What to revise – How to revise.

- The following slides tell you what you need to revise.
- You should be revising for at least half an hour a day.
- You should split that time into short sections spaced practice.
- You should plan what you will revise choose what you find hardest first.
- You can decide what to revise by first doing some retrieval practice on the subject by thinking about/writing down/telling someone what you know already. This will show you what you need to focus on.
- Once you decide on what to revise use different ways of revising to help you remember.
- I have added a tick list for you to choose what to revise each day.
- I have added the information you need.
- You should decide how to revise and what to revise.

What I need to revise:

English Language Exams.

- Writing skills: see slide and help sheets.
- Reading skills: see slide and help sheets.

Literature Exams.

For your Literature texts, you need to refer to your notes. If your notes are of a poor quality, I recommend you buy revision guides to use for revision. The exam board is AQA. You can also look on revision websites such as SparkNotes and BBCBitesize.

'Romeo and Juliet'

'An Inspector Calls'

'A Christmas Carol'

Poetry Anthology – 'Power and Conflict'.

Writing Skills

- Sentence structures: simple, compound, subordinate and one word (SCS1)
- Paragraphs: Time Person Topic Place (TiPToP)
- Punctuation
- Discourse markers
- Purpose, audience and format (PAF) for planning.
- Formats: speech, article, letter, text for a leaflet and essay.
- Know SPAMROD for writing to describe.
- Know AFOREST for writing to persuade/argue/discuss.
- Know some other writing features so you can use them in your writing see
- You should practise planning for writing to describe, Paper 1 question 5, and persuade, paper 2 question 5.

Reading Skills

- PEEEL Paragraphs
- Know SPAMROD and AFOREST's effects.
- Know other writing features so you can identify them.
- Know the effects of other writing features so you can explain their effects – see glossary.
- Know what connotations are and be able to explain the effects.

'Romeo and Juliet'

Know the basic plot – what happens.

Know the structure - what happens in what order.

Know who the main characters are.

Know at least one quotation for each character.

Know some things about the context the play was written/set in.

Know about the writer's viewpoint – why he wrote the play.

Know at least two themes – what the play is really about.

'An Inspector Calls'

Know the basic plot – what happens.

Know the structure - what happens in what order.

Know who the main characters are.

Know at least one quotation for each character.

Know some things about the context the play was written/set in.

Know about the writer's viewpoint – why he wrote the play.

Know at least two themes – what the play is really about.

'A Christmas Carol'

Know the basic plot – what happens.

Know the structure - what happens in what order.

Know who the main characters are.

Know at least one quotation for each character.

Know some things about the context the play was written/set in. Know about the writer's viewpoint – why he wrote the play.

Know at least two themes – what the play is really about.

'Poetry'

At the very least you should:

Know the names of the poems

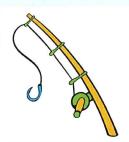
Know a word from each poem that you can analyse. (You can use the title.)

Know a writing feature from each poem that you can analyse. (what image is in your head for the poem and work from there.) Know a structural feature from each poem that you can analyse. (Does the poem rhyme or not?)

Writing to Describe

SPAMROD







Simile

Describing something is 'like' something else.

Example: She behaves like an angel.

Effect: Creates imagery – puts together two images and helps the reader understand more clearly.







Personification

- Giving an object human characteristics or emotions.
- Example: Love is blind.





 Effect: Because emotions are what drive us, we all understand them. They enable the reader to understand what the writer is trying to convey. Usually empathy or sympathy.

Alliteration

- Repetition of the first letter or sound of subsequent words.
- Example: Peter Piper picked a pickled pepper.
- Effect: Memorable, it sticks in your mind or it may reflect a rhythm the writer is trying to convey.





Metaphor

Describing something as if it were something else.

Example: She is an angel.

Effect: Imagery, two images are merged to create a more vivid effect.





Repetition

- Repeating words or phrases. Not always together.
- Example: Run, run, run!
- Effect: Memorable, can create tension, can highlight a point or bring the reader back to an idea that needs to be emphasised.



Onomatopoeia



- A word that sounds like the sound it represents.
- Example: Buzz, pop, crash and bang think about cartoon strips, onomatopoeia used in them all the time.
- Effect: Exciting, making the action feel immediate. like it is happening now or that the reader is there

Description using five senses

Sight, sound, smell, taste and touch.

- Using your five senses to describe a setting, event or anything else you can experience.
- Effect: Because we experience the world through our five senses, when we describe using them all we make our descriptions really vivid for the reader.

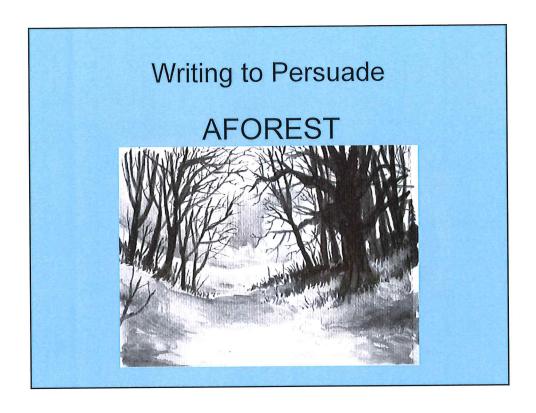


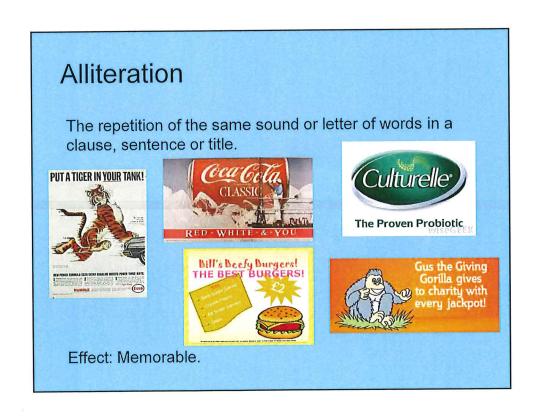












Address

The way you address the reader. Inclusive pronouns such as: we us and our. Or the opposite, them, they, your.



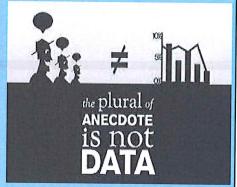


Effect: Inclusive pronouns suggest that you are 'in it together' and the speaker includes the reader. You, they, them suggests 'otherness' excluded or separate from the speaker.

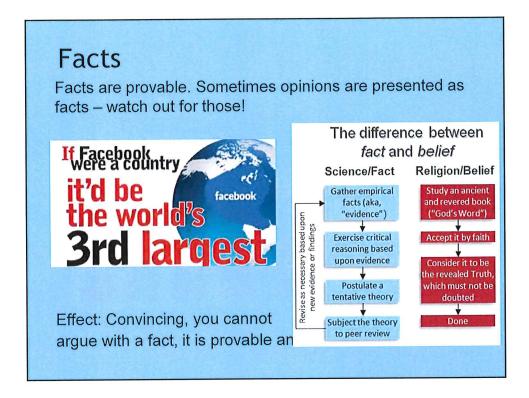
Anecdotes

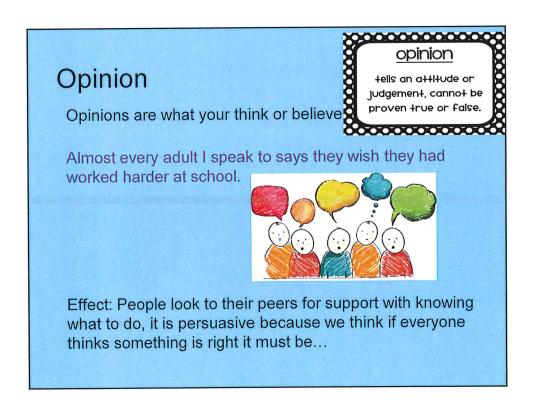
A short story, usually of personal experience, to make a point.





