first step in other writing progressions. Because of this, there is a gap at the first step in the writing progressions for Language and Text Features.

Listening, speaking, reading and writing progressions

Listen with Understanding

Vocabulary progression

Language and Text Features progression

Comprehension progression

Listening Critically progression

Interactive Listening and Speaking progression

Speak to Communicate

Vocabulary progression

Language and Text Features progression

Using Strategies to Communicate progression

Interactive Listening and Speaking progression

Read with Understanding

Decoding progression

Vocabulary progression

Language and Text Features progression

Comprehension progression

Reading Critically progression

Write to Communicate

Purpose and Audience progression

Spelling progression

Vocabulary progression

Language and Text Features progression

Planning and Composing progression

Revising and Editing progression

Listen with Understandng
Vocabulary progression

To listen with understanding in English, listeners need to know the meanings of the words (vocabulary) that they hear. They need to understand the forms and functions of these words, how they are used in sentences and how words relate to one another. Refer to page 34 for more about developing a listening vocabulary.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:	
• have a listening vocabulary of common nouns, verbs and familiar phrases they understand • identify words and phrases in running speech.	Listeners have a vocabulary of common nouns, verbs and familiar phrases they can identify in meaningful communication contexts, such as brief social meetings. Areas of study can include: – distinguishing individual words and phrases in speech and talking about their meanings – listening for key words and phrases. These may include formulaic phrases (phrases that follow a set formula or pattern) such as, "How are you?" or "Next, please."
• identify words and phrases and understand many of the words in fast speech • be aware that many words may have more than one meaning and notice when a word is used with an unfamiliar meaning.	Listeners understand everyday vocabulary in words and phrases spoken quickly, including the vocabulary used in simple questions and statements that convey requests, instructions, greetings and short explanations. They understand that many words have two or more meanings and seek to identify the new meaning of a familiar word used in an unfamiliar way. Areas of study can include: – listening for words and phrases that signal questions and requests – listening for words and phrases in fast speech – discussing words, such as *power, hot, kiwi* and *book*, that have two or more meanings.
• have a listening vocabulary of everyday words and some less common words • understand when a speaker uses simple figurative language, such as metaphor, symbolism or irony, for effect • identify the connotations (common associations) of familiar words.	Listeners understand everyday words and phrases and some that are less common. Areas of study can include: – extending vocabulary to include words and phrases related to work, community, or academic topics – analysing words and phrases that are meant figuratively rather than literally, for example, "I heard through the kumara vine that you were sick" – discussing the different connotations of some words that have similar meanings, for example, *house, home* and *marae*.
• have a listening vocabulary that includes some general academic words and some specialised words.	Listeners have a vocabulary that includes some general academic words (see page 35) and some specialised words. Areas of study can include listening for and discussing: – academic words and phrases, such as *explain, describe, compare, multiply, divide* and *common denominator* – specialised words and terms, which may be those heard in a work setting (for example, *forklift, washer, sprinkler system* and *mains pressure*).
• have a listening vocabulary that includes many general academic words and specialised words • understand when a speaker uses more complex figurative language, for example, by talking about the Earth as if it were a woman (personification) • understand when a speaker uses, for effect, words that have particular connotations.	Listeners have a wide and rapidly expanding listening vocabulary that includes many general academic words and specialised words, including acronyms. (Specialised words include words and acronyms that are heard most often in a specific area of work or study, such as *photosynthesis, compliance, DOC, TPK* and *GST*.) Listeners can understand why speakers choose to use various kinds of figurative language and words (such as *harassment* or *gentleman*) that have particular connotations. Areas of study can include: – listening for and discussing the use of figurative language in radio and television reports or programmes – a sentence-by-sentence analysis of a recorded talk or lecture.

Listen with Understanding
Language and Text Features progression

To listen with understanding, listeners use their knowledge of language features and the features of connected discourse[4] in English. Features of connected discourse include the different parts of the discourse and the ways in which parts are connected, for example, by the use of words (discourse markers) that signal a sequence. This progression also includes the features of speech that relate to the speaker's pace and intonation and to how the speaker may stress certain words or sounds. Refer to page 36 for more about these aspects of spoken language.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:	
• understand short conversations and other simple spoken language that uses formulaic expressions and simple structures.	Listeners recognise simple language forms including some formulaic expressions, such as those used for questions ("What is your name?"; "Can I help you?"; "Can I take a message?") and for instructions ("Write your iwi here."; "Pass me the hammer."). Areas of study can include: – extending the repertoire of formulaic expressions that learners understand – listening for and discussing commonly-used expressions.
• understand spoken conversations and other simple spoken language that uses some complex structures • understand spoken conversations and other simple spoken language even when the speakers pause, repeat themselves, or make false starts.	Listeners can recognise and understand simple sentences used in conversations and other connected discourse. Listeners understand the language features used by speakers in giving oral instructions (for example, imperative verbs such as "Speak up!") or in describing a simple process (for example, discourse markers such as *first*, *then* and *next*). They can sustain their understanding of speech that includes repetition, pauses and false starts. Areas of study can include: – practising following simple verbal sequenced instructions (for example, repeating a verbal message, carrying out an unfamiliar but simple task from clear spoken instructions) – practising (in role plays) listening to a speaker who uses repetition, pauses and false starts (for example, "I'm sorry to say ... well, I mean ... the fact is that ...").
• understand more complex spoken conversations and other simple discourse including some less-familiar oral text types • recognise the language features used to establish coherence in such discourse.	Listeners understand the more complex grammatical constructions used in more formal oral text types such as extensive verbal reports. They are able to use their knowledge of how language works (for example, the use of discourse markers) to follow and understand the main points in connected discourse. Listeners in face-to-face settings can interpret the meanings of changes in a speaker's pitch, pace and tone. Areas of study can include: – listening to and discussing the ways in which a speaker uses discourse markers such as "On the one hand ... on the other hand"; "Therefore, I ..."; "And finally before I go ..." to help the listener follow a complex report – listening to a speaker (for example, on the marae, in a formal meeting, or in a television interview) to observe and later discuss the speaker's use of pitch, pace, tone and body language.
• recognise language features in complex extended discourse and understand the ways in which speakers use these features to achieve a purpose.	Listeners recognise and understand language features in complex, extended discourse whether there is one speaker, two speakers or several speakers. More complex types of discussion include arguments, community meetings and formal interviews.

4 *Discourse* means oral or written language consisting of more than one sentence. It is used here because oral language is generally more unpredictable than written language and therefore cannot easily be described in terms of text types. *Connected discourse* refers to longer, connected speech or verbal interactions.

Listen with Understanding
Comprehension progression

To listen with understanding, listeners use comprehension strategies. Many of these strategies are similar to those used for reading comprehension. For example, as listeners focus on understanding the messages conveyed in spoken English, they make connections with their own knowledge, they ask questions and they infer meanings that have been implied but not made explicit. Refer to page 38 for more about listening comprehension.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:	
• listen for the gist or for specific information in simple speech in very familiar situations • ask for repetition or a change of pace if necessary • make connections with their own knowledge to improve their understanding.	Listeners use strategies in order to get the gist of speech in very familiar situations. Although they may not understand every word spoken, they are aware that they can ask for repetition or a change of pace and they use what they already know about the topic and about words and language to help them understand. Areas of study can include: – responding to simple instructions that have a few basic steps and where the steps are clear (for example, where words such as *first, next, then* are used to indicate sequence) – listening for key words and making connections with the learner's own knowledge – asking simple questions to show understanding or seek clarification.
• listen for the gist or for specific information in some connected discourse[5] on familiar topics • have an awareness of what to do and how to do it when comprehension breaks down • use some comprehension strategies.	Listeners apply their knowledge of words, of how language is used and of the world to get the gist of sentence-length statements and some connected discourse on familiar topics. Listeners are aware that what they hear should make sense and they are developing the use of such listening comprehension strategies as listening for key ideas, asking questions and inferring information. Areas of study can include: – listening to short oral texts, such as recounts, and then retelling them – making connections with prior knowledge in order to understand connected discourse – listening for and identifying relevant information to pass on to another person.
• listen for the gist or for specific information in more complex discourse • use a range of comprehension strategies • use knowledge of what to do and how to do it when comprehension breaks down • understand discourse on familiar topics.	Listeners apply their knowledge of words, of how language is used and of the world to get the gist of more complex connected discourse on familiar topics. Topics may include those related to personal background and needs, social conventions and everyday tasks. Types of oral texts may include instructions, narratives and recounts that include a time sequence. Areas of study can include: – listening to short lectures and then summarising them – listening and responding appropriately to open-ended questions, for example, when role playing a job interview.
• understand discourse on less familiar topics.	Listeners get the gist of more complex connected discourse on less familiar topics. Areas of study can include: – listening to a straightforward lecture or presentation and asking appropriate questions – listening to and then carrying out detailed instructions (such as instructions for the many tasks required to prepare for a community or work-related event).
• understand discourse on a range of topics beyond everyday contexts and immediate experiences • listen for the gist or for specific information in a wide range of oral texts • use comprehension strategies selectively and flexibly • use a range of strategies when comprehension breaks down in different listening situations.	Listeners get the gist of a wide range of complex connected discourse in a variety of situations. Topics may include those associated with personal, community, work and education settings. Listeners use comprehension strategies selectively and flexibly, with an awareness of what to do and how to do it when comprehension breaks down. Areas of study can include: – listening to short plays, stories or poems to identify underlying themes or implied meanings – listening and contributing appropriately to small-group discussions on some unfamiliar topics.
• understand discourse on a range of unfamiliar topics in a variety of contexts.	Listeners use a wide range of strategies to understand extended explanations and other kinds of oral texts (such as news reports, lectures and debates) on a range of unfamiliar topics in a variety of work, personal, community and academic contexts.

5 *Discourse* means oral or written language consisting of more than one sentence. It is used here because oral language is generally more unpredictable than written language and therefore cannot easily be described in terms of text types. *Connected discourse* refers to longer, connected speech or verbal interactions.

Listen with Understanding
Listening Critically progression

To listen with understanding, listeners need to develop a critical awareness of who is speaking and why. As they become aware of different speakers' purposes and points of view, they are able to make their own judgments about the relevance, reliability or bias of what they hear. Refer to page 41 for more about what is involved in listening critically.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:	
• have some awareness of people's different purposes for speaking • be aware that all speakers have a perspective (point of view).	Listeners begin to develop awareness of people's different purposes for speaking and that different speakers convey different perspectives. These may be expressed in the speaker's tone, intonation and body language as well as in words. Areas of study can include: – identifying speakers' purposes and perspectives while watching them speak on television and other media.
• recognise the purposes and possible uses of different kinds of connected discourse[6] • have some awareness of their own purposes for listening.	Listeners develop an awareness of the possible uses of spoken language. Areas of study can include: – comparing different ways of conveying information – discussing the different ways in which speech can be used to influence listeners.
• think critically about the ideas and language as they listen, in order to understand, evaluate and respond appropriately and meet the listening purpose • use strategies to compare and evaluate information and ideas.	Listeners are aware of how speakers can influence listeners and they use this awareness to help them understand and evaluate what they hear. Strategies listeners can use for evaluating oral discourse include reviewing information, summarising ideas and making comparisons with information or ideas from other speakers or sources. Areas of study can include: – listening to a simple news report, summarising the issue and expressing an opinion on the issue.
• think about underlying meanings in order to understand not only the sense of the words but also the intent of the speaker.	Listeners use strategies to think about the underlying meanings of what they hear. They make inferences about the speaker's intent (purpose) and consider any possible bias. Areas of study can include: – listening and responding appropriately when taking part in a role play in which one speaker (who could be a police officer, kaumātua, landlord, boss or neighbour) is displeased with the other – listening for, identifying and evaluating the viewpoints of speakers on a radio talkback programme.
• use strategies to analyse ideas and information and to consider meaning critically • evaluate the truth, relevance, or usefulness of information in relation to the speaker's (or the listener's) purpose.	Listeners analyse ideas and information and consider the meaning critically using a range of strategies, such as comparing and contrasting, asking questions and evaluating the relevance, validity and adequacy of information. They examine the apparent meaning of the speaker's words and the speaker's probable intent and then respond appropriately. Areas of study can include: – listening for, identifying and evaluating the viewpoints and truthfulness of speakers who are advertising products in various ways in recorded radio advertisements – listening to and evaluating the questions asked and responses given in a news report about a controversial issue.
• use a wide range of strategies to reflect critically on purpose and meaning • evaluate a speaker's point of view, attitude, bias or agenda • have an understanding of the methods that speakers can use for specific purposes.	More expert listeners reflect critically on purpose and meaning using a wide range of strategies, such as applying relevant information to different scenarios, comparing different points of view and drawing conclusions or forming generalisations about the "big picture". They can evaluate a speaker's point of view, attitude, bias, or agenda and they understand the language devices used by the speaker to express or obscure these. Areas of study can include: – listening to and discussing political speeches, debates and news media interviews.

6 *Discourse* means oral or written language consisting of more than one sentence. It is used here because oral language is generally more unpredictable than written language and therefore cannot easily be described in terms of text types. *Connected discourse* refers to longer, connected speech or verbal interactions.

Listen with Understanding
Interactive Listening and Speaking progression

To participate effectively in conversations and discussions, people need to listen with understanding and communicate by speaking. People need to develop specific skills to manage these face-to-face interactions, for example, by taking turns or by interrupting appropriately, by clarifying meanings that are not clear to them and by using conversational forms of speech such as "question and answer". Refer to page 42 for more about effective oral language interactions.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:	
• respond to and use simple formulaic expressions in spoken language.	Learners use and respond to formulaic expressions in very familiar or predictable contexts. Interactions may include exchanges when meeting and when leaving, as well as simple requests and responses. Areas of study can include: – simple role plays to extend the use of a range of greetings, farewells, requests and responses.
• respond to and use skills and appropriate language to manage simple interactions and negotiate meaning • respond to and use some non-verbal methods to monitor the effectiveness of interactive communication • have an awareness of the conventions for taking part in interactions in familiar social and cultural settings, for example, during telephone conversations.	Learners apply their knowledge of vocabulary and grammatical constructions as they engage in simple interactions. Areas of study can include: – using common formulaic expressions for everyday interactions, for example, greetings, compliments and requests for (or offers of) help or information – finding ways to negotiate meaning, for example, checking for comprehension by using expressions such as "See?" or "What did you say, again?" – using verbal and non-verbal indicators for turn-taking, for example, the use of key words and expressions (such as "Don't you think ...?"; "Do you mean ...?"; or "You know?"), gestures, changes in direction of gaze and changes in intonation.
• respond to and use more sophisticated skills and appropriate language to monitor and improve the effectiveness of interactions • respond to and use variations in tone of voice, intonation and stress (for example, the stress placed on specific words or sentences) • recognise and use the vocabulary and other language features that mark the register appropriate to the topic, audience and context.	Learners use a range of strategies to manage, monitor and improve interactive communication. (See the glossary for an explanation of *register*.) Areas of study can include: – extending knowledge of social and cultural communication rules, such as expectations of politeness, marae protocol, or appropriate topics for informal and formal dialogue – attending to verbal or non-verbal signals (for example, those used to indicate turn-taking, agreement or discomfort), interpreting signals such as "mmm", "yeah", "ae" and discriminating between registers of speech and tones of voice – seeking, giving and receiving feedback in order to negotiate meaning, using strategies such as checking, making evaluative comments, using repetition, interrupting and refocusing the conversation.
• respond to and use appropriate skills and language to manage interactions in an increasing range of formal and informal settings • respond to and use variations in tone of voice, intonation and stress • respond to and use an awareness of the rules for taking part in interactions in a wide range of familiar and unfamiliar work, academic, social, community and cultural contexts.	Learners are able to maintain effective interactions on a wide range of topics in a range of familiar and unfamiliar contexts. They manage the interactions by using a range of strategies for taking short and long turns, filling gaps, maintaining or changing the focus, monitoring for mutual understanding and monitoring for social and cultural appropriateness (for example, by observing all participants' comfort within the interaction). Areas of study can include: – managing interactions in formal and informal situations – discussing the rules for participation in personal, work, academic, social, community and cultural contexts – managing conversational difficulties, such as strong disagreement or inappropriate emotion.