Effect: Seems more 'believable', we can empathise with a personal experience.





Repetition

Repeating a word, phrase, point. It can be together or spread throughout a text.





Effect: It grabs your attention and begins to stick in your mind. It persuades you by making you remember the point/product name.

Rhetorical Question

Usually defined as any question asked for a purpose other than to obtain the information the question asks.

For example, "Why are you so stupid?" is likely to be a **statement** regarding an opinion of the person addressed rather than a genuine request to know. Similarly, when someone responds to a tragic event by saying, "Why me, God?!" it is more likely to be an accusation or an expression of feeling than a realistic request for information.



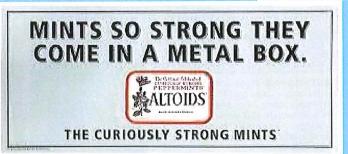
Effect: The reader will automatically think of the answer – usually the writer/speaker will have guided you to the answer they want before asking the question. This will persuade you they are correct.

Exaggeration/Hyperbole

Over the top description or statement.

Hyperbole

- Is when one exaggerates.
- We use hyperboles all the time when we want to impress or stress.



Effect: Emphasises the point. Makes it larger than life.

Emotive

The use of images, language or anecdotes to help the reader understand.

I found this poor dog was left in filthy, pitiful conditions, starving and shivering...

Effect: The reader will have an emotional response – anger, sympathy...This will persuade you to help or agree with the point being made.

Expert Opinion

This is like opinion but carries more weight because an 'expert' is telling you something. Dr Foster said.... Prof May tells us....

Prof May explained that drinking energy drinks is very bad for young people's livers.

GOVERNMENT WARNING: (1) According to the Surgeon General, women should not drink alcoholic beverages during pregnancy because of the risk of birth defects, (2) Consumption of alcoholic beverages impairs your ability to drive a car or operate machinery, and may cause health problems.

PEYTON MANNING'S
SPINE SURGERY
6 RECOVERY
DR. MICHAEL HISEY
Texas Back Institute

Effect: As with opinion, we look to others for advice, what could be better than an expert to tell us what is best to persuade us what to do or think?

Statistics

Like facts they are provable. However, be wary they can be manipulated! Statistics tend to be 8/10 or 99%.

99% of customers felt this was the best product in the range available.

Effect: As with facts they are difficult to argue with so are persuasive.

Triples

This is similar to repetition except it will not be exactly the same word or phrase. An idea will be presented three times but using different language.

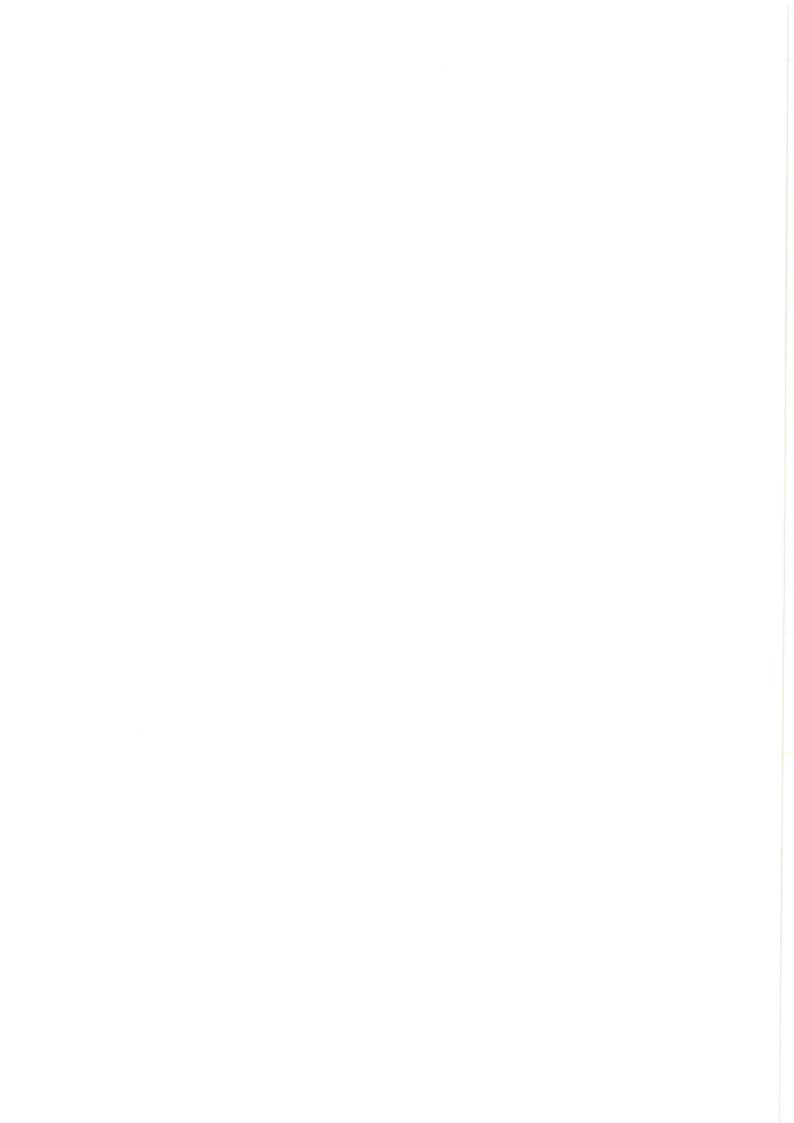
Do it fast, do it well, do it now!

Fox hunting is cruel, out-dated and evil!



KEEP CALM AND DO IT NOW

Effect: It really sticks in your mind. It is memorable, this helps persuade you.



DISCOURSE MARKERS

		sidt to stiqs al	
		sirli ot noitieoqqo nl	Likewise
		On the contrary	By the same token
seen		Correspondingly	For instance
Finally, it can be		Corresponding with this	For example
that		Yet	in the same way
We can conclude		Nonetheless	se isul
snq		ni betesti is created in	ье) true in
Therefore	aeen	In comparison	This can also be (seen to
Subsequently	After this it can be	On the other hand	in the same way
account	Finally	Nevertheless	Further more
ot ni nextet are extern in to	Lastly	On the contrary	What's more
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CONCLUDING	SEGUENCING	COUNTER	FURTHERING