Speak to Communicate
Vocabulary progression

To communicate effectively, speakers need to know the meanings of the words (vocabulary) they use. They need to understand the forms and functions of these words, how they are used in sentences and how the words relate to one another. They need to be able to select words and phrases appropriate to the speaking situation. Refer to page 35 for more about developing a vocabulary for speaking.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:		
	• use a range of words, formulaic expressions and familiar phrases related to everyday topics and personal experiences.	Speakers use a range of appropriate formulaic expressions and limited vocabulary related to common, everyday topics and personal experiences. Areas of study can include: – building a repertoire of useful words, expressions and phrases – using appropriate words and expressions for making or responding to simple requests.
	• have a limited vocabulary that includes words and phrases related to common, everyday topics and personal experiences • choose appropriate vocabulary (including polite forms of words and expressions) for different contexts and audiences.	Speakers use a limited vocabulary to communicate in meaningful speech. They are becoming aware of how to use a few colloquial expressions in which words take on different meanings (such as "Hang on!"; "Give me a hand"; "Do you want a handle [of beer]?"). Areas of study can include: – constructing plurals – deciding how to greet and introduce people in different situations.
	• have an extended vocabulary that relates to familiar topics and personal experiences • have a knowledge of the collocations (words that commonly go together) of many words • be able to use some words and phrases with figurative as well as literal meanings • choose appropriate vocabulary for different contexts and audiences.	Speakers use an extended vocabulary, including words related to common, everyday topics and personal experiences. Areas of study can include: – extending vocabulary from familiar to less familiar words and expressions – learning collocations such as *bright red*, *ride a bike, drive a car* and *sick and tired* – discussing specific words in terms of their denotations (the use of a word to name a defined thing, for example, *pig* meaning a specific kind of animal) and connotations (the common associations of a word, for example, the word *pig* may have connotations of *dirty* and *greedy*).
	• have an extended vocabulary that includes some general academic and some specialised words.	Speakers extend their vocabulary to include more specialised words, such as those they may use in an academic or work setting. They are confident about using colloquial and figurative language appropriately. Areas of study include: – building up a repertoire of specialised words and phrases relevant to the contexts in which they work.
	• have an extended vocabulary that includes words related to work, personal, community, social and academic contexts.	Speakers communicate fluently and coherently, using a wide range of vocabulary related to their work, personal, community, social and academic contexts. They select words and expressions that are appropriate to the context and reflect their own style or voice. Speakers reflect critically on their choice of vocabulary. Areas of study can include: – using words and expressions to convey voice (for example, "I grabbed some kai" instead of "I had lunch".) – analysing recorded oral texts to identify and reflect on specific vocabulary choices.

Speak to Communicate
Language and Text Features progression

To communicate effectively, speakers use their knowledge of language features and the features of oral texts in English. Features of oral texts include the different parts of the text and the cohesive devices, such as sequencing, that link the parts. Different oral text types have different characteristic features. This progression also includes the features of speech that relate to the speaker's pace and intonation and to how they stress certain words or sounds. Refer to page 36 for more about these aspects of spoken language.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:		
	• take part in short spoken conversations and speak by themselves using formulaic phrases and simple structures.	Speakers use and respond verbally to simple language forms and some formulaic expressions, such as those used for questions ("What is your name?"; "Can I help you?") and for instructions ("Write your name here"; "Pass me the hammer."). Areas of study can include: – extending the repertoire of formulaic expressions that learners can use in a variety of familiar situations – using common formulaic expressions appropriately in response to questions.
	• take part in spoken conversations and use a few oral text types, such as simple instructions and descriptions • speak using some complex phrases and structures.	Speakers can use simple sentences in conversations. They use appropriate language features when giving oral instructions (for example, imperative verbs such as "Open the door!") or when describing a simple process (for example, such discourse markers as *first, then* and *next*). Areas of study can include: – extending simple descriptions or explanations by adding details.
	• use complex sentence structures and more complex language features to express a point of view in spoken conversations and in using more complex oral text types • use appropriate language features to establish coherence in connected discourse.[7]	Speakers use more complex grammatical constructions in more formal text types, such as extensive informational reports. Speakers use discourse markers to ensure their connected discourse is coherent. In face-to-face conversations and other speaking situations, speakers use prosodic features such as patterns of stress and intonation, for example, "I asked you your whānau name". Areas of study can include: – discussing the ways in which a sequence of ideas can be signalled, for example in a set of instructions, an oral report, a story or an argument – exploring the ways in which changes in stress and intonation can alter the impact of a spoken message (for example, an instruction, a greeting or a response) and discussing the effects of the changes.
	• use complex sentence structures and extend their use of language features to achieve particular purposes.	Speakers use language features in complex, extended discourse both when interacting with others (for example, in debates) and when speaking alone (for example, when giving complex explanations and/or reading written texts aloud). Areas of study can include: – practising speaking (reading aloud or telling) a variety of short texts aloud, using stress and intonation to support the meaning. Examples could include telling or reading a story to young children, or explaining a complex process – discussing when it may or may not be appropriate to use complex words and sentence structures to express an idea to different audiences. This could include consideration of the needs of the listener and the purpose of the interaction.

7 *Discourse* means oral or written language consisting of more than one sentence. It is used here because oral language is generally more unpredictable than written language and therefore cannot easily be described in terms of text types. *Connected discourse* refers to longer, connected speech or verbal interactions.

Speak to Communicate
Using Strategies to Communicate progression

Speakers use strategies to communicate information and ideas effectively. These strategies include selecting information, ideas and thoughts, choosing to use particular words or details and using non-verbal features (which include pace, intonation, stress and body language). Refer to page 40 for more information.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:	
• communicate information and thoughts in familiar, predictable situations.	Speakers communicate information and thoughts in familiar, predictable contexts by using simple strategies (for example, using formulaic phrases and questions, responding to simple questions and combining familiar words and phrases).
• select and communicate information, ideas and thoughts, using appropriate words and phrases with some fluency on very familiar topics • monitor and modify speech to improve the clarity and effectiveness of the communication.	Speakers communicate information, ideas and thoughts in meaningful interactions. They may do this (for example, in response to questions) by combining and recombining short known words or phrases. They also use their prior knowledge and experiences to help them make decisions about how to communicate. Areas of study can include: – combining words and phrases, for example, "Thanks for asking. I can't tell you right now." – extending communication, for example, "His moko have been very sick, that's why he couldn't come last night. He'd like to come next time though." – finding ways to adapt speech for various familiar situations, for example, using shorter, clearer sentences when the listener is learning English: "This is where you sleep. You wash in here. We eat in here."
• select and communicate information, ideas and thoughts, using appropriate vocabulary, expressions and grammar fluently and coherently on less familiar topics • use appropriate gestures, tone, pace and intonation to improve communication.	Speakers communicate information, ideas and thoughts on less familiar topics and in less familiar situations. They use prior knowledge to determine appropriate gestures, tone, pace and intonation. Speakers monitor and modify their communications. Areas of study can include: – discussing the use of gestures, tone, pace and intonation – reformulating ideas into effective communications – meeting communication challenges in unfamiliar or stressful situations.
• select, organise and communicate information, ideas and thoughts, with some details and examples, when speaking on familiar and unfamiliar topics.	Speakers use details and examples to communicate ideas and information effectively. They have increased control of what they want to say and of how to say it. Areas of study can include: – elaborating on ideas by adding relevant details – making notes to help plan for speaking.
• use a range of strategies to select, organise and communicate information, ideas and thoughts in extended discourse on a range of unfamiliar topics in a variety of contexts • monitor and modify speech to clarify or obscure a particular point of view, attitude, bias or agenda.	Speakers communicate fluently and coherently, using a wide range of vocabulary related to their work, personal, community, social and academic contexts. They select words and expressions that are appropriate to the context and reflect their own style or voice. Speakers communicate in meaningful interactions, using coherent, reasoned and complex discourse. They can sustain communication on a range of topics, elaborating their ideas with significant detail and examples. They use strategies to monitor and modify their speech in order to clarify or obscure a particular point of view, attitude, bias or agenda. Speakers make conscious and deliberate decisions about the content and organisation of their discourse. Areas of study can include: – selecting and organising information to meet the needs of a particular audience – establishing rapport with an audience, for example, by including interest, humour or personal stories in speech.

Speak to Communicate
Interactive Listening and Speaking progression

To participate effectively in conversations and discussions, people need to communicate by speaking and listen with understanding. People need to develop specific skills to manage these face-to-face interactions, for example, by taking turns or by interrupting appropriately, by clarifying meanings that are not clear to them and by using conversational forms of speech such as "question and answer". Refer to page 42 for more about effective oral language interactions.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:	
• respond to and use simple formulaic expressions in spoken language.	Learners use and respond to formulaic expressions in very familiar or predictable contexts. Interactions may include exchanges when meeting and when leaving, as well as simple requests and responses. Areas of study can include: – simple role plays to extend the use of a range of greetings, farewells, requests and responses.
• respond to and use skills and appropriate language to manage simple interactions and negotiate meaning • respond to and use some non-verbal methods to monitor the effectiveness of interactive communication • have an awareness of the conventions for taking part in interactions in familiar social and cultural settings, for example, during telephone conversations.	Learners apply their knowledge of vocabulary and grammatical constructions as they engage in simple interactions. Areas of study can include: – using common formulaic expressions for everyday interactions, for example, greetings, compliments and requests for (or offers of) help or information – finding ways to negotiate meaning, for example, checking for comprehension by using expressions such as "See?" or "What did you say, again?" – using verbal and non-verbal indicators for turn-taking, for example, the use of key words and expressions (such as "Don't you think ...?", "Do you mean ...?", or "You know?"), gestures, changes in direction of gaze and changes in intonation.
• respond to and use more sophisticated skills and appropriate language to monitor and improve the effectiveness of interactions • respond to and use variations in tone of voice, intonation and stress (for example, the stress placed on specific words or sentences) • recognise and use the vocabulary and other language features that mark the register appropriate to the topic, audience and context.	Learners use a range of strategies to manage, monitor and improve interactive communication. (See the glossary for an explanation of *register*.) Areas of study can include: – extending knowledge of social and cultural communication rules, such as expectations of politeness, marae protocol, or appropriate topics for informal and formal dialogue – attending to verbal or non-verbal signals (for example, those used to indicate turn-taking, agreement or discomfort), interpreting signals such as "mmm", "yeah" and "ae" and discriminating between registers of speech and tones of voice – seeking, giving and receiving feedback in order to negotiate meaning, using strategies such as checking, making evaluative comments, using repetition, interrupting and refocusing the conversation.
• respond to and use appropriate skills and language to manage interactions in an increasing range of formal and informal settings • respond to and use variations in tone of voice, intonation and stress • respond to and use an awareness of the rules for taking part in interactions in a wide range of familiar and unfamiliar work, academic, social, community and cultural contexts.	Learners are able to maintain effective interactions on a wide range of topics in a range of familiar and unfamiliar contexts. They manage the interactions by using a range of strategies for taking short and long turns, filling gaps, maintaining or changing the focus, monitoring for mutual understanding and monitoring for social and cultural appropriateness (for example, by observing all participants' comfort within the interaction). Areas of study can include: – managing interactions in formal and informal situations – discussing the rules for participation in personal, work, academic, social, community and cultural contexts – managing conversational difficulties, such as strong disagreement or inappropriate emotion.

Read with Understanding
Decoding progression

To read with understanding, readers need to decode. Decoding means translating written words into the sounds of spoken words, often silently. Before they can develop decoding skills, learners must have developed some basic prerequisite skills and understandings, including phonological and phonemic awareness (see page 32). While some adult learners may not have developed these prerequisite skills, the first step in this progression describes learners who have acquired them and can decode some basic words. Refer to pages 31–34 for more about the skills that are needed for decoding.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:		
	• have a bank of sight words (words they recognise automatically) • use a few reliable strategies for decoding regularly and irregularly spelled everyday words in short, simple texts.	Readers decode unknown words by using such strategies as applying letter–sound correspondence rules, sounding out words by separating them into individual sounds or syllables and recognising simple word patterns. Many of the words learned will be of Anglo-Saxon origin, for example, *he, cat, dog* and *shed*. Areas of study can include: – listening for initial letters (such as *t, b* or *o*) and letter blends (such as *st, gr* or *oi*) in words and recognising them in written texts – recognising digraphs (such as *ch, sh* and *th*) – identifying the spelling rules that govern short and long vowel sounds – listening for common onsets and rimes[8] in words and recognising them in written texts.
	• have a large bank of sight words • use several simple, reliable strategies for decoding everyday words in short texts with some fluency and accuracy • have some awareness of the accuracy of their decoding attempts.	Readers decode unknown words by using a wider range of strategies, for example, by using analogy and by applying their knowledge of word families and morpheme patterns. (A morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning in a word, so word roots and most prefixes and suffixes are morphemes.) They have some awareness of the accuracy of their attempts and, as they read, they ask themselves "Does that make sense?" Areas of study can include: – discussing common word families (for example, *run, runs, running, ran*) – finding common morpheme patterns (for example, prefixes and suffixes like *un-, -s, -ly* and *-ful*) – using analogy to infer the unknown from the known (for example, if you know the onset *f* in *fit* and the rime *all* in *ball*, you can work out *fall*).
	• use more complex, reliable strategies for decoding most everyday words with fluency and accuracy.	Readers fluently decode most familiar everyday words by using strategies they already know, such as analysing words (for example, by identifying morpheme patterns, breaking words into syllables and using analogy), with greater ease. They apply these strategies to longer or more complex words. Readers draw on the context to monitor their reading for accuracy and sense, for example, by asking themselves "Does that make sense?" or "Does that sound right?" Areas of study can include: – analysing longer and more complex words in terms of morphemes or syllables.
	• fluently decode more specialised words, including words of many syllables • monitor their reading for accuracy and sense.	Readers use their knowledge to decode unfamiliar specialised words fluently. Areas of study can include: – repeated reading of connected texts, to increase fluency.
	• fluently decode more complex and/or irregular words, using strategies such as inferring the unknown from the known and analysing words (for example, by identifying morpheme patterns involving less common prefixes and suffixes) • decode most words automatically.	Readers use strategies such as inferring meaning from the context and analysing words (for example, by considering morpheme patterns, less-common prefixes and suffixes and adverbial endings) in irregularly spelt words to fluently decode more complex and/or irregularly spelt words. Decoding is becoming automatic. Areas of study can include: – recording and discussing words (for example, those found in work or course-related texts) that can be broken into prefixes, root words and suffixes – recording and discussing irregularly spelt words and unexpected pronunciations (for example, *cough, dough, doubt, island* and *Arkansas*).
	• decode unfamiliar words rapidly and automatically.	Readers decode unfamiliar words automatically without losing fluency.

8 The onset is the initial sound in a syllable and the rime is the following sound. Note that *rime* is not the same word as *rhyme*: see glossary.

Read with Understanding
Vocabulary progression

To read with understanding, readers need to know the meanings of the words (vocabulary) in the texts they read. They need a large and increasing bank of sight words (words they recognise automatically and do not need to decode). They need to understand the forms and functions of these written words, how they are used in sentences and how words relate to one another. Refer to pages 34–36 for more about developing a reading vocabulary.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:	
• have a reading vocabulary of everyday words, signs and symbols.	Readers can recognise and understand familiar words (for example, names, common words and high-interest words) in different contexts. They also recognise and understand essential signs and symbols relevant to their own situations.
• have a reading vocabulary of everyday words that includes some compound words • have a knowledge of word families that enables them to increase their reading vocabulary • be aware that many words have more than one meaning and notice when a word is used with an unfamiliar meaning • have some understanding of the purposes of acronyms and abbreviations • know some everyday signs and symbols.	Readers have a reading vocabulary of everyday words (including some compound words, for example, *lawnmower, middleman*) that they can identify and understand. They can use their developing knowledge of words, topics and contexts to increase their reading vocabulary. Readers seek to identify the new meaning of a familiar word when it is used in an unfamiliar way. Areas of study can include: – learning word families, because knowing a root word and understanding how it can be changed opens up the meanings of many more words (for example, *love* gives access to *loves, loved, lovely, unloved, lovable*) – connecting new words with background knowledge, because when readers connect new words with a concept or topic they already know about, they are more likely to understand and retain the new words (for example, the vocabulary associated with *tangi* can include *passed away, grief* and *wharenui*) – finding synonyms, because knowing words that have the same or very similar meanings increases readers' vocabulary knowledge (for example, *warm* and *tepid, cold* and *chilly*, or *wet, damp, moist* and *soggy*).
• have a reading vocabulary of everyday words and some less common words, acronyms and abbreviations • understand that some words and phrases can have figurative as well as literal meanings • have strategies for finding the meanings of unknown words, including a knowledge of how to find words in a dictionary and interpret definitions.	Readers have acquired a reading vocabulary of everyday and some less common words they recognise and understand. They use their own knowledge of the world and the reading context to make inferences as they work out the meanings of new words and interpret definitions in a dictionary to find the best meaning. Areas of study can include: – inferring the meanings of new words from knowledge about the context and about how words work in relation to other words – distinguishing figurative and literal meanings, for example, in words and expressions such as "With your food basket and my food basket ..." or "I heard through the kumara vine that you were going on holiday" or "Give me a hand" – using dictionaries and discussing definitions – learning the meanings of acronyms and abbreviations that are used in their reading.
• have a reading vocabulary that includes some general academic words and some specialised words • understand how word families can be generated (based on roots, prefixes and suffixes) and use this understanding to extend their vocabulary.	Readers have acquired a reading vocabulary of some general academic words and some specialised words they recognise and understand. They are able to use their knowledge of word formation based on roots, prefixes and suffixes to extend their own reading vocabulary. Areas of study can include: – using known parts of words, such as specific prefixes, roots and suffixes, to increase vocabulary (for example, to read *inadequately* by knowing the meanings of *in-, adequate* and *-ly*) – exploring word derivations. (Note that knowing such Latin and Greek morphemes as *inter, poly, geo, bio, contra, multi, graphic* and *logic*, which form parts of English words, will help readers to understand new words that use different combinations of these parts.)
• have a large reading vocabulary that includes general academic words and specialised words and terms.	Readers have acquired a large reading vocabulary that relates to their own knowledge of the world, and that includes general academic words and specialised words and terms. Readers use what they know about words and about the world to increase their vocabulary in a wide range of contexts.

Read with Understanding
Language and Text Features progression

To read with understanding, readers use their knowledge of language features, grammar and the features of written texts. Features of written texts include the length and layout of the text, the different parts of the text and the cohesive devices, such as the sequencing of paragraphs, that link the parts. Different written text types have different characteristic features. Other texts that readers need to understand include static visual texts, such as tables, charts, maps, illustrations and photographs, and visual texts with moving images, such as movies, and TV advertisements and programmes. Refer to pages 36–37 for more about the features of written texts.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:		
	• understand that groups of words work together in meaningful units.	Readers recognise that phrases and other groups of words are important elements in sentences. They use this knowledge to understand where important content is located. Readers also use this knowledge to help their chunking of words, which leads to later fluency. Areas of study can include: – finding the words that carry meaning in a simple phrase or sentence – reading phrases and simple sentences aloud to show understanding of the grouping of the words.
	• understand short, simple texts that are made up of simple sentences and compound sentences • understand how capital letters and full stops are used to show where sentences begin and end • recognise some common text types • recognise some common visual text forms.	Readers recognise simple sentences and compound sentences (for example, two simple sentences joined by a conjunction). They use their knowledge of simple punctuation and of common grammatical constructions to understand written texts. They understand how written texts include particular language features (such as the past tense) and/or particular visual language features (such as a table to present information) that suit the writer's purpose. The purpose for writing determines the text type and specific text types have typical features. Readers can identify such features in the texts they read and view. Areas of study can include: – finding the simple sentences within a compound sentence – reading texts aloud with expression to show understanding of the use of punctuation – identifying the typical features of some common text types (for example, reports generally use the past tense and descriptions the present tense).
	• understand a variety of sentence structures and paragraph structures within more complex texts • be aware of how clauses can be combined and marked with commas, semicolons, or colons within complex sentences • understand how simple clauses can be elaborated by adding words and phrases • recognise the features and structures of a wider range of text types • be aware of a range of visual text forms that can be combined with or included in written texts.	Readers recognise a wider variety of punctuation features and grammatical constructions. They use this knowledge to comprehend vocabulary, sentences and paragraphs. They understand the specific language features characteristic of some text types, including instructions, reports and explanations. Readers can identify language features that make a text more cohesive, or that clarify the links between ideas. They understand some ways in which writers use visual text forms to enhance the effectiveness of written text (for example, by using tables to present data, by using hypertext to help readers make links to related material, or by using bilingual letterheads). Areas of study can include: – analysing the language and visual features of some text types (for example, the use of description in a report, the use of a flow chart in an explanation) – exploring the ways in which hypertext can be used when searching for information.
	• understand a variety of sentence structures and paragraph structures across a wide range of complex texts • understand that the information in well constructed paragraphs includes both general and particular information, for example, a paragraph may move from a claim to reasons justifying the claim • be aware of rhetorical patterns that are common to many text types, such as descriptions of cause and effect • recognise the features and structures of a wide range of text types, including some specialised text types such as instruction manuals.	Readers are familiar with the structures of long, complex fiction and non-fiction texts. They can identify ways in which language features are used to create shifts in meaning (for example, through a change of tense). They recognise the purposes of the language features associated with more specialised text types (for example, the detailed descriptions in many academic texts and the rhetorical questions commonly used in argument texts).

Read with Understanding
Comprehension progression

To read with understanding, readers need to use a range of comprehension strategies. Readers may use these comprehension strategies singly or in combination. Refer to pages 37–39 for more about reading comprehension and related strategies.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:		
	• have some awareness of their purpose for reading • expect that texts will make sense • use strategies to read short, simple texts with support.	Readers need to have a purpose for reading and to expect that texts will make sense. They may need support to read and understand short, simple texts such as road signs, notices in public places and simple email messages. This support may be in the form of assistance with unknown words or unfamiliar concepts. Support can also take the form of a more expert reader reading the text aloud as the learner follows it. Readers begin to integrate information from various sources (the words and images in the text, the text structure and their own prior knowledge) to comprehend texts. Areas of study can include: – charting, discussing and practising using sources of information to understand short, simple texts.
	• use comprehension strategies to understand short, simple texts • use strategies to locate items of information in short, simple texts • have some awareness of what to do and how to do it when comprehension breaks down.	Readers use a range of comprehension strategies (such as making connections to their own prior knowledge) to understand simple texts. Readers integrate information from various sources (the words and images in the text, the text structure and their own prior knowledge) to comprehend texts. Readers are able to recognise when comprehension has broken down and use "fix-up" strategies such as rereading, adjusting the reading pace, or listing unknown words. Areas of study can include: – reading and discussing simple texts such as school notices, workplace or community announcements and instructions, and simple letters and narratives.
	• use comprehension strategies to assist in understanding information or ideas in longer or more complex texts • use strategies to locate important information in texts • have an increasing awareness of what to do and how to do it when comprehension breaks down.	Readers use a range of comprehension strategies (such as drawing inferences and creating mental images) and integrate information from various sources to understand longer or more complex texts such as bus timetables, popular magazine articles and short personal recounts. They have an increasing awareness of what to do and how to do it when comprehension breaks down, for example, they know when to refer to a dictionary for the meaning of an unknown word.
	• use strategies to read an increasingly varied range of more complex texts for specific purposes • use strategies to locate, organise and summarise important information in texts • use strategies to gather and synthesise information from across a small range of texts • have increasing control over how they use comprehension strategies.	Readers read an increasingly varied range of more complex texts for various purposes, drawing on comprehension strategies in increasingly flexible and integrated ways. The texts may include some newspaper reports, workplace or community documents (such as employment contracts or official letters), electronic texts such as web pages or blogs, and texts related to subjects the reader is studying. Readers monitor their own comprehension as they read. Areas of study can include: – locating and comparing information about a topic from several different sources – identifying and summarising the most important information in a text.
	• select and integrate a wide range of comprehension strategies • have an awareness of how to use strategies and evaluate their effectiveness • use strategies to summarise and synthesise information across a wider range of more complex texts and for more complex purposes • integrate prior knowledge with new information within and across several different texts to deepen their understanding.	Readers can read practically all texts, including long, complex texts, for a range of purposes, integrating a wide range of comprehension strategies at an advanced level. They have an awareness of how and why to use strategies across a range of reading situations, and they can talk about their use of strategies and evaluate the effectiveness of the strategies. They can integrate their own prior knowledge with new information or ideas within and across multiple texts in order to evaluate the information or ideas and develop a deeper understanding of them.

Read with Understanding
Reading Critically progression

To read with understanding, readers need to develop a critical awareness that enables them to consider who wrote a text and for whom, why the text was written and whether it may have purposes that are not immediately apparent. As they become aware of writers' differing purposes and perspectives, readers are able to make their own judgments about the relevance, reliability or bias of what they read. Refer to page 42 for more about reading critically.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:	
• have some awareness of the different purposes of visual and written texts • be aware that all readers and writers have a perspective (point of view).	Readers begin to develop awareness of different purposes for texts and to realise that all readers and writers have a perspective. Areas of study can include: – identifying the purposes and perspectives of such visual texts as posters and billboards.
• recognise the purposes, levels of meaning and possible uses of different forms and types of written and visual texts • use strategies to compare and evaluate information from different sources.	Readers develop an awareness of the possible uses of different forms and types of written and visual texts. They compare information from different sources in order to evaluate purpose, effectiveness and bias in texts. Areas of study can include: – identifying the purposes and perspectives of newspaper advertisements, magazine covers and junk mail.
• identify writers' purposes and ways in which writers use ideas and language to suit their purposes • identify a variety of sources for specific information and use strategies to compare and evaluate information within or across different texts.	Readers identify writers' purposes and the ways in which writers use ideas and language to suit their purposes. Readers compare and evaluate information within or across different texts, for example, to identify missing or contradictory information. Areas of study can include: – identifying the purposes and perspectives of letters to the editor, websites, advertising material, popular magazine articles, bilingual websites, letterheads and signage.
• use strategies to analyse ideas and information and to reflect critically on surface meanings and underlying meanings • evaluate the validity (truth) of information in relation to the writer's purpose and/or the reader's purpose.	Readers analyse ideas and information in texts and reflect critically on surface and underlying meanings, using a range of strategies, such as comparing, contrasting, evaluating and asking questions. Readers evaluate a writer's purpose and they comment on the validity or reasonableness of the information or ideas in a text. Areas of study can include: – comparing the purposes and perspectives of websites, work-related documents (such as contracts, Māori Land Court documents), community documents (such as school newsletters or planning permissions) and spoken texts (such as radio news bulletins).
• use strategies confidently to reflect critically on meaning • evaluate a writer's point of view, attitude, bias or agenda • have an understanding of the language features used by writers for specific purposes.	Readers reflect critically on meaning, using a wide range of strategies. These strategies could include applying relevant information to different scenarios, comparing different points of view, drawing conclusions and forming "big picture" generalisations. Readers can evaluate a writer's point of view, attitude, bias or agenda, and they understand the language features used by the writer to express or obscure these. Areas of study can include: – analysing the forms and purposes of language features used in advertising or on political pamphlets, for example, the use of rhetorical questions ("Do you want our town to be vibrant and successful?") – identifying ways in which texts can be used to include, exclude or imply disapproval of certain groups in society, for example the use of racist or sexist language or images.

Write to Communicate
Purpose and Audience progression

Writers set goals as they plan and write to communicate. They need to be aware of their writing purpose and of the audiences for their writing. They understand how specific text types match specific writing purposes. They choose the appropriate type and adapt its characteristic features to meet their writing purposes and engage particular audiences. Refer to page 31 for more about the importance of the purpose and audience for writing.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:	
• have a simple purpose for writing, with one or more goals related to the text content (what the text will say).	Writers usually have a simple purpose for writing and they develop one or more related goals in order to communicate basic, essential information or ideas in writing. Some writers may need support to clarify a specific purpose, which can then inform their planning and composing. Areas of study can include: – discussion of highly relevant topics or needs in order to develop possible purposes for writing – writing brief notes so learners can recall or pass on information.
• have purpose-related goals for writing and use them to help plan, compose and revise • begin to develop a sense of the audience (the reader) for whom they are writing.	Writers can articulate their writing goals and relate them to an overall purpose, such as wanting to share information or to make a request or a complaint. They can use their goals to aid their planning, for example, by creating a mind map or web of ideas they wish to communicate. Writers refer to their purpose as they compose and revise, and they may adjust their goals or their writing accordingly. Writers are prepared to persevere with writing in order to achieve their purpose. Areas of study can include: – making mind maps to record words and ideas related to writing for a specific purpose, for example, to explain how to use a piece of equipment – exploring a selection of short texts that have been written for different purposes or audiences, such as children's picture books, text books, newspaper advertisements and websites.
• have an audience in mind and consider the appropriateness of the choices that they make in relation to that audience.	Writers use their knowledge of their audience to inform their thinking as they plan, compose and revise. They use such strategies as asking questions to check their writing is meeting its purpose. Areas of study can include: – discussing questions that writers use to question their own writing, for example, "Would my reader be interested in this?" or "Would this persuade people to come to the hui?" – taking relevant notes, when listening to a speaker, for themselves or for colleagues.
• have a network of goals that relate to the purpose, the audience and the content • reflect on their purpose and audience as they compose and revise.	Writers work towards goals that relate to their overall purpose and to the content of their writing. They reflect on the purpose and the audience as they compose and revise. Areas of study can include: – writing "before" and "after" reviews of their writing process, to track any changes in goals (recognising that expert writers often change their goals as they write) – reflecting on the ways in which a text could be altered to match different purposes or audiences, for example, by adding emotive language to persuade or by simplifying complex sentences to make the text easier to read.