DISCONGE MARKERS

CONCLUDING	SEGUENCING	COUNTER	FURTHERING
ARGUMENTS	ARGUMENTS	STNAMUDAA	ARGUMENTS
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Of course	In the first place	Conversely	sidt of nortibbs al
ylbətimbA	First and	However	ylistimi2
Certainly	foremost	dgwodilA	Equally
In conclusion	Vlinarily	On the other hand	Fikewise
Finally	Firstly	Whereas	os[A
Consequently	Secondly	When measured against	(sidt) as How aA
When all (of these)	ThirdT	Contrasting with	Moreover
factors are taken in to	Lastly	On the contrary	What's more
account	Finally	Nevertheless	Further more
Subsequently	After this it can be	On the other hand	In the same way
Therefore	я	In comparison	This can also be (seen to
sudT		The opposite effect is created in	ni etue in
We can conclude		Nonetheless	Just as
that		Yet	In the same way
Finally, it can be		Corresponding with this	For example
зееп		Correspondingly	For instance
	•	On the contrary	By the same token
		sid opposition to this of the	Likewise
		In spite of this	

 pe	Which is eviden becausecan be seen to true. We can see that This is obvious. Obviously	But Yet Yet However Alternatively Still Unless Unless By contrast Notwithstanding Rather	For example For instance Specifically With regards to To illustrate Such as In the words of (expert) According to (expert) According to (expert)	* .	Above all, Besentially Clearly Most of all Especially Primarily Particularly
三:	ENIDENC	TSAЯTMOD	ILLUSTRATION EXEMPLI FICATION	SI	SAHPHAS

Discourse markers

Discourse markers are words and phrases used in speaking and writing to 'signpost' discourse markers do this by showing turns, joining ideas together, showing attitude, and generally controlling communication. In speech, words like 'schuelly', 'so', 'OK', 'right?' and 'anyway' all function as discourse markers as they help the speaker to manage the conversation and mark when it changes. However, discourse markers are an important feature of both spoken & written English. The skilful use of discourse markers often indicates a higher level of fluency in both are and written English.

EVIDENCE Which is evident into be canse This is obvious Obviously	Contract But Despite Yet However Atill Atthough Otherwise Dy contrast Notwithstanding Rather	FICATION EXEMPLI FICATION For example For instance Specifically With regards to Such as La the words of (expert) According to (expert) According to (expert) As (expert) says	EMPHASIS Above all Essentially Most of all Especially Particularly In large
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Discourse markers

Discourse markers are words and phrases:used in speaking and writing to 'signpost' discourse. Discourse markers do this by showing turns, joining ideas together, showing attitude, and generally controlling communication. In speech, words like 'actually', 'so', 'OK', 'right?' and 'anyway' all function as discourse markers as they help the speaker to manage the conversation and mark when it changes. However, discourse markers are an important feature of both apole words and written English. The skilful use of discourse markers often indicates a higher level of fluency in both are and written English.

Glossary

Language Paper 1 and 2 Literature: Shakespeare Play, Modern Text & 19th Century Novel.

This has been split into three sections in order to focus your learning more specifically:

- Language features and devices mainly for the Language paper analyses.
- Structure for the language and literature analyses.
- Poetic features and devices for the Literature paper (Anthology and Unseen Poetry questions)
- Shakespeare

These are features you are likely to find in Shakespeare texts, but you may find them in others too!

These devices are not exclusive to the section they are in, you may well find poetic devices in the language papers and vice versa.

To help you prioritise your learning, the words are colour coded:

Red: If you don't know these, you are in trouble! You won't be able to pass your GCSE! Prioritise learning this vocabulary and definitions.

Green: you are making progress towards a good GCSE pass grade – well done!

Purple: you are aiming higher – excellent!

Language Analysis

SPAMROD / AFOREST devices. Know them all and their effects.

Word Classes and Sentence Structures:

word Classes and Sentence Structures:					
Term	Guidance	Example			
Noun (Common)	Used to describe a	Child, parents, home, toy, hand,			
	person, people, place,	table, computer, country, book,			
	thing or object. IF they	dog, tree			
	need a capital letter	Our <u>dog</u> bit the <u>burglar</u> on his			
	then it's a PROPER	<u>behind!</u>			
	NOUN.	My big <u>brother</u> did an amazing			
	ADJECTIVE describes	<u>jump</u> on his <u>skateboard</u> .			
	the NOUN: The table	<u>Actions</u> speak louder than <u>words</u> .			
	(noun) is wooden	Not nouns:			
	(adjective)	<i>He's <u>behind</u> you!</i> [this names a			
	Nouns are sometimes	place, but is a preposition, not a			
	called 'naming words'	noun]			
	because they name	She can <u>jump</u> so high! [this names			
	people, places and	an action, but is a verb, not a			
	'things'; this is often	noun]			
	true, but it doesn't	common, countable: a <u>book</u> ,			
	help to distinguish	<u>books</u> , two <u>chocolates</u> , one <u>day</u> ,			
	nouns from other	fewer <u>ideas</u>			
	word classes. For	common, non-countable: <u>money</u> ,			
	example, prepositions	some <u>chocolate</u> , less <u>imagination</u>			
	can name places and	proper, countable: Martino,			
	verbs can name	Manchester, Wednesday			
	'things' such as				
	actions.				
	Nouns may be				
	classified as common ,				
	proper and countable				
•	(e.g. <i>thing, boy</i>) or				
	non-countable (e.g.				
	stuff, money).				

Singular nouns	Refer to one person, place or thing	Wife, city, volcano, fox, church
Plural nouns	Refer to more than one person, place or thing. A plural noun normally has a suffix – s or –es and means 'more than one'. There are a few nouns with different morphology in the plural (e.g. mice, formulae).	Wives, cities, volcanoes, foxes, churches, dogs [more than one dog]; boxes [more than one box] mice [more than one mouse]
Proper nouns	Are the names of particular people, places or things. They are written with a capital letter	Ivan, Egypt, Tuesday, Manchester, February, Mr. Breeze, Africa, London, Easter, Buddhism, Mum, France, Paris
Abstract nouns	Are the names of something that holds no physical form and cannot be experienced by the 5 senses (smell, see, hear, taste, touch), it can only be recognized by the mind	Excitement, fear, pain, health, care, pride, hate, happiness, bravery, fun, love, peace, surprise, stupidity, childhood, idea, notion, remark

Collective noun	A count noun that denotes a group of individuals	Team, class, couple, family, government, staff, pack, herd, army, fleet, shoal, orchestra, crew, assembly
Pronoun	Pronouns are used like nouns, except that they are grammatically more specialised and it is harder to modify them In the examples, each sentence is written twice: once with nouns, and once with pronouns (underlined). Where the same thing is being talked about, the words are shown in bold.	Amanda waved to Michael. She waved to him. John's mother is over there. His mother is over there. The visit will be an overnight visit. This will be an overnight visit. Simon is the person: Simon broke it. He is the one who broke it.
Possessive noun	A possessive can be: a noun followed by an apostrophe, with or without s a possessive pronoun.	Taria's book [Taria has the book] The boys' arrival [the boys arrive] His obituary [the obituary is about him] That essay is mine. [I wrote the essay]
Main clause (noun)	A clause which is subordinate to some other part of the same sentence is a subordinate clause; for example, in <i>The</i>	It was raining but the sun was shining. [two main clauses] The man who wrote it told me that it was true. [one main clause containing two subordinate clauses.]

apple that I ate was sour, the clause that I ate is subordinate to apple (which it modifies). Subordinate clauses contrast with co-ordinate clauses as in It was sour but looked very tasty.

(Contrast: main clause)

However, clauses that are directly quoted as direct speech are not subordinate clauses.

A clause, typically introduced by a conjunction, that forms part of and is dependent on a main clause.

A relative clause is a special type of subordinate clause that modifies a noun. It often does this by using a relative pronoun such as who or that to refer back to that noun, though

She said, "It rained all day." [one main clause containing another.]

'when it rang' in 'she answered the phone when it rang'.

That's the street where Ben lives.

[relative clause; modifies street]

He watched her as she

disappeared. [adverbial; modifies

watched]

What you said was very nice. [acts

as subject of was]

She noticed an hour had passed.

[acts as object of noticed]

Not subordinate: He shouted,

"Look out!"

That's the boy who lives near school. [who refers back to boy]
The prize that I won was a book.
[that refers back to prize]
The prize I won was a book. [the pronoun that is omitted]
Tom broke the game, which annoyed Ali. [which refers back to the whole clause]
In the examples, the relative clauses are underlined, and both the pronouns and the words they refer back to are in bold.

Subordinate Clause (noun)

Relative clause

the relative pronoun that is often omitted. A relative clause may also be attached to a clause. In that case, the pronoun refers back to the whole clause, rather than referring back to a noun.

Adjective

Are used to give information about a noun (describing words): before a noun, to make the noun's meaning more specific (i.e. to modify the noun), or after the verb be, as its complement. Adjectives cannot be modified by other adjectives. This distinguishes them from nouns, which can be.

Adjectives are sometimes called 'describing words' because they pick out single characteristics such as size or colour. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adjectives

Circular, fragile, perilous, delicious, savage,

The pupils did some really good work. [adjective used before a noun, to modify it]
Their work was good. [adjective used after the verb be, as its complement]

Not adjectives:

The lamp <u>glowed</u>. [verb]

It was such a bright <u>red</u>! [noun]

He spoke <u>loudly</u>. [adverb]

It was a French <u>grammar</u> book.

[noun]

Preposition	from other word classes, because verbs, nouns and adverbs can do the same thing. A preposition links a following noun, pronoun or noun phrase to some other word in the sentence. Prepositions often describe locations or directions, but can describe other things, such as relations of time. Words like before or since can act either as prepositions or as conjunctions.	Tom waved goodbye <u>to</u> Christy. She'll be back <u>from</u> Australia <u>in</u> two weeks. I haven't seen my dog <u>since</u> this morning. Contrast: I'm going, <u>since</u> no-one wants me here! [conjunction: links two clauses]
Preposition phrase	A preposition phrase has a preposition as its head followed by a noun, pronoun or noun phrase.	He was <u>in bed</u> . I met them <u>after the party</u> .
Object (noun, pronoun or noun phrase)	An object is normally a noun, pronoun or noun phrase that comes straight after the verb, and shows what the verb is acting upon.	Year 2 designed <u>puppets</u> . [noun acting as object] I like <u>that</u> . [pronoun acting as object] Some people suggested <u>a pretty display</u> . [noun phrase acting as object] Contrast:

	Objects can be turned into the subject of a passive verb, and cannot be adjectives (contrast with complements).	A display was suggested. [object of active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb] Year 2 designed pretty. [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]
Article	The articles <i>the</i> (definite) and <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> (indefinite) are the most common type of determiner.	<u>The</u> dog found <u>a</u> bone in <u>an</u> old box.
Determiner	A determiner specifies a noun as known or unknown, and it goes before any modifiers (e.g. adjectives or other nouns). Some examples of determiners are: articles (the, a or an) demonstratives (e.g. this, those) possessives (e.g. my, your) quantifiers (e.g. some, every).	the home team [article, specifies the team as known] a good team [article, specifies the team as unknown] that pupil [demonstrative, known] Julia's parents [possessive, known] some big boys [quantifier, unknown] Contrast: home the team, big some boys [both incorrect, because the determiner should come before other modifiers]
Cohesion	A text has cohesion if it is clear how the meanings of its parts fit together. Cohesive	A visit has been arranged for <u>Year</u> <u>6</u> , to the <u>Mountain Peaks Field</u> <u>Study Centre</u> , leaving school at 9.30am. This is an overnight visit. <u>The centre</u> has beautiful grounds

devices can help to do this.

In the example, there are repeated references to the same thing (shown by the different style pairings), and the logical relations, such as time and cause, between different parts are clear.

and *a nature trail*. During the afternoon, <u>the children</u> will follow the trail.

Cohesive device

words used to show how the different parts of a text fit together. In other words, they create cohesion.

Some examples of cohesive devices are: determiners and pronouns, which can refer back to earlier words
conjunctions and adverbs, which can

make relations

between words clear ellipsis of expected

words.

Cohesive devices are

Julia's dad bought her a football. The football was expensive! [determiner; refers us back to a particular football] Joe was given a bike for Christmas. He liked <u>it</u> very much. [the pronouns refer back to Joe and the bike] We'll be going shopping before we go to the park. [conjunction; makes a relationship of time clear I'm afraid we're going to have to wait for the next train. Meanwhile, we could have a cup of tea. [adverb; refers back to the time of waiting] Where are you going? [__] To school! [ellipsis of the expected words I'm going; links the answer back to the question]

co-ordinate, co-ordin	nation	Words or phrases are	In these examples, the co-
		co-ordinated if they	ordinated elements are shown in
		are linked as an equal	bold, and the conjunction is
		pair by a co-ordinating	underlined.
		<u>conjunction</u> (i.e. and,	Susan <u>and</u> Amra met in a café.
		but, or).	[links the words <i>Susan</i> and <i>Amra</i>
		The difference	as an equal pair]
		between	They talked <u>and</u> drank tea for an
		co-ordination and	hour. [links two clauses as an
j.		subordination is that,	equal pair]
		in subordination, the	Susan got a bus <u>but</u> Amra
		two linked elements	<i>walked</i> . [links two clauses as an
		are not equal.	equal pair]
			Not co-ordination: <i>They ate</i>
			<u>before</u> they met. [before
Acknowledgment:			introduces a subordinate clause]
Martin Breeze TES res	ources		
Technique	Defini ^s	tion	Evample

Technique	Definition	Example
Antithesis	A person or thing that is the direct opposite of someone or something else	Love is the antithesis of selfishness
Allusion	A reference to another event, person, place or work of literature. The allusion is usually implied rather than explicit and provides another layer of meaning to what is being said	
Ambiguity	Use of language where the meaning is unclear or has two or more possible meanings or interpretations. It could be created by a weakness in the writer's expression, but it is more likely it is a deliberate device used by the writer to create layers of meaning	

Antagonist	The antagonist is the opposing force that brings conflict and is instrumental in the development of the protagonist , or main character.	
Anthropomorphism	The endowment of human characteristics to something that is not human	
Atmosphere	Atmosphere refers to emotions or feelings an author conveys to his readers through description of objects and settings	
Cliché	A phrase or opinion that is overused and betrays a lack of original thought.	Time heals all wounds Frightened to death
Colloquialism	The use of informal words, phrases or even slang in a piece of writing.	Wanna Gonna Go nuts
Connotation	The feelings or associations with words/phrases which helps to find the hidden meaning.	The word 'discipline' has unhappy connotations of punishment and repression
Diction	The choice of words a writer uses. Another word for "vocabulary".	
Empathy	A feeling on the part of the reader of sharing the particular experience being described by the character or writer.	
Foregrounding	To make something the most prominent or important feature.	
Figurative language	Figurative language is using figures of speech to be more effective, persuasive or impactful	Metaphors, similes