Write to Communicate
Spelling progression

Writers need to be able to spell words accurately to communicate through writing. Spelling (encoding) means recording words correctly and consistently. Expert spellers use a range of strategies to work out unknown words. Before they can develop spelling strategies, learners must have developed some basic prerequisite skills and understandings, including phonological and phonemic awareness (see page 32). Learners also need to be able to form letters correctly. While some adult learners may not have developed all of these prerequisite skills, the first step in this progression describes learners who have acquired them and can write some basic words correctly. Refer to page 34 for more about spelling.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:		
	• have a bank of high-frequency words they can write automatically and accurately • have in their spelling bank high-frequency words that have regular spelling patterns and irregular spelling patterns.	Writers spell unknown words by using a number of strategies. These include applying letter–sound correspondence rules, analogy and recalling from memory (for example, *the* is an irregular word that must be committed to memory). Areas of study can include: – learning letter-sound relationships, for example, single consonants, consonant blends (such as *sp, tr, cr*), consonant digraphs (such as *ch, sh, th*) and vowel sounds, and producing them in writing – learning to use analogy (if you can spell *bat*, you can spell *hat, sat, mat, cat*) – learning common words with irregular spelling patterns, such as *are, have* and *you*, by rote.
	• have a large bank of words they can write automatically and accurately • use reliable strategies for spelling everyday words with some fluency and accuracy • have an awareness of the accuracy of their spelling attempts • use appropriate levelled dictionaries to check spelling attempts.	Writers spell more difficult words by using more complex sound-letter relationship rules, analogy, memory and by applying spelling rules. They realise that some letters may represent more than one sound, for example, *c* in *cat, cent* and *cycle*. They have an awareness of the accuracy of their spelling attempts and they can ask themselves "Does that look right?". Areas of study can include: – exploring spelling patterns, for example, consonant blends, consonant and vowel digraphs (such as *au, ea, ou*) – building word families (for example, *sit, sitting, sits, sat*) – learning spelling rules (for example, silent *e* rule, rules for adding suffixes) – using analogy to infer the unknown from the known (for example, if you can spell *black*, you can work out *slack*) – using simple tools (such as word lists or a computer spell-check) to confirm or correct spelling.
	• use with confidence strategies for spelling most everyday words with fluency and accuracy • use word analysis to spell common three and some four syllable words (for example, *hospital, information*).	Writers spell most familiar everyday words with fluency by using strategies they already know to write longer or more complex words. Writers are able to monitor their writing for accuracy, for example, by asking themselves "Does that make sense?" and by checking against a printed text, or by using a spell-check or a dictionary. Areas of study can include: – practising making analogies by comparing the word to be spelled with a known word – charting spelling patterns (for example, the long *e* sound in *ee, a-e, o-e, ew, ay (me, tree, Pete, meat)*, or the long *u* sound in *u-e, ew, eu, ue (tune, new, feud, due))* – selecting important or commonly-used irregular words to learn (to commit to memory). Examples include *through, though, which, straight, another.* – identifying ways to form the past tense (for example, *hop/hopped, carry/carried, cry/cried).*
	• use strategies to spell more specialised words, including words of many syllables, with fluency • use knowledge of how more complex words are built (prefix + Latin root + suffix) to spell more advanced words • monitor their writing for accuracy and sense.	Writers use their knowledge of spelling patterns, sounds and their visual memory to spell less familiar or recently learnt specialised words fluently. They can identify patterns for spelling plurals or the past tense. Areas of study can include: – charting and analysing specialised words that are important for learners in their work or study – more advanced spelling rules (for example, *admit + ance = admittance*) – exploring the different ways of spelling a suffix that is pronounced the same way (for example, *-tion -cian, -sion*).
	• have developed the ability to spell a wide range of unfamiliar, less familiar, or recently learnt words rapidly and accurately.	Writers are able to spell a wide range of unfamiliar, less familiar, or recently learnt words automatically by drawing on a range of strategies, including visual memory. Areas of study can include: – spelling words used in specific contexts including academic and topic-specific words, such as *examination, ceremonial, magnetic, Waitangi* – proofreading with a specific focus such as contractions, plurals, or the addition of suffixes.

Write to Communicate
Vocabulary progression

When writing to communicate, writers draw on the words they use as they listen and speak and on the words they have learned from reading. Writers use this vocabulary knowledge to find the words they want to include in their texts. They need to understand the meanings of the words, their forms and functions, how the words are used in sentences and how words relate to one another. They need to be able to select words and phrases that best express their ideas and that are appropriate to their writing purpose and audience. Refer to page 36 for more about developing a vocabulary for writing.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:		
	• use a range of everyday, highly familiar words and phrases to write simple texts.	Writers use their knowledge of some everyday, highly familiar words to write simple texts. Areas of study can include: – brainstorming and making lists of words the writer knows or needs to know for essential everyday uses.
	• have a writing vocabulary that is adequate for communicating meaning in everyday writing tasks • add detail to simple sentences, for example, by adding an adjective to a noun.	Writers have a writing vocabulary that is adequate for such everyday tasks as writing simple notes (of one or two sentences), shopping lists and personal statements. Areas of study can include: – choosing vocabulary that is accurate and appropriate for different contexts, for example "Bring pork chops for the hāngi" – writing notes and personal statements in pairs to check for meaning and appropriate choice of words – extending the list of words and phrases the writer can use with confidence.
	• have an extended writing vocabulary related to their personal, work and community tasks • know about the connections between words, including collocations.	Writers extend their productive vocabulary to include common and specialised words related to personal, work and community tasks. Writers apply their knowledge of how words work and use words in appropriate ways in their writing. Areas of study can include: – extending writers' word lists to include new topics, word families, synonyms (words that mean the same), homonyms (words that sound the same), descriptive adjectives and adverbs and action verbs – exploring collocations (such as *knife and fork, iwi and hapū affiliations, a lovely day, salt and pepper, falling in love* and *drive a car*) – putting words into categories (for example, *pot, frypan, kete* and *saucepan* are all containers for cooking food).
	• have a specialised writing vocabulary related to a range of topics • know how to select vocabulary that is appropriate to the context • know that words can be formed based on roots, prefixes and suffixes, and use this knowledge to extend their writing vocabulary.	Writers extend and refine their knowledge of words that relate to a range of topics. They select vocabulary appropriate to the context. Areas of study can include: – identifying the vocabulary of a specific oral or written text type, for example, the vocabulary used in arguments, instructions or recounts – elaborating on sentences to add interesting detail and to make meaning more precise – exploring the meanings of words based on knowledge of root words (especially Greek and Latin roots), prefixes and suffixes.
	• have an extensive writing vocabulary of everyday and specialised words that relate to a wide range of topics and contexts.	Writers are able to draw on their knowledge of words and of the world to select the most effective words to use for their purpose and audience. Areas of study can include: – finding new words (from spoken or written texts) then discussing their meanings and how they relate to known words (for example, discuss how *interconnected* is similar to and different from words the learners already know and how its meaning can be worked out by word analysis).

Write to Communicate
Language and Text Features progression

When writing to communicate, writers use their knowledge of language features, grammar and the features of written texts. Features of written texts include the length and layout of the text, the different parts of the text and the cohesive devices, such as the sequencing of paragraphs, that link the parts. Different written text types have different characteristic features. Other text features that writers may need to be able to use include visual language features such as tables, charts, maps, illustrations and photographs. Refer to pages 36–37 for more about the features of written texts.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:		
		Adults need to gain familiarity with written words and sentences and the purposes of texts in order to develop initial understandings about specific grammar and text types.
	• be able to use basic grammar and punctuation to construct short, simple sentences and compound sentences • use punctuation effectively to show where sentences begin and end • know and use the basic features of some common text types and visual text forms.	Writers use simple, common grammatical constructions to compose simple sentences and compound sentences (for example, by joining two simple sentences with a conjunction). They choose language features (such as tense) and/or particular visual language features (such as a table to present information) according to the purpose for writing and the type of text. They can use these features appropriately in the texts they compose. Areas of study can include: – identifying and using the characteristics of some text types, for example, the use of past tense in reports and the present tense in descriptions.
	• use effective sentence structures and more complex punctuation to write more complex sentences with detail and elaboration • write longer texts that flow well and make sense • have and apply a knowledge of the features and structures of a wider range of text types.	Writers use a wider variety of punctuation and grammatical constructions to compose sentences and paragraphs. They use language features that make a text more cohesive, for example, words to indicate sequence (*first, second*) or to clarify the links between ideas (*but, however, in contrast*). They know how to use the language features characteristic of some text types, including instructions, reports and explanations. They use visual text forms to enhance the effectiveness of their writing. Areas of study can include: – examining the correct and effective use of punctuation, for example, to mark and combine clauses within sentences by using commas, colons and semicolons – analysing the language features of a variety of text types such as descriptive adjectives, adverbs and the present tense (*Weta look like large, brown grasshoppers.*) in reports; and the passive voice in explanations (*When the two substances have been combined*) – using tables to present data or hypertext to help readers make links to related material.
	• use complex sentence and paragraph structures across a wide range of complex texts • use a full range of punctuation and discourse markers to communicate meaning • structure longer texts by using paragraphs and sub-headings to present information and ideas effectively.	Writers are familiar with the grammatical structures and sophisticated punctuation used in long, complex fiction and non-fiction texts. They can write effective paragraphs that include both general and particular information (for example, by moving from a claim to reasons justifying the claim) and they can use sub-headings to break up a text and signpost changes of focus. They can use language features to create shifts in meaning (for example, through a change of tense). Areas of study can include: – using rhetorical patterns, for example, the pattern *If … happens, the result will be …* to describe cause and effect, or the pattern *We accept that …* to concede a point in an argument – using the language features associated with more specialised texts, for example, the extensive noun phrases (*The unexpected reaction to the presence of an acid indicates…*) used in many academic texts and the rhetorical questions (*You wouldn't want our old people to live away from the whānau, would you?*) commonly used in argument texts – words (especially Greek and Latin roots), prefixes and suffixes.

Write to Communicate
Planning and Composing progression

When writing to communicate, writers use strategies within a writing process to plan and compose texts. The initial steps in the writing process are usually planning (deciding what to write about and how to approach the task) and composing (recording thoughts, ideas and information). Refer to pages 40–41 for more about the writing process and the development of expertise in planning and composing.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:	
• write single words and simple phrases to convey information in a readable draft • use a highly structured template or model to write a simple text on a very familiar topic.	Writers gain confidence by using models and templates as they begin to write texts. Models can include short sentences about a learner's personal experience dictated by the learner and recorded by the tutor, simple printed forms and other simple texts on familiar topics for specific purposes. Support can be provided in the form of highly structured templates, writing frames or graphic organisers. Areas of study can include: – brainstorming ideas for a specific purpose and then following a model to develop one idea into a sentence – writing down telephone messages that are accurate and understandable.
• write a short, comprehensible text using simple sentences, with support if necessary • use knowledge of text structure to identify and organise a limited number of ideas around a familiar topic.	Writers plan and compose short, comprehensible texts that organise a limited number of ideas around a familiar topic, sometimes with support. Writers are also able to take notes (when listening to spoken texts) that are not in the form of complete sentences, but convey the essential information required. Areas of study can include: – listing possible topics for writing and then generating ideas for sentences about one or more of the topics – building on an idea and extending a sentence by adding descriptive detail – taking notes for oneself or to pass on to someone else.
• use simple planning strategies • use knowledge of text structure to organise a limited number of ideas in a few short, well-linked paragraphs with several supporting details and/or examples • write a simple, comprehensible text that conforms to an appropriate text type.	Writers select simple planning strategies appropriate to their needs and purposes. They use their knowledge of text types (such as recounts, narratives and arguments) and make choices that reflect their purpose. Writers can organise a limited number of ideas about a topic into a few short, well-linked paragraphs with several supporting details and/or examples. Areas of study can include: – developing an idea into a paragraph and writing several related ideas as linked paragraphs – expanding a simple sentence into one or more sentences that give fuller details, for example, by adding examples to a letter of complaint.
• use multiple planning strategies • use knowledge of text types and their structures to select appropriate text forms and media for the purpose • write text with some fluency, using a limited variety of complex sentence structures and rhetorical patterns • use strategies to select and incorporate relevant information or ideas from one or more sources • have an awareness of voice and know how to adapt their writing to express the voice they choose to use.	Writers use a wide range of planning strategies, selecting and using methods that suit their purposes. They keep their purpose and audience in mind as they select relevant information or ideas they want to record and choose the most appropriate medium to use (for example, handwriting on paper, a web page, or a mural with words and images). Writers use what they already know about text types and structures (forms) to organise their ideas. Their writing is reasonably fluent and coherent and uses a consistent and engaging voice (refer to glossary for a definition of *voice* in this sense). Areas of study can include: – writing sentences with complex structures – using rhetorical patterns, such as asking questions or repeating certain phrases – using a wide range of sources for information.
• select from and use a range of tools (including computer tools) for overall planning and organisation • use their knowledge of text types, text structures and media to communicate information or ideas in the most effective ways • fluently write extended, coherent texts of various types with appropriate detail, using a variety of sentence and text structures.	Writers use a range of tools (including computer tools and other digital tools) to plan and compose extended, coherent texts with appropriate detail. They use a variety of sentences within the structures of different text types. They can adapt their writing to meet the needs of different audiences (including the appropriate and correct use of Māori terms and greetings) and they have a sense of themselves as writers with a distinctive voice which they can vary to suit their purpose and audience.

Write to Communicate
Revising and Editing progression

When writing to communicate, writers revise and edit their work to improve it. They check that the meaning of their text is clear and that the writing meets their purpose and is likely to engage their intended audience. Revising and editing are steps that writers may revisit at different times during the writing process. Refer to page 40 for more about revising and editing.

AS THEY DEVELOP THEIR EXPERTISE, MOST ADULTS WILL:	
• use basic revision strategies, with support, to edit their writing in response to feedback.	Writers seek and respond to feedback on their writing. The feedback given by a more expert writer can be seen as equivalent to that of a partner in a conversation – the two can negotiate the meaning and the writer can make changes according to the feedback given. Areas of study can include: – practise at giving and receiving verbal feedback on a written text – increasing the time learners spend rereading and reviewing their own writing, with support.
• review and revise their writing by making a few simple changes to the content, based on rereading and feedback • make simple corrections to grammar, spelling and punctuation • use electronic or print-based tools to help them identify and correct errors.	Writers reread their work, checking for clarity and accuracy and they also seek feedback from others. They make changes based on the review and the feedback. Areas of study can include: – discussing how to make changes based on feedback – rereading for a purpose – using revision and editing tools, such as models of good writing (for comparison), computer spell-check tools and dictionaries.
• review their writing in terms of its appropriateness for the intended audience, its coherence and flow, the word choices, the sentence structure and the structure of the text as a whole • make several simple changes to improve the text's coherence and the way the content is organised • proofread the text to correct the grammar, spelling and punctuation • use appropriate tools to aid proofreading.	Writers reread and revise their writing. They check for specific features and make changes based on their own reviews and on feedback. Areas of study can include: – discussing what is meant by coherence and flow or effective word use in written texts – using revision checklists, for example, to remind writers to check for a logical order of ideas and for correct, formal sentence structures where appropriate – using proofreading checklists to help writers search for and correct errors in spelling, grammar and punctuation.
• review the text to identify and address any problems, checking that the text meets its purpose and is likely to engage the intended audience • proofread the text using appropriate print or computer-based tools.	Writers review and revise their writing, largely by themselves, making changes where necessary. They keep the demands of their purpose and the needs of their audience in mind as they revise. Areas of study can include: – differing levels of formality in texts and editing for different purposes – using a range of appropriate tools for proofreading – peer-editing using accepted proofreading marks.
• review texts to identify and address problems, add detail, or modify the tone.	Writers routinely review, revise and proofread their texts to identify and address problems, add detail, or modify tone. They reflect critically on the effectiveness of their writing and gain new knowledge from their engagement with writing, for example, as they seek answers to their own questions about the content and form of their writing. Areas of study can include: – reviewing writing critically to identify and remove any (unintentional) bias.

Further information

The research that informed the development of the learning progressions, along with some more technical background information about the progressions and about adult learners, is described in a companion booklet, *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy: Background Information*.

This section of the book adds to the information given on the previous pages about the strands and the progressions. It discusses the links between the four strands and goes on to provide additional details about each progression.