Genre	A particular type of writing.	prose, poetry, drama
Idiom	A group of words established by usage as having a meaning not explicit in those of the individual words.	Over the moon See the light
Imagery	Visually descriptive or figurative language, especially in a literary work.	
Imperative	Imperative verbs are verbs which create a sentence that gives an order – bossy verbs.	Stop Bring Stand (as in 'stand up.')
Irony	 The expression of one's meaning by using language that normally signifies the opposite, typically for humorous or emphatic effect. A state of affairs or an event that seems deliberately contrary to what one expects and is often wryly amusing as a result. 	"Don't go overboard with gratitude" – to someone who hasn't said thank you. You laugh at a person who slipped stepping on a banana peel and the next thing you know, you've slipped too.
Juxtaposition	The fact of two things being seen or placed close together with contrasting effect.	It was the best of times, it was the worst of times.
Narrative	A piece of writing that tells a story.	
Narrative viewpoint	The perspective a story is narrated from. First person, second person, third person and omniscient.	First person: 'I Saw him do it!" Second person: "we ran away." Third person: "They did it"

		Omniscient (God like, knows characters' thoughts and everything that is happening): The boys ran from the broken window, they thought they would get away with it.
Parallelism	The use of components in a sentence that are grammatically the same; or similar in their construction, sound, meaning.	Like father, like son. Easy come, easy go.
Parenthetical remark	A parenthetical remark is one that explains or qualifies something.	"I'm hungry, but I only want to eat chips."
Pathos	The effect in literature which makes the reader feel sadness or pity.	
Plot	The sequence of events in a poem, play, novel or short story that make up the main storyline.	
Polysyndeton	Several coordinating conjunctions are used in succession in order to achieve an artistic effect.	"I wore a sweater, and a hat, and a scarf, and a pair of boots, and mittens."
Protagonist	The main character or speaker in a poem, monologue, play or story.	
Pun	A play on words that have similar sounds but quite different meanings.	
Sarcasm	"The use of irony to mock or convey contempt."	"That's okay, you have the last cake. I'm sure you needed it more than me."

Syntax The arrangement of words and phrases to create well-formed sentences in a language.	
--	--

Structural Devices:

Text structure refers to how the information within a written **text** is organized.

Consider the changing **focus** of each section of the text.

Within this there are **language devices** to interest you as a reader. Be sure to comment on the **structure of the text**; this could be a **plot structure** with and **introduction**, **exposition**, **rising action**, **climax and resolution**. It may be **shifting perspectives** or **analepsis** (flashback) or **prolepsis** (flash forward).

N – narrative voice 1st/3rd/omniscient

E - endings, cliff-hangers, denouement

S – start (introduction, exposition)

T – turning point, TiPToP, tone

S – Sentence structures SCS1

Sentence structure refers to how the different sentence structures are used to different effects. Simple, compound, subordinate, complex and one word.

dramatic Irony: involves a situation in a narrative in which the reader knows something about present or future circumstances that the character does not know.

Poetic

SPAMROD / AFOREST features/devices. Know them all and their effects.

antithesis: a person or thing that is the direct opposite of someone or something else. Love is the antithesis of selfishness.

assonance: repetition of the similar vowel sounds. These could be the same vowel sounds with different consonants, e.g. 'blue moon', 'funny tummy', or the same consonants with different vowel sounds, e.g. 'black block', 'sad Sid'. E.g: 'Your eyes smile peace. The pasture gleams and glooms'

- Dante Gabriel Rossetti, 'Silent Noon'

colloquialism/colloquial: the use of informal words, phrases or even slang in a piece of writing. Wanna, Gonna, Go nuts.

consonance: a special type of alliteration in which the repeated pattern of consonants is marked by changes in the intervening vowels--i.e., the final consonants of the stressed syllables match each other but the vowels differ.

ellipsis (...): a situation in which words are left out of a sentence but the sentence can still be understood.

end-stopping: when there is a pause at the end of a line, usually a full stop: 'To err is human; to forgive, divine.' – Alexander Pope, 'An Essay on Criticism'

enjambement / enjambment: when a sentence runs over from one line of verse into the next. The word comes from the French word for leg: 'la jambe'. This is a poem about a line of ants running along one twig and then another twig and the enjambement reflects the unending movement of the ants until one of them stops.

That was end-stopping. So is this.

extended metaphor: a comparison between two unlike things that continues throughout a series of sentences in a paragraph or lines in a poem.

form: the shape of the poem. Some shapes have names, e.g. sonnet, ballad, dramatic monologue. Others do not, but there will always be something that binds the poem together: a particular rhythm, rhymes and so on. Think: why does this form, this shape, suit the subject and its treatment by the poet?

free verse: a poem with no regular rhythm or line length. It can make you wonder: why do we call this a poem at all? Isn't it just someone deciding when to start a new line whenever they like

in a rather annoying and pretentious way?

Well, free verse can seem like that at first. Read it aloud, though, or hear it in your head, and you can start to enjoy the way the poem's movement suits what it describes:

'Waves, undulating waves, liquid, uneven emulous waves, Toward that whirling current, laughing and buoyant, with curves'

- Walt Whitman, 'After the Sea-ship'

half-rhyme: words that almost rhyme but not quite: very similar to assonance. The effect can be unsettling, as in this war poem about two dead soldiers meeting underground:

'It seemed that out of battle I escaped

Down some profound, dull tunnel, long since scooped

Through granites which titanic wars had groined.

Yet also there encumbered sleepers groaned...'

- Wilfred Owen, 'Strange Meeting'

iamb: a unit or foot of poetry that consists of a lightly stressed syllable followed by a heavily stressed syllable. Some words in English naturally form iambs, such as behold, restore, amuse, arise, awake, return, Noel, support, depict, destroy, inject, inscribe, insist, inspire, unwashed.

iambic pentameter: a line of verse with five beats, which fall on the second syllable of each pair: ti TUM ti TUM ti TUM ti TUM ti TUM

E.g. 'Believe me, King of Shadows, I mistook!'

- Puck, in deep trouble, pleading with Oberon in 'A Midsummer Night's Dream'

Note: 'iamb' = ti TUM 'pente' = five in Greek.

juxtaposition: the fact of two things being seen or placed close together with contrasting effect. It was the best of times, it was the worst of times.

monosyllabic: words consisting of one syllable. Yes, no.

multisyllabic: words consisting of multiple syllables.

oxymoron: phrase that consists of two words that are contradictory: "living dead" or "jumbo shrimp"

paradox: a statement that seems contradictory but may reveal a truth..... ex. "She was alone in the crowd".

parallelism: the use of components in a sentence that are grammatically the same; or similar in their construction, sound, meaning Like father, like son. Easy come, easy go.

persona: telling a poem from a first person perspective that is not the author's perspective.

refrain: a recurring phrase or lines at the end of each stanza of poetry, like a one-line chorus.

rhyme scheme: the way rhymes within a poem are organised. You write about this by using aabb, abab and so on. Each new letter represents a new sound.

Rhymes bind a poem together. They also emphasise similarity or difference in the meanings of words.

rhyming couplets: two lines following each other which rhyme. In a play, a rhyming couplet is often said by a character who is very certain of something. This may be a bad decision he or she has just made!

rhythm: the arrangement of words to form a regular beat through a pattern of stresses. Rhythm is to poetry what the beat is to music.

sibilance: alliteration of the 's' sound, e.g. 'serious snakes stay sober'.

sonnet: a poem of fourteen lines, usually in iambic pentameter.

Shakespearean sonnet – has a rhyming couplet at the end. E.g. Simon Armitage's poem, 'The Clown Punk'.

Petrarchan sonnet – has no rhyming couplet at the end. Instead, there is a turn or 'volta' in the argument, around the eighth line. E.g. Shelley's 'Ozymandias'.

speaker: the 'voice' that is speaking in a poem written in the first person. Note: take care when deciding whether to write 'speaker' or 'poet'. The poet is the actual person who wrote the poem. The speaker is the character within it: the one whom the poem is pretending to be!

If your poem is about a fish remembering his life, you could write this: 'The voice of the speaker is full of sadness, until he remembers his first swim. Here, the fish sounds....'

If you wanted to comment on the writer's skill, you would write things like this: 'The poet uses a bouncing rhythm and images of glitter to evoke the speaker's memories of the salmon run.'

What you would not want to write is that 'the fish uses alliteration'. Hahaha!

stanza: a clearly demarcated part of a poem. Another word for 'verse', really!

structure: how the poet has organised his or her work into patterns, e.g. the number of stanzas/verses and their length; the line lengths; the rhymes and the rhythms. E.g. 'This poem tells a story in three verses. The first two are the same length but the third is very short, reflecting the sudden death of the fish.'

symbol: something used to stand for or represent something else. Note: a symbol is like a heavy-duty metaphor. It stands for something bigger than itself. E.g. the rose is often a symbol of love; the cross is a symbol of Christianity.

theme: the underlying main idea of a literary work. Theme differs from the subject of a literary work in that it involves a statement or opinion about the subject.

tone: the author's attitude toward the subject of a work or toward the audience/the overall feeling or mood of a poem.

Note: look out for any changes of tone and see how precise you can be about which word or phrase creates that change.

'You were really nice, just like pudding rice, just like fluffy mice, then you stole my car and my fishtank and now you are like a really annoying wasp.'

From line four onwards, there are no pleasant adjectives, no rhymes and the rhythm is irregular. All this emphasises the change of tone from friendly to angry.

Shakespeare

Here are some of the features common in Shakespeare's writing – you will also see poetic features, so make sure you learn those too.

blank verse (iambic pentameter): verse without rhythm; lines containing five iambs, da-dum da-dum, da-dum da-dum da-dum. This is close to the pattern of natural speech (ten syllables, alternate stress).

monologue: a long, uninterrupted speech (in a narrative or drama) that is spoken in the presence of other characters. Unlike a soliloquy and most aides, a monologue is heard by other characters.

Soliloquy: a speech, usually lengthy, in which a character, alone on stage, expresses his or her thoughts aloud. The soliloquy is a very useful dramatic device, as it allows the dramatist to convey a character's most intimate thoughts and feelings directly to the audience.

pun: a play on two words similar in sound but different in meaning. Originally, puns were a common literary trope in serious literature, but after the eighteenth century, puns have been primarily considered a low form of humour.

dramatic Irony: involves a situation in a narrative in which the reader knows something about present or future circumstances that the character does not know.

double entendre: (French, "double meaning") the deliberate use of ambiguity in a phrase or image--especially involving sexual or humorous meanings.

oxymoron: using contradiction in a manner that oddly makes sense on a deeper level. The richest literary oxymora seem to reveal a deeper truth through their contradictions.

assonance: repeating identical or similar vowels (especially in stressed syllables) in nearby words. Assonance in final vowels of lines can often lead to half-rhyme.

consonance: a special type of alliteration in which the repeated pattern of consonants is marked by changes in the intervening vowels--i.e., the final consonants of the stressed syllables match each other but the vowels differ.

hyperbole: exaggeration or overstatement.

allusion: a casual reference in literature to a person, place, event, or another passage of literature, often without explicit identification. Allusions can originate in mythology, biblical references, historical events, legends, geography, or earlier literary works. Authors often use allusion to establish a tone, create an implied association, contrast two objects or people, make an unusual juxtaposition of references, or bring the reader into a world of experience outside the limitations of the story itself.

extended metaphor: a comparison between two unlike things that continues throughout a series of sentences in a paragraph or lines in a poem.

symbolism: something used to stand for or represent something else. Note: a symbol is like a heavy-duty metaphor. It stands for something bigger than itself. E.g. the rose is often a symbol of love; the cross is a symbol of Christianity.

foil: a character who serves to contrast or emphasize opposing traits in another character.

iamb: a unit or foot of poetry that consists of a lightly stressed syllable followed by a heavily stressed syllable. Some words in English naturally form

iambs, such as behold, restore, amuse, arise, awake, return, Noel, support, depict, destroy, inject, inscribe, insist, inspire, unwashed.

malapropism: inappropriate, misused or mistaken use of words; saying pacific instead of specific for example. Pacific is an ocean, specific means

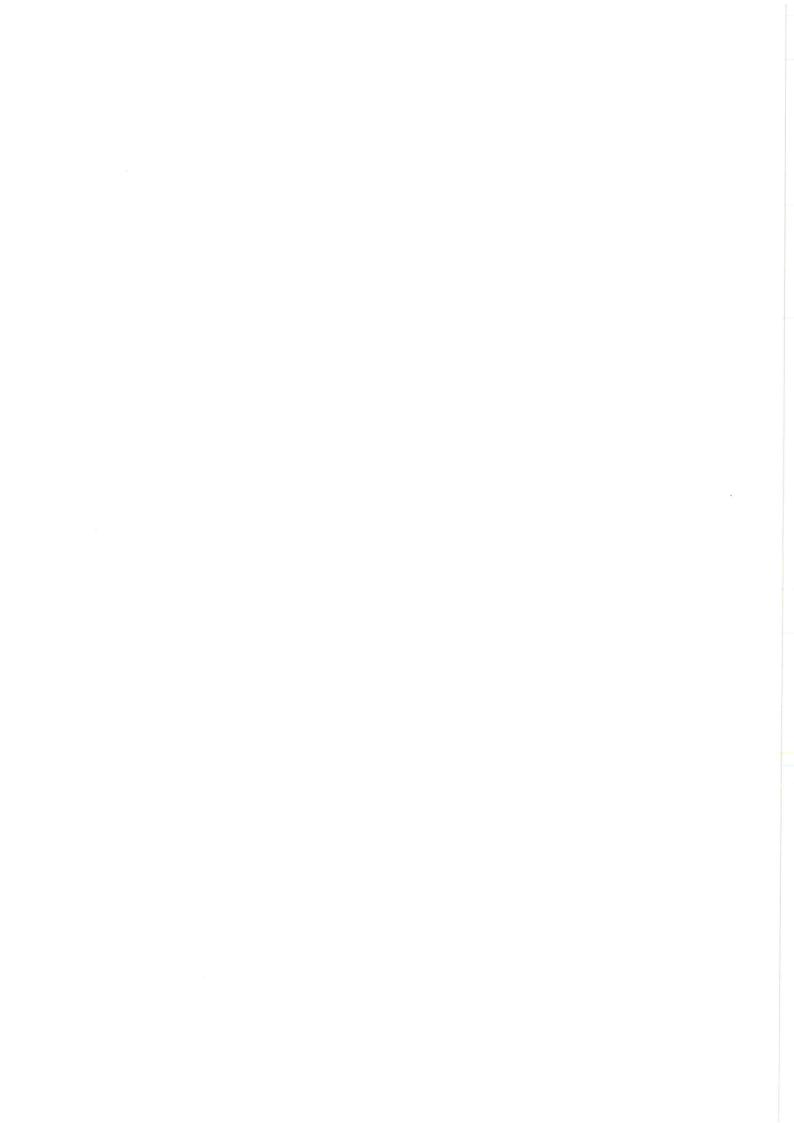
pentameter: when poetry consists of five feet in each line, it is written in pentameter. Each foot has a set number of syllables.

prose: sentences, generally the use of prose indicates a low social status and lack of emotional control.

pun: a joke exploiting the possible meaning of a word or the fact that there are words that sound alike but have different meanings

rhyming couplet: two lines with rhyming last words.

verse: words and/or sentences that adhere to a rhythmical pattern. Generally, the use of verse indicates a character is educated and in control of their emotions.