The links between listening, speaking, reading and writing

The learning progressions describe the development of expertise across the four strands that relate to listening, speaking, reading and writing. Within these strands, progressions have been developed for specific areas of learning, such as vocabulary and comprehension. However, these divisions do not mean that each area of learning is isolated. They overlap one another and, in some cases, certain learning in one progression is a prerequisite for learning in another. The interrelationships between listening and speaking, between reading and writing and between oral and written language mean that no one strand should be considered on its own.

Because of this, the information provided below is presented under general headings that may apply to progressions in two or more strands. The chart on page 30 illustrates this by showing the common areas between the strands. For example, all four strands have progressions for Vocabulary and for Language and Text Features. To emphasise the strong interrelationship between listening and speaking, the progression for Interactive Listening and Speaking is repeated in both the Listen to Understand and the Speak to Communicate strands.

Adults become aware of their own thinking and learning processes as they become increasingly independent thinkers and learners. This awareness is known as metacognition and is an essential factor in extending learning. Being aware of the links between listening, speaking, reading and writing helps learners to build this metacognition as they transfer what they have learned in one area of literacy learning to others.

Additional details about each progression

The table below shows the order in which additional information is provided. In some areas and where two or more progressions have a common theme (for example, Purpose and Audience), general information is presented as well as specific information for a strand.

	LISTEN WITH UNDERSTANDING (Receptive)	SPEAK TO COMMUNICATE (Productive)	READ WITH UNDERSTANDING (Receptive)	WRITE TO COMMUNICATE (Productive)
Purpose and Audience progression	Awareness of purpose and audience is key in all four strands, but is covered in a general way, over several progressions, in these three strands. See page 31			Page 31
Decoding and Spelling (encoding) progression **General: pages 31-32**	The typical adult learner already knows the code of spoken English, so no progression is given for oral language		Page 33	Page 34
Vocabulary progression **General: pages 34-35**	Page 35	Page 35	Page 36	Page 36
Language and Text Features progression **General: pages 36-37**	Page 37	Page 37	Page 37	Page 37
Comprehension progression **General: page 37**	Page 38		Pages 38-39	
Using Strategies to Communicate progression **General: page 40**		Page 40		Using Strategies to Communicate and Planning and Composing are similar
Planning and Composing progression **General: page 40**		Using Strategies to Communicate and Planning and Composing are similar		Page 40
Revising and Editing progression		Speakers revise, eg. by restating something in a different way		Page 40
Listening and Reading Critically progression page 41	Page 41		Page 42	
Interactive Listening and Speaking progression	Page 42	Page 42		

Purpose and Audience

General information

All oral and written texts have a meaning and a purpose. Adults learn to distinguish between the different purposes of texts through examining the purposes they have as they prepare to listen, speak, read or write. These purposes can be very diverse, for example, to entertain, to build a friendship, to get something done, to comfort, to influence, to subvert, to deceive, to persuade, to build community or to shock. The purposes can be direct, indirect or a combination. The purpose may be to express the writer's or speaker's point of view, perspective, attitude, bias or agenda, and these purposes may be expressed in direct or indirect ways. Listeners and readers who think critically are able to consider different perspectives along with the different intentions of texts (see page 41). Listeners and readers also have their own purposes for listening and reading, which may or may not align with the purposes of the texts they listen to or read.

Since all texts have a purpose, it follows that all texts will have one or more intended audiences. Even personal diaries have the writer of the diary as an audience. The audience may be obvious (for example, a written or oral report may be given as part of a handover on a project), or it may be less obvious or even obscured (for example, if the person giving the report wants an opportunity to brag about how what a good job he or she has done).

Write to Communicate: Purpose and Audience progression

Whenever someone writes, they have a purpose for writing and goals to help them meet their purpose. These goals relate to what the writer wants to say and how the writer will say it. As the writing progresses, the writer may read back over their work to check that it is meeting the purpose, making changes to the ideas and information as well as to word-level and sentence-level features such as spelling, grammar and the order of sentences. The more experienced and confident the writer becomes, the more automatic some parts of the process (such as letter formation, spelling and the use of grammar) become. Other aspects of the writing process continue to require conscious planning and skill even for the most expert writers.

An expert writer begins the writing process by clarifying their purpose for writing, identifying the audience they want to engage and thinking about how they will meet the purpose and engage the audience. For example, when a person needs to write a CV, the purpose is to present their qualifications, skills and experience in a positive light so they will have the best chance of getting a job. The audience is the potential employer. As the writing progresses, the writer checks to make sure all the right details are included, that the CV is not too long and that the presentation is correct and tidy. All these features will help make the CV fit for the purpose and the audience.

A CV, like many other kinds of written texts, has established conventions, features and language. Writers gain knowledge of the features and structures of the different text types through reading and writing many different texts as well as through their experience of oral discourse. They can use models of the types of texts that best fit their writing purposes, for example, to explain, instruct, report or persuade. Experienced writers can bring the features, conventions and generic patterns of many different text types to mind as they write.

Decoding for reading; Spelling (encoding) for writing

General information

Decoding means translating written words into the sounds and meanings of spoken words (often silently). Encoding, or spelling, is the reverse process. The skills used in encoding are usually developed alongside decoding skills and reflect similar learning.

In order to become good decoders and spellers, learners need to first develop some basic understandings about print and how it relates to spoken English. In particular, learners must have developed phonological awareness and phonemic awareness.

Phonological awareness

This is an awareness of the different levels in the sound system of speech. In order to learn to read or spell words, learners need to be aware that the words they hear in spoken language are made up of small segments of sound and that these sounds can be represented in print. Phonological awareness is the awareness that words can be separated in three ways and at three levels, by syllables, by onsets and rimes, and by phonemes. Syllable awareness is an awareness that words can be divided into syllables. A learner who has phonological awareness at the syllable level will know that the word *mat* has one syllable, that *rabbit* has two syllables and that *hospital* has three syllables. Onset-rime awareness is phonological awareness within the syllable level. At this level, the learner knows that, in the word *mat*, the *m* is the onset (the initial consonant/s of a syllable) and the *at* is the rime unit of the syllable (the vowel and any consonants that follow it). The third level of separating words is by phonemes (or phonemic awareness). Phonemic awareness is knowing that *mat* has three phonemes (/m/ /a/ /t/).

Phonemic awareness

This is the most advanced level of phonological awareness. Phonemic awareness means awareness of the sounds or phonemes in spoken words and the ability to manipulate the sounds. Phonemes are the smallest sound units that can change the meaning of a word. For example, the difference between *hit/sit, hit/hot* or *hit/hid* is a difference of only one phoneme (a sound) in each case. The English language includes 42 to 46 phonemes and these phonemes are represented by 26 letters. The 42 to 46 phonemes produce over 500,000 words. Knowing that the word *mat* has three phonemes (/m/ /a/ /t/) or that the difference between *mat* and *pat* is one phoneme (/p/) are examples of learners having phonemic awareness. Phonemic awareness is very important for learning to read and write English texts. In alphabetic languages such as English, letters or letter clusters represent sounds or phonemes. Readers and writers must develop an awareness that words are made up of phonemes. This awareness does not necessarily come easily, because phonemes are an abstract concept; they are heard, not seen. Learners who lack phonemic awareness find it very hard to understand letter-sound correspondences and this means they have great difficulty in learning to read and write.

Further prerequisites for learning to decode and spell

Learners also need to know the names of the letters of the alphabet and the sounds the letters represent, and they need to understand the key concepts about print. Without this knowledge, readers will not learn to decode and writers will not learn to spell.

- *The alphabetic principle.* Learners need to know that letters in print represent sounds in speech. This means knowing that speech can be turned into print, that print can be turned into speech and that letters are used to represent sounds in the language. It includes knowledge of the names and shapes of the letters of the alphabet. This knowledge is necessary so that learners can recognise letters by shape as they read and shape letters correctly as they write.
- *Concepts about print.* Learners need to understand how print works in written text. Such concepts include:
  - that text is written and read from left to right with a return sweep to the left of each new line

- that print on the left-hand page or column is read before print on the right
- that written sentences start with capital letters and end with full stops
- that the spacings between words, sentences, lines of print and paragraphs follow a meaningful pattern.

- *Knowledge of letter-sound correspondence.* When learners understand that the words in speech are composed of small segments of sound and that letters in print can represent these sounds, they can learn the ways in which certain letters represent specific sounds. This is not an easy understanding for all learners, partly because the match between sounds and letters or letter clusters is not always regular. However, this knowledge of the relationship between spoken sounds and the corresponding letters is essential for decoding and writing text.
- *Word analysis.* Learners use their increasing knowledge of the ways in which many words are built up from root words, prefixes and suffixes to help them work out how to read new words, for example, by recognising the way the word *kind* changes when the prefix *un-* is added. In writing (encoding), this word analysis is used when spelling.
- *Developing the ability to decode or spell automatically.* Good decoders and spellers quickly develop a store or bank of words they recognise or can write automatically. These words are variously known as high-frequency (words that appear very frequently in written texts), everyday (words that a person may encounter in their everyday life), or familiar (words that a person knows well, often because they have particular relevance for the person).[9]

Such categories overlap, but knowing many of these kinds of words is essential for reading and writing. By accessing this bank of words, readers are able to speed up their processing of print, pausing to decode only those words they do not yet recognise automatically. Similarly, writers are able to speed up their writing, pausing for words they are not yet able to write automatically. At the early stages of reading and writing, the words most likely to be used automatically are short, everyday words (typically of Anglo-Saxon origin), for example, *he, hand, bread* and *dog*. Many readers have difficulty progressing past this stage to automatic recognition of multi-syllabic words (typically of Greek or Latin origin), because they need to apply more complex strategies to decode these words. The strategies they need to learn are described in the Decoding progressions. Related strategies are needed for writing words and these are described in the Spelling progression.

Read with Understanding: Decoding progression

Decoding is an essential skill for reading. Decoding is not enough in itself to enable comprehension, but to be a good reader it is necessary to be a good decoder. To easily read the texts in their everyday lives, adults need to be able to decode unfamiliar words without having to think about it (that is, they need to develop the ability to decode automatically).

9 Many websites provide lists of such words: see for example, http://www.english-zone.com/reading/dolch.html, http://literacyconnections.com/Dolch.php

Write to Communicate: Spelling progression

As well as the prerequisites listed above, writers learn and apply strategies for spelling. These include:

- recalling words from memory
- working out words by using sound-letter relationships
- spelling rules and conventions
- using knowledge of root words and affixes
- writing the word then checking to see if it looks right
- making analogies to known words or parts of words.

Expert spellers draw on these strategies automatically, using them flexibly to solve particular spelling problems. Learners need to develop expertise in the use of dictionaries and other tools to check their spelling, including knowing how to select the correct spelling when there are choices. As they develop their expertise, adult learners need access to suitably-levelled dictionaries and spelling aids, including electronic tools.

Vocabulary

General information

The concept of vocabulary, as used in the progressions, includes knowing and understanding the meanings of words in spoken and written English language. In addition, knowledge of vocabulary includes knowing how words work and how they can be used in relation to each other in specific contexts.

Kinds of vocabulary

Adult learners have several different and overlapping kinds of vocabulary. Stein (2000) identifies the following four:

- Receptive vocabulary. The words an individual understands, either orally (heard) or in print (read).
- Productive vocabulary. The words an individual can use orally (by speaking) or in print (by writing).
- Oral vocabulary. The words an individual can use or recognise in speaking or listening.
- Reading vocabulary. The words an individual recognises in a printed form.

All of these kinds of vocabulary are covered in the literacy learning progressions.

Knowing a word

Knowing a word involves a complex network of connections (including collocations and connotations), images and understandings. Adults use memory, knowledge of the world, knowledge of language and texts and a range of strategies to activate and connect elements within their own network of word knowledge when they listen, speak, read or write.

People learn new words in many different ways and learning new words takes time. It may take a learner many encounters with a word before they have a full understanding of the meanings and uses of the word. One reason for this is that about 70 percent of English words have more than one meaning.[10] For example, the word *bright* has numerous shades of meaning. Learners will need to hear the word used with all these meanings in different contexts in order to fully understand the meanings and their possible applications. (*The light is bright; The future looks bright; John is bright; Sarah has a bright personality.*) Likewise, most adult English speakers talk of driving a car, but riding a horse: even though the actions involved are very similar, they know that different words apply to different forms of transport.

These different levels of knowledge about a word (that is, variations in how well a word is known) can become apparent in contexts where detailed

10 Lederer, 1991.

knowledge may be needed because of the degree of precision and expertise required. A person may know a word well in everyday contexts, but in specialised contexts the same word may take on particular meanings. For example, many people might know and use the word *hormones*, but when listening to a talk or reading an article by a doctor, they may find they don't have a deep enough understanding of the word to fully comprehend the talk or article.

Academic vocabulary

Many of the words used in an educational setting are different from those used for everyday interactions. These are the words that allow adults (both tutors and learners) to talk and think in an academic way. This academic vocabulary is particularly used for reading and writing, but also for listening and speaking.

Academic words are likely to be more than one syllable long and to be abstract rather than concrete. These words express abstract notions (for example, *ideology, capacity* and *phenomenon*), descriptions (for example, *ethnic* and *compatible*), processes (for example, *decline* and *trend*) and aspects of academic tasks (for example, *define, demonstrate* and *contrast*).

The basic vocabulary (consisting of approximately 2,000 word families[11]) that most learners have needs to be expanded to include useful words that will be encountered across a wide range of written and oral academic texts. This is best done through explicit instruction, as well as through extended reading, listening and engaging in extended discussions. It is also interesting to note that half of the high-frequency words we use and two-thirds of all academic and specialised words are derived from Latin, French and Greek. This indicates the importance of learning the meanings of Latin, French and Greek roots, prefixes and suffixes.

For further information about how learning vocabulary, including information about word families, refer to *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy: Background Information*

Websites

Useful sites for vocabulary lists and related assessment tools are:

www.vuw.ac.nz/lals/research/awl/
(Coxhead, 2000: an academic word list)

www.wgtn.ac.nz/lals/resources/paul-nations-resources/vocabulary-lists

Listen with Understanding: Speak to Communicate: Vocabulary progressions

Knowledge of oral vocabulary means understanding the words in spoken language, as well as recognising them. It also includes knowing how words work in relation to each other and within specific speaking contexts.

An important aspect of speakers' and listeners' vocabulary knowledge concerns the appropriateness of word use, including correct pronunciation. This involves being sensitive to *register* (see glossary), and having knowledge of the rules of politeness in relevant cultural contexts, of idioms and figurative language, and of culture and customs. This complexity is reflected in these progressions as they describe the steps toward expertise in vocabulary knowledge and use. It is also important to recognise that for many adult learners, their oral vocabulary may be far greater than their reading or writing vocabulary. For example, learners who are used to listening and speaking on the marae or in meetings will bring a rich understanding of language (including vocabulary) to their learning.

11 Nation, I. S. P., 1996.

Read with Understanding: Vocabulary progression

A reader who encounters an unknown word for the first time has several options. One option is to skip the word. When encountering the occasional unknown word, a reader will often skip it if it does not affect the overall gist of the passage. The reader, however, does store away one or more aspects of the word (that is, they remember something about the word; perhaps a spelling pattern or the context in which the word occurred). The reader may also search for familiar word patterns, such as known prefixes or word roots. After each encounter with the word, the reader stores away more information until eventually the word is known. Multiple exposures to a word are essential if the word is to become part of an individual's vocabulary. Nagy and Scott (2000) cite research showing that, after forty encounters with a word, learners were still extending their knowledge of the word.

Approximately 2,000 high-frequency words[12] together with the academic words discussed on page 35 will provide almost all of the vocabulary needed for reading, although learners will sometimes need to learn some low-frequency specialised words for particular reasons.[13]

Studies of vocabulary have shown that understanding a basic 2,000 word vocabulary of high-frequency items (which includes very many word families) enables a person to understand approximately 80 percent of the words in an academic text.[14] At this level, however, the learner will probably not be able to extend their word knowledge independently: learners typically need to understand 95 percent of the words before they can successfully guess the meanings of unknown words.[15]

Adult learners may have an oral vocabulary that is much larger and more sophisticated than their reading or writing vocabulary. This means they have heard and can use in speaking, many more words than they can decode. As their decoding skills improve, the difference between their oral and reading vocabularies may decrease. In addition to this, explicit teaching of new vocabulary may be needed to ensure they are able to understand the longer, less familiar words they will meet in more sophisticated or specialised texts.

Write to Communicate: Vocabulary progression

Just as speakers need a wide vocabulary they can apply in many different situations, so too writers need to be able to draw on a very wide vocabulary if they are to convey their thinking to others. The progression for vocabulary describes how this learning develops as writers extend their vocabulary through repeated encounters with words, and through opportunities to express themselves in increasingly complex tasks or purposes, with accuracy and clarity.

Language and Text Features

General information

There is a progression for Language and Text Features in all four strands. Language features include the way words work in sentences (for example, as verbs, nouns, adjectives, or adverbs), the forms of words (for example, past, present and future tense forms or singular and plural forms), the rules of grammar that govern how words are put together to form phrases, clauses and sentences, and the length and complexity of sentences. Features of texts (which vary depending on the form or type of text) include the different parts of a text and the cohesive devices, such as sequencing, that link the parts.

12 Nation, I. S. P., 1996.
13 Coxhead and Nation, 2001.
14 Coxhead, 2000.
15 Nation, I. S. P., 2001.

Every speaker and writer makes their own individual choices about the vocabulary that is appropriate to the situation and about the style or "voice" they want to use. They adapt their style according to how they want to be perceived by the audience and they choose an appropriate register. The term register may be used to mean the kind of language that is familiar and expected in a particular text type. For example, "The Board of Trustees wants to advise all parents and whānau that ..." is in a very different register from "Hey Mere, did you know that ...". The term can also be used to describe the way in which a speaker or writer chooses vocabulary, grammar, features relating to the patterns of stress and intonation, or visual language features for a particular purpose and audience.

Listen with Understanding, Speak to Communicate: Language and Text Features progression

The listening strand describes an increasing ability to understand more complex vocabulary, grammar and types of oral discourse (which may include text types in oral form, such as recounts or information reports). It also describes an increasing ability to understand the vocabulary, grammar and other language features associated with less personal and familiar topics. It includes body language and *prosodic* features (see glossary). The speaking strand shares these focuses and also recognises that speakers need to develop a repertoire of oral language features and oral text forms so that they can tailor their speaking to match their audience, purpose and the situation.

Read with Understanding: Language and Text Features progression

The reading progression for Language and Text Features reflects the fact that a good knowledge of these features helps readers to read with understanding. (For example, readers who understand the features of instruction texts know to look for the words that indicate the order in which the steps should be done.) Written texts may also include visual language features such as headings, illustrations, diagrams or tables. The features of written texts vary depending on the form or type of text and include the length and layout of the text, the different parts of the text and the cohesive devices, such as the sequencing of paragraphs, that link the text.

Write to Communicate: Language and Text Features progression

As they gain experience and develop expertise with reading and writing, writers increase their choices of words, sentence structures, metaphors and other language features. They learn how these features can be manipulated to reflect their own voice and to create a particular effect. Written texts may also include visual language features such as headings, illustrations, diagrams or tables.

Developing expertise in using written text types

As they develop expertise in the writing process, writers develop knowledge of the generic (typical) patterns of various text types and they bring these patterns to mind as they write. Writers use their knowledge of generic patterning at three levels:

- to inform the overall structure of the text
- to help shape the ideas in the text
- to decide on the appropriate language items to use.

Comprehension

General information

The two receptive language strands are both about understanding language, and comprehension involves using comprehension strategies to understand language at more than just surface level. The strategies listeners and readers use are similar in many (but not all) ways. Adult learners can often transfer skills in comprehending oral language to their written language and vice versa.

Listen with Understanding: Comprehension progression

Listening shares many characteristics with reading, particularly in relation to comprehension. However, listening does differ from reading and may be considered more demanding, partly because the majority of adults' listening is done "in the moment". This means that listeners may not be able to review what they hear, although they may ask the speaker (where present) for help when meaning breaks down. (An obvious exception is recorded speech that allows for replaying.)

Active listeners attend to oral information, clarify a purpose for listening and use listening strategies appropriate to that purpose. For example, they may listen to a speaker in order to get the gist of what they are saying (the overall general meaning), they may listen for a particular item of relevant information, or they may need to understand everything the speaker says. The comprehension strategies listeners use are similar to those used by readers. They include making connections with the speaker and between ideas, identifying and responding to the main ideas, summarising information and inferring information that has not been made explicit. Active listeners monitor their comprehension, using and adjusting strategies to overcome barriers or obstacles.

The variability of social, cultural and emotional contexts adds to the complexity of any listening task, particularly for adults who are not fluent in English. The listening strand includes the idea that these strategies are flexible and can be adapted for different purposes.

Listeners develop strategies for negotiating meaning with speakers. Initially, these may simply involve using well-known expressions (for example, "I don't get it" or "What do you mean?"). Later they extend to more sophisticated ways of communicating what the listener has understood and what further clarification or information they require (for example, "You said ..., but I'm not clear if you meant ... or ...").

Read with Understanding: Comprehension progression

Prerequisites for comprehension

In order to comprehend written texts, the reader needs to have some basic knowledge, strategies and awareness.

These include:

- the ability to decode print accurately and fluently
- prior knowledge about language, including vocabulary and sentence structures, and an awareness of when and how to use this knowledge
- prior knowledge and experiences of the world, including life experiences, content knowledge, background knowledge and knowledge about texts
- an awareness of their own processes and strategies as they approach reading.

The prior knowledge readers bring to any reading task will vary enormously: as well as differing amounts of knowledge about reading, learners will all have different prior knowledge ranging from very personal and everyday knowledge to broad and specialised knowledge. Schema theory (see the booklet *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy: Background Information*) seeks to explain how prior knowledge is used in learning. The theory suggests that individuals relate all new information to what they already know or have experienced. For readers (and writers) this includes prior knowledge about written texts, ranging from information about how words are spelled to information about the structure of a formal essay or the right format and language for a job application.

Reading comprehension strategies

Good readers use a range of comprehension strategies. They monitor their comprehension as they read and apply fix-up strategies (such as rereading) when they realise they have lost the meaning.

There is general agreement about the kinds of strategies readers employ to help them comprehend texts. Readers use the comprehension strategies singly or together in many different ways as they encounter new problems or ideas in texts.

The reading comprehension progression is based on the following set of reading comprehension strategies.

- *Activating prior knowledge or making connections*. Readers bring to mind the knowledge they already have about the world, words and texts, and they apply that prior knowledge to help them understand the new knowledge in a text.
- *Forming and testing hypotheses or making predictions*. Readers form expectations about texts before and during reading. Their expectations lead them to make predictions, which good readers will check as they read, to confirm or revise them against the new information they are gaining from the text. Hypotheses may be based on any aspect of the text, such as the text structure, the subject matter, the size and shape of a book, or the context or task within which the reading is required.
- *Identifying the main ideas*. Readers determine what the most important or central ideas in texts are. To do this, they draw on their prior knowledge and experience of the ways in which texts are structured (for example, knowing that newspaper articles often state the main idea in the first sentence), they infer meaning and decide on the relative importance of different parts of the text. Readers may also hypothesise about the ideas and synthesise different aspects of the text in order to identify the main ideas.
- *Using knowledge of text structure*. The way in which text is structured plays an important role in comprehension. Readers use what they already know or are learning about text structure to help them find their way through a text and comprehend new texts.
- *Summarising*. Readers make rapid summaries (rather like making mental notes) of what they are reading as they work through a text, checking for connections and clarification and using their knowledge of topics, vocabulary and text structure to find and connect important points.
- *Drawing inferences or reading between the lines*. Readers make educated guesses to fill in gaps as they read, inferring the information that the writer has not made explicit. To do this, readers draw on their background knowledge as well as the words on the page, making and testing hypotheses about what the writer probably intended.
- *Creating mental images or visualising*. Readers construct mental images as they read in order to picture the information or ideas in ways that help them connect with their own background knowledge. Readers also use mental images to help them see patterns, for example, in ideas or text structure, that will lead them to a deeper understanding of the text.
- *Asking questions of the text and searching for answers*. Most readers are constantly posing and answering questions in their heads while they read, as a strategy for understanding the text they are engaged with. Questions may relate to the meanings of words or sentences, the structure of the text as a whole, the plot or character development (in a story) or to any other aspect of the text and its context. Through asking questions, readers are able to form and test hypotheses, make inferences, summarise and co-ordinate the use of other comprehension strategies.

Planning, composing and using strategies to communicate

General information

Communicating is what language is all about and this includes listening, speaking, reading and writing. In the names of the strands for the progressions, however, the term *communication* is applied more specifically to productive language – Speak to Communicate and Write to Communicate. Writers, as well as speakers, use strategies to communicate and they both plan and compose the texts they produce. The different wordings reflect a difference in emphasis rather than a different process.

Speak to Communicate: Using Strategies to Communicate progression

A central need for adult learners is to be able to communicate information and ideas effectively. Speakers plan and make decisions about when and how to use particular language features or information in order to communicate their meaning or message clearly. They do this using strategies that are similar to those used by writers.

As they gain expertise, speakers are aware of their audience and can use verbal and non-verbal strategies to modify their communications as they speak.

The concept of fluency in spoken language is an important part of expertise in spoken language – it is described in the accompanying booklet, *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy: Background Information.*

Write to Communicate: Planning and Composing and Revising and Editing progressions

In order to meet the text-based demands of being a worker, a learner and a family and community member, adults need to communicate ideas and messages in writing. As they progress from beginner to expert writers, learners become more expert in using the various steps in the writing process.

The writing process

The writing progressions in this publication are based on the understanding that writers follow a recognisable and flexible process as they write – planning (deciding what to say and how to say it), composing (translating ideas into written text) and revising (improving existing text). Through these processes, writers solve new problems and construct new meanings. The writer may repeat any part of the writing process at any time. For example, revising can occur at any time during the process of composing and the writer's plan may change as the writing progresses. In the process of writing, learning takes place as the writer discovers or changes meanings.

Planning and composing. Planning is the part of the process in which a writer has an awareness of wanting to convey something in writing at the very least. At the early stages of development, writers may need strong support or scaffolding (such as writing frames) in order to plan. As the writer develops expertise, these supports can be gradually removed. Expert writers have plans that are flexible and they take time to pause and think as they plan. A writer's plans can change as the writing continues. The learning progressions reflect the development of independence, flexibility and expertise in planning for writing.

Beginner writers usually have little knowledge of composition to draw on beyond a basic knowledge of content, vocabulary and language features. The writer simply puts basic information or ideas directly into written text and may not monitor to check whether the ideas are well developed and make sense. As their expertise develops, writers are able to bring together what they know about the content and what they know about the language and text structures they can use to convey it. Where beginner writers translate their thoughts directly into written form, expert writers move between the content and the form of the text, drawing on an extensive knowledge of content, vocabulary, grammar, text features, audience and text types.

Revising and editing. As expert writers compose, they are constantly reviewing what they write against their purpose, plans and goals. They are able to judge what to change and how to do it as they strive to convey their messages clearly and effectively. Many beginner writers are not aware of the need to review by rereading or, if they do reread their work, they are not sure what they are looking for. They may be unaware of the quality of what they have written, focusing instead on getting the surface features right. They may correct surface features (such as spelling and punctuation) if they reread, but they may miss obvious errors in meaning because they often tend to read what they intended to write rather than what they have actually written.

Expert writers also proofread their work, checking for legibility, spelling, grammar and punctuation. More importantly, they review their writing as a whole, checking, restructuring and adjusting the text to make sure it matches their intentions.

The use of technology for writing extends the options available to adult learners. Email, text messaging and writing for the Internet all provide learners with engaging contexts for writing. Each form has its own rules and constraints, as well as providing fast access to a wider audience than print forms. Computers can support writing development because they enable users to revise their text quickly and easily. Computer spelling and grammar checks provide non-threatening tools for checking accuracy. Learners may need some instruction in using these tools.

Listening and reading critically

General information

Texts are never neutral. The values and beliefs of the writer or speaker affect the messages that are communicated. For this reason, it is important for adult learners to develop the skills for thinking critically about the texts they read, view, or hear. Thinking critically involves analysing and interpreting meanings, responding critically to texts when reading and listening, and being critically aware when writing and speaking. Adult learners develop their awareness of speakers' and writers' different perspectives and purposes in order to gain deeper levels of meaning, to avoid being manipulated by writers and speakers and to gain insights and enjoyment from the texts they engage with.

Listen with Understanding: Listening Critically progression

Listening includes the development of critical thinking, leading eventually to the listener being able to evaluate a speaker's purpose, assess how well they have met that purpose, decide how valid and reliable the information is and identify the speaker's attitude or bias.

The progression for Listening Critically describes development from having a limited awareness of purpose and audience to having well developed skills of reflection, analysis and evaluation. In order to listen critically, adult learners need first to be able to understand the sense of oral discourse. Basic listening skills and strategies, including comprehension strategies, are needed before the listener is in a position to be more critical about what they hear. This does not mean that critical listening has to wait for adult learners to be ready in some way. All adults will be able to relate to some of the ways in which spoken language (such as a powerful speech, a "hard sell", or a coaxing invitation) is used to achieve a particular purpose with a specific audience in mind.

Read with Understanding: Reading Critically progression

Reading includes the development of critical thinking, which leads to the reader being able to evaluate a writer's purpose, assess how well they have met that purpose, decide how valid and reliable the information is and identify the writer's attitude or bias.

All the learning progressions in the strand Read with Understanding (except Decoding) include the idea of thinking critically in that each describes development from having only a limited awareness of purpose and audience to having well developed skills of reflection, analysis and evaluation.

Basic reading skills and strategies, including comprehension strategies, are needed before the reader is in a position to apply a more critical eye to a text. This does not mean that critical reading has to wait for adult learners to be ready in some way. All adults will be able to relate to some of the ways in which written and visual language (such as an amusing television advertisement, a strongly worded letter to the editor, or a clear set of instructions) is used to achieve a particular purpose with a specific audience in mind.

Interactive speaking and listening

Listen with Understanding and Speak to Communicate: Interactive Speaking and Listening progression

The Interactive Speaking and Listening progression, which is identical in the two strands Speak to Communicate and Listen with Understanding, describes the learning a person needs to undertake in order to become an active participant in the most dynamic of speaking and listening situations, face-to-face interaction. The progression focuses on four particular kinds of speaking skills:[16]

- *Skills in managing an interaction*. These can include taking the floor, interrupting, redirecting a conversation, agreeing while disagreeing, reiterating a point of view and closing a discussion. Other examples include hesitating and withholding a turn.
- *Skills in negotiating meaning*. These skills are important for all adults. Participants negotiate meaning by using communication strategies to ensure they have expressed or understood meaning clearly. (The negotiation of meaning that can occur around face-to-face interactions is an excellent context for ESOL learners who are working to improve their language knowledge.)
- *Skills in using appropriate conversational formulas and fillers*. Effective speakers and listeners are able to give and respond to feedback, using such oral language forms as appropriate formulas (for example, "How are you?"), conversation fillers (for example, "I'll never forget...") and evaluative comments (for example, "Great idea!"), as well as repetition.
- *Skills in taking short and long speaking turns*. These skills enable people engaging in conversations to take speaking turns of increasing length and complexity. Such speaking skills are a mark of expertise. They are more likely than the other kinds of speaking skills to be constrained by a speaker's lack of language knowledge because they cannot be based on memorised or formulaic oral language.