Full stops are used:

Kelly skipped along the path. To mark the end of a sentence.

2) To show when a word has been abbreviated.

--> St. Peter's Road Saint Peter's Road

Commas are used to separate parts of a sentence. The door bell rang, startling Mr. Johnson. Jake, realising he was late, started running to school.

They are also used to separate items in a list. My favourite vegetables are carrots, peas, broccoli and potatoes.

words that are spoken. Speech marks show

What are you doing?" shouted Mr. Stevens.

"I saw Jim steal the chocolate. "Can I borrow your coat?" The policeman said,

asked the old lady.

sentence, so use a question mark at A question is a special type of the end instead of a full stop. What is your favourite food? When would you like

How do you feel today?

to go to London?

An apostrophe is used:

or more than one letter) has 1) To show where a letter been missed out.

2) To show when something belongs am --> l'm do not --> don "t

The doctors' surgery Susan's game to somebody.

Colons are used:

Semi-colons are used to separate two

parts of a sentence that could be written as two separate sentences.

stronger or more exciting, put an If you want to make a sentence

exclamation mark at the end.

It was winter; the snow

was falling heavily.

1) When you are about to write a list. I have three pet rats: Bert, Ernie and Elmo.

2) To introduce a second part of the sentence.

The weather forecast was wrong: it rained all day.

The cat had thin whiskers; piercing

a list made of longer phrases.

You can also use exclamation

marks with commands.

l've won a million pounds!

He jumped into the pond!

Stop! Get out of here now!

They can also be used in



1) To show a pause in someone's "I think... I've won the lottery! speech or thought.

2) To build tension or show that a sentence is not finished.

Paul looked up and couldn't believe what

punctuation you have used in your writing! AWW to review the Take WWWWW

eyes; soft ears and a long tail.

Dashes are used to add extra information or comments to sentences

Paul was scared - more scared She waited for a letter to arrive than he had ever been before. but nothing came.



writer wants to add some extra Brackets are used when the information to a sentence.

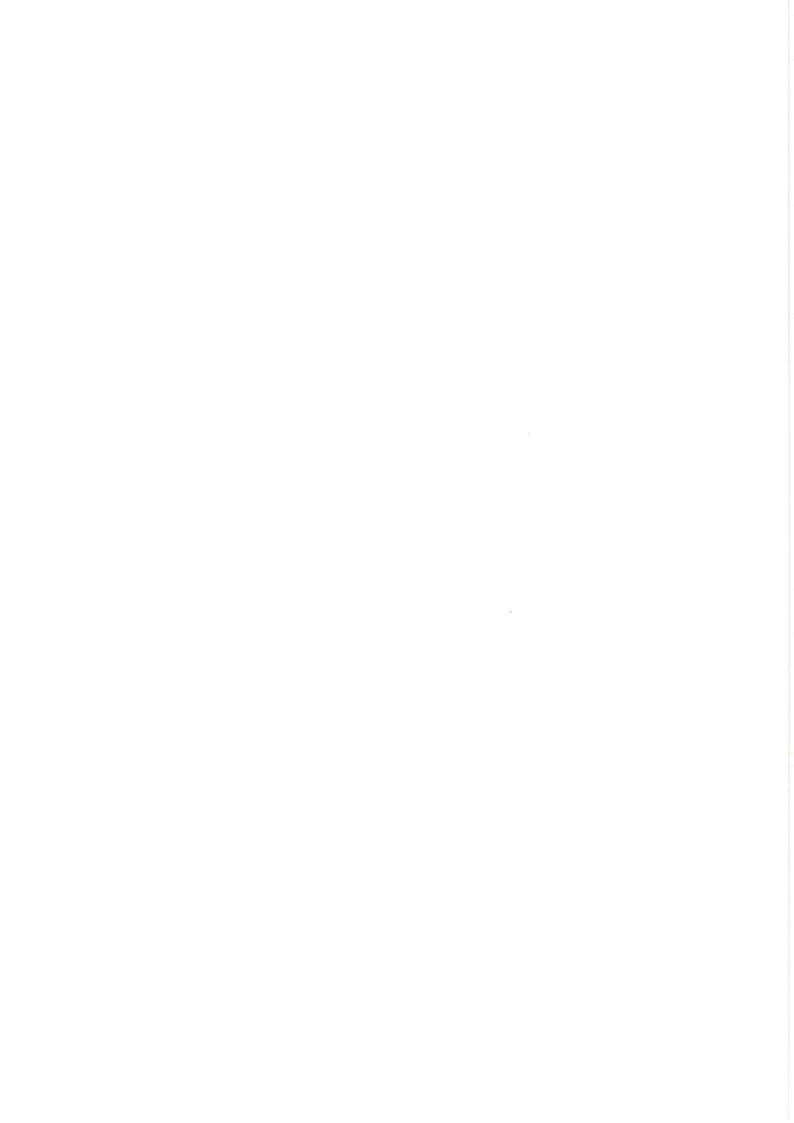
Tigers are carnivores was really upset!

Ellipses are used:

Sally (the girl with the pink shoes)

meat eaters).

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LEARN TO STUDY USING...

Retrieval Practice

PRACTICE BRINGING INFORMATION TO MIND



TI OO OL MOH

know. Be as thorough as accuracy and important your class materials for materials, and write or sketch everything you possible. Then, check Put away your class points you missed.

friend who has done the don't have ready-made own and trading with a Take as many practice tests, try making your your hands on. If you tests as you can get

flashcards. Just make recalling the informabeyond definitions by tion on them, and go You can also make sure you practice thinking of links between ideas.



EARN TO STUDY USING...

Spaced Practice

SPACE OUT YOUR STUDYING OVER TIME









HOW TO DO IT

hours spread out over time every day. Five Start planning early two weeks is better aside a little bit of than the same five or exams, and set nours all at once.

not immediately after rom each class, but Review information

nformation to keep it make sure to go back information from the most recent class, After you review mportant older and study

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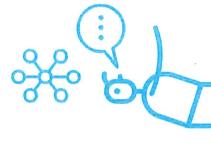
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EARN TO STUDY USING...

Dual Coding

COMBINE WORDS AND VISUALS



HOW TO DO 11

visuals. Look over the visuals and compare materials and find Look at your class to the words.

Look at visuals, and explain in your own words what they mean.

Go back over the ideas

idea for too long. Don't study one

orders to strengthen

again in different

Take information that visuals to go along you are trying to learn, and draw with it. learningscientists.org



LEARN TO STUDY USING...