16 Nunan, 1989.

The research base

The research that has underpinned the development of the learning progressions is described in a companion booklet, *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy: Background Information*. This booklet sets out the reasons for using a continuum model and explains why particular progressions are sequenced in particular ways. It discusses the nature of adult learners and adult learning and looks at the particular needs of ESOL learners with regard to English language and literacy learning.

The companion booklet also contains the research base for the progressions for listening, speaking, reading and writing, as well as the numeracy progressions.

A note on ESOL learners

These progressions have not been primarily developed for use by people learning English as a second or additional language. They do not reflect all the elements of learning that are needed by second language learners or those who are at a preliterate stage of learning English.

However, the progressions are potentially useful and relevant to these learners and their teachers. Refer to *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy: Background Information* for information about how the progressions relate to the needs of those in English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) programmes.

References

For a fuller reference list, including the key works that underpin this document, refer to the reference list in the companion booklet, *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy: Background Information*

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Glossary

Academic words	Words that express specific ideas or instructions and are scholarly rather than specialised or practical. Academic words are those most often heard in education or theoretical contexts, for example, *conclusive, methodology, controversial*.
Acronym	A word or term formed from the initial letters of other words, for example, *NZQA, TPK*.
Alphabetic principle	The understanding that written letters of the alphabet represent specific spoken sounds.
Automatically	Without having to think about it, for example, decoding whole words or phrases without needing to sound out individual letters or syllables.
Clause	A group of words that includes a subject and a verb, for example, "the door closes". A sentence may have one or more clauses.
Cognition, cognitive	Cognition means the process of acquiring knowledge; cognitive skills are the skills used in acquiring knowledge.
Coherent	The way in which the meanings and sequences of ideas combine to make meaning. A text is coherent when the words, structures and sequences of ideas work together effectively to create a meaningful whole for a listener or reader.
Cohesion (of a text)	The way in which the various parts of a text, such as the ideas and sentences, are linked together. This can be achieved in many ways, for example, by using lexical chains (words with linked meanings placed throughout the text), by using pronouns that refer back to a noun used earlier, by omitting unneeded words that the reader can supply from the context (ellipsis), or by using verb tenses to remind the reader that the action continues to be in the past.
Cohesive devices	There are many devices that speakers and writers can use to make a text more cohesive. They include lexical chains, pronoun references and ellipsis. They build on the prior experience or schemas that listeners and readers bring to listening or reading.
Collocation	A set of two or more words that are often used together, such as *heavy drinker* or "See you later".
Colloquial language	Informal language, often involving such well-known idioms as "He's onto it!" or "Everything's ka pai".
Complex sentence	A sentence in which there is more than one clause and one of the clauses is subordinate to another, for example, "When I was walking home [subordinate clause], I met Hone" [main clause]. A complex sentence often includes phrases as well as one or more subordinate clauses.
Compound word	Two or more words that function as a single unit of meaning, for example, *steamroller* and *wallpaper*.

Compound sentence	A sentence containing at least two main clauses joined by conjunctions, for example, "I like mussels, but Tania likes pipis."
Concepts about print	Ideas about or knowledge of the conventions of written texts. Key concepts about written English texts include: • that text is read from left to right with a return sweep to the left of each new line • that print on the left-hand page or column is read before print on the right-hand page or column • that written sentences start with capital letters and end with full stops • that the spacings between words, sentences, lines of print and paragraphs follow a meaningful pattern.
Connotations	The common associations of a word, for example, the word *pig* has connotations of *dirty* and *greedy*).
Content (of a text)	The ideas or information contained within a text.
Critical awareness (of texts)	An active awareness of different perspectives and purposes for speaking and writing and of how these shape texts, for example, awareness that a writer may place the information they want to draw attention to at the beginning of their text.
Decode	To decode means to read words by translating the written symbols into the sounds of spoken language (often silently).
Denotation	The use of a word to name a defined thing, for example, a *pig* meaning a specific kind of animal with four legs, two ears and so on.
Dialogue	A conversation between two or more people.
Digraph	A combination of two letters that represent one sound, for example, *ea* in *bread*, or two letters that represent a sound that is not a combination of the two individual sounds, for example, *ch, sh*.
Discourse	Language beyond the level of the sentence. The word *discourse* can refer to both spoken and written language. However, these progressions use it mainly for spoken language, because it captures the fact that a lot of spoken language is often unpredictable. For example, although the language used to open and close a telephone conversation may follow a predictable pattern, the middle section with the key messages generally does not.
Discourse marker	A word or phrase in a text that helps the listener or reader to follow the relationships between the parts of a text, for example, "First ... finally", "Of course", "but, on the other hand ...".
Effective interactions	Interactions that achieve their intended purpose, for example, reaching a mutual understanding.

Ellipsis	The omission of words from a sentence; in grammar, the term ellipsis conveys that implied words are omitted, for example, "Yes I will" [answer the phone]. In punctuation, the term means three dots showing that some text is missing, for example, "Yes, I'd love to, but ..."
Encode (in writing)	To write (that is spell) words and common symbols from spoken language in the symbols (letters and punctuation marks) of written language.
Everyday words	High-frequency words that are commonly used in a wide range of everyday contexts and are not technical or academic, for example, *house, wait, decide, happy.*
Extended vocabulary	A vocabulary that goes beyond the basic words associated with a context or topic, for example, within the topic of cars, *tyre* could be considered a basic vocabulary item while *tread* is more extended.
Figurative language	Language that uses images to build meaning without literal description and often without direct comparison, for example, by using metaphor "My heart wept for you".
Flow	To move forward steadily and continuously without abrupt changes or interruptions.
Fluent, fluency	A speaker, reader or writer is fluent (demonstrates fluency) when they can speak, read or write rapidly and accurately, focusing on meaning without having to give laborious attention to the individual words or the common forms and sequences of the language.
Formulaic phrases or expressions	Common phrases or expressions that are learned and used as whole units rather than as individual words, for example, "How are you?" or "See you later."
Generative principles (of word formation)	The principles that allow new words to be formed (generated) from root words, for example, by adding endings to form plurals (*horse, horses*) or different tenses (*walk, walked*).
Genre	See Text type.
Gist	The substance or general idea of an oral or written text, without all of the details.
Graphic organiser	A template that writers can use to help them organise a text, for example, an electronic text file with spaces for an introduction, main points, and details and a conclusion.
Grammatical constructions	The ways words and sentences are arranged according to the rules of grammar, for example, in English the passive verb form *be* + past participle is used to show that the subject of the sentence is not the agent of the verb, but rather receives the action. It is incorrect to say "The wharenui is building", the correct grammatical construction is "The wharenui is being built".
High-frequency words	The 2,000 words most frequently used by English language speakers.

Infer	To read between the lines and understand something that is not stated explicitly.
Integrate (strategies)	To use multiple strategies in combination, for example, by making inferences when reading and drawing on prior knowledge as well as information from the text to assess these inferences.
Interactions	Reciprocal actions or communications, for example, where two or more people engage in oral or written discussion or conversation.
Intonation	The way a speaker's voice rises and falls, for example, a speaker's voice may fall at the end to express authority ("Stop that **now**") or the speaker can give what is said a particular meaning or feeling, for example, "Sue's here?" with a rising intonation is a question, whereas "Sue's here" with a falling or flat intonation is a statement.
Language device	A language feature used by a speaker or writer to create a particular effect, for example, the use of language forms such as *is likely to* and *may* to modify statements and show reasonableness, accuracy and objectivity in an academic argument.
Letter-sound correspondence	The way certain letters or letter combinations in written language correspond to or represent certain sounds in spoken language.
Media	Forms of communication, for example, print media, digital media and electronic media.
Metacognition, metacognitive	Terms used to describe the processes learners use to think and talk about their own learning, articulating what they know, what they can do and how they can apply their learning in new contexts. As learners make their learning explicit to themselves and others, they develop their awareness of their learning and how to develop as learners.
Morpheme	The smallest unit of meaning in a word. For example, the word *jumped* contains two morphemes, *jump-*, meaning *to leap* and *-ed*, meaning *in the past*.
Negotiating meaning	Communicating with the intention of reaching a better understanding of another speaker or writer, for example, asking and answering questions such as "Do you mean ...?", "Why did you say ...?"
Non-verbal methods of communicating	Ways of communicating that do not require the use of words, such as gestures, facial expressions and the use of pictures or mime.
Onset and rime	The initial sound (the onset) and the following sound (the rime) in a syllable, for example, *sh/op, th/ink* and *scr/ap*. Note that *rime* is not the same as *rhyme*, which is when two words share the same rime in their final syllable, for example, *sh/op, dr/op* and *lo/lli/pop*.
Oral text	A spoken text (see also Text).
Pace	The speed of a written or spoken Text.

Perspective	A particular point of view.
Phoneme	The smallest segment of sound in spoken language, for example, *pot* and *knife* have three phonemes.
Phonemic awareness	The awareness of individual sounds in spoken language and that these sounds can be represented by letters or groups of letters in written language.
Phonological awareness	The awareness of different levels in the sound system of spoken language – word, syllable, onset and rime, and phoneme.
Phrase	A group of words that forms part of a sentence but does not express a complete thought, for example, *as happy as anything* (adjectival phrase) or *a unique and unexpected experience* (noun phrase).
Pitch	The degree of highness or lowness of a speaker's tone.
Prefix	A word part that can be added at the beginning of a base or root word to alter its meaning, for example, *un-* can be added to the word *kind* to make *unkind*.
Prior knowledge/ learning	What a person already knows (the knowledge they bring to a spoken or written text).
Progression	A set of steps along a continuum, each step representing a significant learning development.
Prosodic features	Features relating to the patterns of stress and intonation in spoken language.
Purpose (of a text)	The intended effect of a speaker's or writer's spoken or written text, for example, to seek or communicate information, to entertain, or to express opinion.
Register	An expert speaker or writer chooses the appropriate register for the situation, bearing in mind what is taking place, who is taking part and what part language is playing. The term register may be used with a very specific meaning, that is, the kind of language that is familiar and expected in a particular social or work setting. For example, "Would you mind kindly stepping this way?" is spoken in a very different register from "Get over here right now!" and there are differences in the underlying as well as surface meanings. The term can also be used to describe the way in which a speaker chooses vocabulary, grammar, prosodic features such as tone and other language features for a particular purpose and audience.
Rhetorical pattern	A language pattern used to create a particular effect, for example, patterns of repetition or pauses in oratory; patterns that indicate a connection such as cause and effect in oral and written text.
Rhyme	(Of two or more words) To share the same, or a very similar, final syllable, for example, *pill, will* and *still*. Sometimes words that rhyme may only share the same rime (final sound) in their final syllables, for example, *lollipop* and *drop*.
Rime	See Onset and rime.

Root word	The original base word from which one or more other words have been formed, for example, the root of *original* is the Latin word *origo, origin-*, meaning "to rise".
Sentence structure	The arrangement of words and phrases to create sentences. Sentences may be simple ("I'm a Kiwi"), compound ("I'm a Kiwi but I come from Australia"), or complex ("I'm a Kiwi from New Zealand, which is a small country in the South Pacific").
Sight words	Words that a reader knows and can read automatically, rather than needing to decode them.
Specialised words	Words that are used for a specific subject or context, for example, a technical context (*specifications, two-by-four*).
Static visual texts	Visual texts that feature still images (as in a poster) rather than moving images (as in a television advertisement).
Strand	A strand of thread is made up of many individual fibres. In the same way, each strand of adult learning progressions is made up of several progressions, which together describe the development of expertise within the strand.
Strategy	The deliberate application of knowledge and/or skills in a particular way to solve a problem, for example using prior knowledge of the topic to test whether the decoding of a text makes sense.
Stress (on spoken words)	Stress means the way the speaker indicates meaning by emphasising certain words and syllables rather than others, for example, "Morehu told you he **resigned**?" with the stress or emphasis on *resigned* expresses surprise that Morehu resigned, but with the stress on *told* or *you* expresses surprise that Morehu told you.
Style	A distinctive way of speaking or writing.
Suffix	A word part that can be added at the end of a base or root word to alter its meaning, for example, *-ly* and *-est* can be added to the word *kind* to make *kindly* and *kindest*.
Syllable	A segment of a word, often a vowel sound with initial or final, or initial and final consonant sounds. Words may consist of one syllable, for example, *dog, on, brought, play,* or more than one syllable, for example, *to/day, de/ci/sion*, *ce/le/bra/tion*.
Symbol	A graphic or literary image that represents a particular concept, for example, a picture of a skull and crossbones often represents danger or that something is poisonous and, in English literature, images associated with spring (blossoms, daffodils, lambs) often represent youth, new life or new beginnings.
Syntactic functions	The roles of particular kinds of words (for example, verbs, nouns and prepositions) in a sentence.

Synthesise information	To draw two or more pieces of information together to create a new understanding that includes elements from varied sources. Many academic texts, for example, include information from many other sources and this information is used according to the writer's purpose, such as to support the writer's argument.
Text	A piece of spoken, written or visual communication that is a whole unit, for example, a conversation, a speech, a poem or a poster.
Text form	The form in which a particular example of a text type appears. For example, a poem, a magazine article and a letter to the editor are all text forms. Each of these could also be any one of a number of text types. A magazine article, for example, could be an argument or a recount.
Text type (genre)	A particular kind of text, with particular conventions and generic patterns linked to the purpose of the text. The patterning may show itself in the overall structure of the text and in the ideas and language features. For example, if a writer's purpose is to recount something that happened in the past, we can anticipate that they will cover a series of events in chronological order. Written texts may consist of more than one text type, for example, a text about the sport of rugby may include both a report explaining the sport and a recount of a particular game.
Tone	Modulation of the voice or phrasing of a written text to express the attitude or feeling that the speaker or writer wants to convey to the intended audience, for example, the tone of voice used by a speaker could be angry, friendly or serious. The term "tone" is sometimes used in the sense of intonation.
Utterances	A segment of spoken language that is seen as complete within the context of the discourse and usually has pauses or silence before and after. It may be one word, or a phrase, or a sentence, for example, "Hi", "At home" (a response to a question), or "That's a nice shirt."
Validity	The degree to which an assertion can be supported by evidence.
Visual text	A text in which visual elements predominate words. It may use static images, as in a poster, or moving images, as in a video (see also Text).
Vocabulary	The words in a language. There are different ways to count vocabulary items, but the vocabulary of a language is often based on the number of words or phrases with specific meanings. For example, different forms of a verb (word family) are equal to one vocabulary item, as is a compound word or expression such as "shoot the breeze".

Voice	The personal characteristics in a spoken or written text (including tone, register, style and text features) through which the listener or reader can identify either a particular speaker or writer, or the kind of person that the writing suggests the writer is, for example, using *like* as a filler "... and she was, like, really mad" could be seen to suggest the voice of an adolescent or teenage girl (although voice may also be assumed as a device of a writer).
Word family	A group of words that share a common base or root word, for example, *run, ran, runner, running* or *care, careless, carefree, uncaring.*
Writing frame	A template or graphic organiser designed to support writers. For example, a writing frame may use headings or sentence starters with lines for the writer to enter information or ideas. A bank deposit form is one kind of writing frame.

Strand charts

Listen with Understanding

	VOCABULARY PROGRESSION	LANGUAGE AND TEXT FEATURES PROGRESSION
	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:
	• have a listening vocabulary of common nouns, verbs and familiar phrases they understand • identify words and phrases in running speech.	• understand short conversations and other simple spoken language that uses formulaic expressions and simple structures.
	• identify words and phrases and understand many of the words in fast speech • be aware that many words may have more than one meaning and notice when a word is used with an unfamiliar meaning.	• understand spoken conversations and other simple spoken language that uses some complex structures • understand spoken conversations and other simple spoken language even when the speakers pause, repeat themselves, or make false starts.
	• have a listening vocabulary of everyday words and some less common words • understand when a speaker uses simple figurative language, such as metaphor, symbolism or irony, for effect • identify the connotations (common associations) of familiar words.	
	• have a listening vocabulary that includes some general academic words and some specialised words.	• understand more complex spoken conversations and other simple discourse including some less-familiar oral text types • recognise the language features used to establish coherence in such discourse.
	• have a listening vocabulary that includes many general academic words and specialised words • understand when a speaker uses more complex figurative language, for example, by talking about the Earth as if it were a woman (personification) • understand when a speaker uses words, for effect, that have particular connotations.	• recognise language features in complex extended discourse and understand the ways in which speakers use these features to achieve a purpose.

COMPREHENSION PROGRESSION	LISTENING CRITICALLY PROGRESSION	INTERACTIVE LISTENING AND SPEAKING PROGRESSION
MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:
• listen for the gist or for specific information in simple speech in very familiar situations • ask for repetition or a change of pace if necessary • make connections with their own knowledge to improve their understanding.	• have some awareness of people's different purposes for speaking • be aware that all speakers have a perspective (point of view).	• respond to and use simple formulaic expressions in spoken language.
• listen for the gist or for specific information in some connected discourse on familiar topics • have an awareness of what to do and how to do it when comprehension breaks down • use some comprehension strategies.	• recognise the purposes and possible uses of different kinds of connected discourse • have some awareness of their own purposes for listening.	• respond to and use skills and appropriate language to manage simple interactions and negotiate meaning • respond to and use some non-verbal methods to monitor the effectiveness of interactive communication • have an awareness of the conventions for taking part in interactions in familiar social and cultural settings, for example, during telephone conversations.
• listen for the gist or for specific information in more complex discourse • use a range of comprehension strategies • use knowledge of what to do and how to do it when comprehension breaks down • understand discourse on familiar topics.	• think critically about the ideas and language as they listen, in order to understand, evaluate and respond appropriately and meet the listening purpose • use strategies to compare and evaluate information and ideas.	• respond to and use more sophisticated skills and appropriate language to monitor and improve the effectiveness of interactions • respond to and use variations in tone of voice, intonation and stress (for example, the stress placed on specific words or sentences) • recognise and use the vocabulary and other language features that mark the register appropriate to the topic, audience and context.
• understand discourse on less familiar topics.	• think about underlying meanings in order to understand not only the sense of the words, but also the intent of the speaker.	
• understand discourse on a range of topics beyond everyday contexts and immediate experiences • listen for the gist or for specific information in a wide range of oral texts • use comprehension strategies selectively and flexibly • use a range of strategies when comprehension breaks down in different listening situations.	• use strategies to analyse ideas and information and to consider meaning critically • evaluate the truth, relevance or usefulness of information in relation to the speaker's (or the listener's) purpose.	• respond to and use appropriate skills and language to manage interactions in an increasing range of formal and informal settings • respond to and use variations in tone of voice, intonation and stress • respond to and use an awareness of the rules for taking part in interactions in a wide range of familiar and unfamiliar work, academic, social, community and cultural contexts.
• understand discourse on a range of unfamiliar topics in a variety of contexts.	• use a wide range of strategies to reflect critically on purpose and meaning • evaluate a speaker's point of view, attitude, bias or agenda • have an understanding of the methods that speakers can use for specific purposes.	

Speak to Communicate

	VOCABULARY PROGRESSION	LANGUAGE AND TEXT FEATURES PROGRESSION
	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:
	• use a range of words, formulaic expressions and familiar phrases related to everyday topics and personal experiences.	• take part in short spoken conversations and speak by themselves using formulaic phrases and simple structures.
	• have a limited vocabulary that includes words and phrases related to common, everyday topics and personal experiences • choose appropriate vocabulary (including polite forms of words and expressions) for different contexts and audiences.	• take part in spoken conversations and use a few oral text types, such as simple instructions and descriptions • speak using some complex phrases and structures.
	• have an extended vocabulary that relates to familiar topics and personal experiences • have a knowledge of the collocations (words that commonly go together) of many words • be able to use some words and phrases with figurative as well as literal meanings • choose appropriate vocabulary for different contexts and audiences.	
	• have an extended vocabulary that includes some general academic and some specialised words.	• use complex sentence structures and more complex language features to express a point of view in spoken conversations and in more complex oral text types • use appropriate language features to establish coherence in connected discourse.
	• have an extended vocabulary that includes words related to work, personal, community, social and academic contexts.	• use complex sentence structures and extend their use of language features to achieve particular purposes.

USING STRATEGIES TO COMMUNICATE PROGRESSION	INTERACTIVE LISTENING AND SPEAKING PROGRESSION
MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:
• communicate information and thoughts in familiar, predictable situations.	• respond to and use simple formulaic expressions in spoken language.
• select and communicate information, ideas and thoughts, using appropriate words and phrases with some fluency on very familiar topics • monitor and modify speech to improve the clarity and effectiveness of the communication.	• respond to and use skills and appropriate language to manage simple interactions and negotiate meaning • respond to and use some non-verbal methods to monitor the effectiveness of interactive communication • have an awareness of the conventions for taking part in interactions in familiar social and cultural settings, for example, during telephone conversations.
• select and communicate information, ideas and thoughts, using appropriate vocabulary, expressions and grammar fluently and coherently on less familiar topics • use appropriate gestures, tone, pace and intonation to improve communication.	• respond to and use more sophisticated skills and appropriate language to monitor and improve the effectiveness of interactions • respond to and use variations in tone of voice, intonation and stress (for example, the stress placed on specific words or sentences) • recognise and use the vocabulary and other language features that mark the register appropriate to the topic, audience and context.
• select, organise and communicate information, ideas and thoughts, with some details and examples, when speaking on familiar and unfamiliar topics.	
• use a range of strategies to select, organise and communicate information, ideas and thoughts in extended discourse on a range of unfamiliar topics in a variety of contexts • monitor and modify speech to clarify or obscure a particular point of view, attitude, bias or agenda.	• respond to and use appropriate skills and language to manage interactions in an increasing range of formal and informal settings • respond to and use variations in tone of voice, intonation and stress • respond to and use an awareness of the rules for taking part in interactions in a wide range of familiar and unfamiliar work, academic, social, community and cultural contexts.

Read with Understanding

	DECODING PROGRESSION	VOCABULARY PROGRESSION
	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:
	• have a bank of sight words (words they recognise automatically) • use a few reliable strategies for decoding regularly and irregularly spelled everyday words in short, simple texts.	• have a reading vocabulary of everyday words, signs and symbols.
	• have a large bank of sight words • use several simple, reliable strategies for decoding everyday words in short texts with some fluency and accuracy • have some awareness of the accuracy of their decoding attempts.	• have a reading vocabulary of everyday words that includes some compound words • have a knowledge of word families that enables them to increase their reading vocabulary • be aware that many words have more than one meaning and notice when a word is used with an unfamiliar meaning • have some understanding of the purposes of acronyms and abbreviations • know some everyday signs and symbols.
	• use more complex, reliable strategies for decoding most everyday words with fluency and accuracy.	• have a reading vocabulary of everyday words and some less common words, acronyms and abbreviations • understand that some words and phrases can have figurative as well as literal meanings • have strategies for finding the meanings of unknown words, including a knowledge of how to find words in a dictionary and interpret definitions.
	• fluently decode more specialised words, including words of many syllables • monitor their reading for accuracy and sense.	• have a reading vocabulary that includes some general academic words and some specialised words • understand how word families can be generated (based on roots, prefixes and suffixes) and use this understanding to extend their vocabulary.
	• fluently decode more complex and/or irregular words, using strategies such as inferring the unknown from the known and analysing words (for example, by identifying morpheme patterns involving less common prefixes and suffixes) • decode most words automatically.	
	• decode unfamiliar words rapidly and automatically.	• have a large reading vocabulary that includes general academic words and specialised words and terms.

LANGUAGE AND TEXT FEATURES PROGRESSION	COMPREHENSION PROGRESSION	READING CRITICALLY PROGRESSION
MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:
• understand that groups of words work together in meaningful units.	• have some awareness of their purpose for reading • expect that texts will make sense • use strategies to read short, simple texts with support.	• have some awareness of the different purposes of visual and written texts • be aware that all readers and all writers have a perspective (point of view).
• understand short, simple texts that are made up of simple sentences and compound sentences • understand how capital letters and full stops are used to show where sentences begin and end • recognise some common text types • recognise some common visual text forms.	• use comprehension strategies to understand short, simple texts • use strategies to locate items of information in short, simple texts • have some awareness of what to do and how to do it when comprehension breaks down.	• recognise the purposes, levels of meaning and possible uses of different forms and types of written and visual texts • use strategies to compare and evaluate information from different sources.
• understand a variety of sentence structures and paragraph structures within more complex texts • be aware of how clauses can be combined and marked with commas, semicolons or colons within complex sentences • understand how simple clauses can be elaborated by adding words and phrases • recognise the features and structures of a wider range of text types • be aware of a range of visual text forms that can be combined with or included in written texts.	• use comprehension strategies to assist in understanding information or ideas in longer or more complex texts • use strategies to locate important information in texts • have an increasing awareness of what to do and how to do it when comprehension breaks down.	• identify writers' purposes and ways in which writers use ideas and language to suit their purposes • identify a variety of sources for specific information and use strategies to compare and evaluate information within or across different texts.
• understand a variety of sentence structures and paragraph structures across a wide range of complex texts • understand that the information in well constructed paragraphs includes both general and particular information, for example, a paragraph may move from a claim to reasons justifying the claim • be aware of rhetorical patterns that are common to many text types, such as descriptions of cause and effect • recognise the features and structures of a wide range of text types, including some specialised text types such as instruction manuals.	• use strategies to read an increasingly varied range of more complex texts for specific purposes • use strategies to locate, organise and summarise important information in texts • use strategies to gather and synthesise information from across a small range of texts • have increasing control over how they use comprehension strategies.	• use strategies to analyse ideas and information and to reflect critically on surface meanings and underlying meanings • evaluate the validity (truth) of information in relation to the writer's purpose and/or the reader's purpose.
	• select and integrate a wide range of comprehension strategies • have an awareness of how to use strategies and evaluate their effectiveness • use strategies to summarise and synthesise information across a wider range of more complex texts and for more complex purposes • integrate prior knowledge with new information within and across several different texts to deepen their understanding.	• use strategies confidently to reflect critically on meaning • evaluate a writer's point of view, attitude, bias or agenda • have an understanding of the language features used by writers for specific purposes.

Write to Communicate

	PURPOSE AND AUDIENCE PROGRESSION	SPELLING PROGRESSION	VOCABULARY PROGRESSION
	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:
	• have a simple purpose for writing, with one or more goals related to the text content (what the text will say).	• have a bank of high-frequency words they can write automatically and accurately • have in their spelling bank high-frequency words that have regular spelling patterns and irregular spelling patterns.	• use a range of everyday, highly familiar words and phrases to write simple texts.
		• have a large bank of words they can write automatically and accurately • use reliable strategies for spelling everyday words with some fluency and accuracy • have an awareness of the accuracy of their spelling attempts • use appropriate levelled dictionaries to check spelling attempts.	• have a writing vocabulary that is adequate for communicating meaning in everyday writing tasks • add detail to simple sentences, for example, by adding an adjective to a noun.
	• have purpose-related goals for writing and use them to help plan, compose and revise • begin to develop a sense of the audience (the reader) for whom they are writing.	• use with confidence strategies for spelling most everyday words with fluency and accuracy • use word analysis to spell common three and some four syllable words (for example, *hospital*, *information*).	• have an extended writing vocabulary related to their personal, work and community tasks • know about the connections between words, including collocations.
	• have an audience in mind and consider the appropriateness of the choices they make in relation to that audience.	• use strategies to spell more specialised words, including words of many syllables, with fluency • use knowledge of how more complex words are built (prefix + Latin root + suffix) to spell more advanced words • monitor their writing for accuracy and sense.	• have a specialised writing vocabulary related to a range of topics • know how to select vocabulary that is appropriate to the context • know that words can be formed based on roots, prefixes and suffixes, and use this knowledge to extend their writing vocabulary.
		• have developed the ability to spell a wide range of unfamiliar, less familiar, or recently learnt words rapidly and accurately.	
	• have a network of goals that relate to the purpose, the audience and the content • reflect on their purpose and audience as they compose and revise.		• have an extensive writing vocabulary of everyday and specialised words that relate to a wide range of topics and contexts.

	LANGUAGE AND TEXT FEATURES PROGRESSION	PLANNING AND COMPOSING PROGRESSION	REVISING AND EDITING PROGRESSION
	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:	MOST ADULTS WILL BE ABLE TO:
		• write single words and simple phrases to convey information in a readable draft • use a highly structured template or model to write a simple text on a very familiar topic.	• use basic revision strategies, with support, to edit their writing in response to feedback.
	• be able to use basic grammar and punctuation to construct short, simple sentences and compound sentences • use punctuation effectively to show where sentences begin and end • know and use the basic features of some common text types and visual text forms.	• write a short, comprehensible text using simple sentences, with support if necessary • use knowledge of text structure to identify and organise a limited number of ideas around a familiar topic.	• review and revise their writing by making a few simple changes to the content, based on rereading and feedback • make simple corrections to grammar, spelling and punctuation • use electronic or print-based tools to help them identify and correct errors.
	• use effective sentence structures and more complex punctuation to write more complex sentences with detail and elaboration • write longer texts that flow well and make sense • have and apply a knowledge of the features and structures of a wider range of text types.	• use simple planning strategies • use knowledge of text structure to organise a limited number of ideas in a few short, well-linked paragraphs with several supporting details and/or examples • write a simple, comprehensible text that conforms to an appropriate text type.	• review their writing in terms of its appropriateness for the intended audience, its coherence and flow, the word choices, the sentence structure and the structure of the text as a whole • make several simple changes to improve the text's coherence and the way the content is organised • proofread the text to correct the grammar, spelling and punctuation • use appropriate tools to aid proofreading.
		• use multiple planning strategies • use knowledge of text types and their structures to select appropriate text forms and media for the purpose • write text with some fluency, using a limited variety of complex sentence structures and rhetorical patterns • use strategies to select and incorporate relevant information or ideas from one or more sources • have an awareness of voice and know how to adapt their writing to express the voice they choose to use.	
	• use complex sentence and paragraph structures across a wide range of complex texts • use a full range of punctuation and discourse markers to communicate meaning • structure longer texts by using paragraphs and sub-headings to present information and ideas effectively.		• review the text to identify and address any problems, checking that the text meets its purpose and is likely to engage the intended audience • proofread the text using appropriate print or computer-based tools.
		• select from and use a range of tools (including computer tools) for overall planning and organisation • use their knowledge of text types, text structures and media to communicate information or ideas in the most effective ways • fluently write extended, coherent texts of various types with appropriate detail, using a variety of sentence and text structures.	• review texts to identify and address problems, add detail or modify the tone.

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