Interleaving

SWITCH BETWEEN IDEAS WHILE YOU STUDY

OPIC



HOW TO DO IT

Collect examples your materials for as many teacher has used, and examples as you can look in your class

HOW TO DO IT

during a study session.

Switch between ideas

example applies to the Make the link between example, so that you understand how the studying and each the idea you are idea.

them to each other for Share examples with friends, and explain added benefits.

> different ideas as you switch between them.

Make links between our understanding.



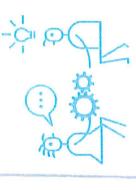
LEARN TO STUDY USING.. LEARN TO STUDY USING...

Concrete Examples

USE SPECIFIC EXAMPLES TO UNDERSTAND ABSTRACT IDEAS

EXPLAIN AND DESCRIBE IDEAS WITH DETAILS

Elaboration



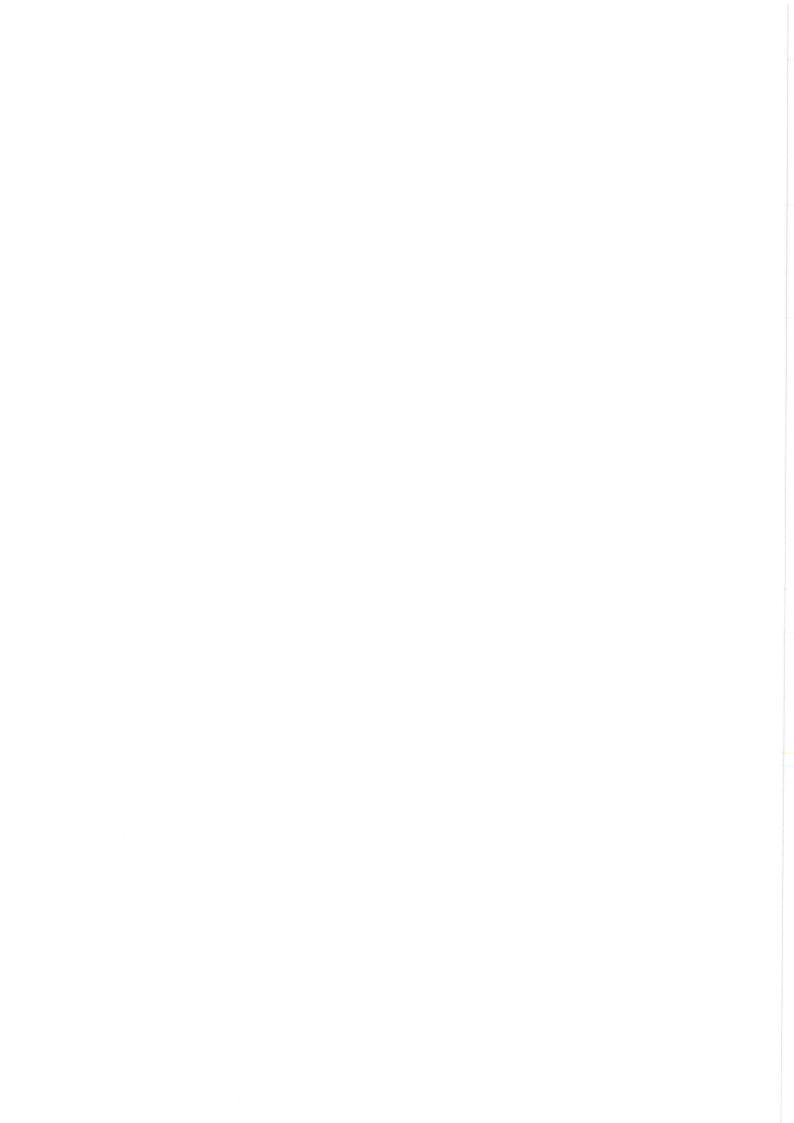
HOW TO DO

discuss them with your Ask yourself questions while you are studying about how things work and why, and then find class materials and the answers in your classmates.

together. Take two ideas As you elaborate, make explain how they work and think of ways they connections between different ideas to are similar and different.

connections to the ideas to your own experiences or memories. As you go through your day, make Describe how the ideas you are studying apply you are learning in class. learningscientists.org

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Homework: Next time you are reading, think about the sentence structures you see. What effect do they have?

Date and Starter What is a sentence?

On the sugar paper, mind-map your table group's ideas.

A sentence must...



Key Question: What is a sentence?

Success Criteria:

- A variety of sentence lengths, structures and subjects provides clarity and emphasis. Grade 4
- Some variety in length, structure or subject of sentences and use of some subordinating connectives. Grade 3
- Reliance mainly on simple sentences with and/but/so being most common connectives.
 Grade 2

Social, moral, spiritual and cultural: Being a good listener means you do more than hear.

What does SCS1 stand for?

Simple, compound, subordinate, one word.

Why do we have this mnemonic?

To remind you to use a range of sentences in your writing.

Key Question: What is a sentence?

For a sentence to make sense it *usually* has a subject a verb and an object.

Subject = the thing or person 'doing' the action of the verb.

Verb = doing or being word.

Object = the thing or person that the action of the verb is being done to.

The boy rang the bell.

MAKE NOTES

Subject Verb Object

Can you write some simple sentences and label the subject, object and verb?

In your book write some <u>simple sentences</u>. Then label their subject, verb and object.

The girl wrote on the paper.

Subject Verb

Object



Key Question: What is a sentence?

What is a connective?

A connective joins sentences together.

List as many as you can in your book under the heading Connectives.

If we want to add information but it could make sense on its own, we can add it to our sentence using a comma and connective.

A simple sentence

Connective

The girl wrote on the paper, so she could complete her home-work.

Another simple sentence connected to the first with a comma and 'so'.

Now you try and write a compound sentence...

Key Question: What is a sentence?

If we add extra information, that cannot make sense on its own, to our simple sentence we separate it with a comma. This extra information is called a subordinate clause. Here it is called an embedded clause because it is inside the sentence.

The girl, with no hair, wrote on the paper.

Subject Embedded Clause Verb Object Complex (subordinate) Sentence.

Can you rewrite one of your sentences to include a subordinate/embedded clause. Don't forget the commas! Label the different parts too.

If we want to add information but it could make sense on its own, we can add it to our sentence using a connective.

A simple sentence

A subordinate clause

The girl, with no hair, wrote on the paper, so she could complete her home-work.

Another simple sentence connected to the first with a comma and 'so'.

<u>Compound, complex (subordinate) sentence</u>. Now you try...

Key Question: What is a sentence?

No! Wow! Hello.

These sentences are called single word sentences and can be used to make your writing interesting. Sometimes they can be verbs too.

Run. Stop! Slowly.



Practise writing a range of sentences using what we have revised today.

SCS1 = simple, compound, subordinate and one word.

If you feel confident, write an explanation of how the different sentences are structured.

Extension task: go through your work and label the types of sentences you have used. Correct any errors.

Key Question: What is a sentence?

Grammar – Sentence Structure

Bullet point what you have learned this lesson.



How to have TiPToP paragraphing skills

Person Topic Place Time

paras

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The TiPToP Song

(a simple guide to remembering when to start a new paragraph)

Ti.. for time change; use this when You want to move from **now** to **then**.

P. for **place change**; this is found Every time you **move around**.

When you mention something new. To... for topic; this is due

When **someone else** comes into it. P. for **person**; this would fit

Start a new paragraph When

- Start a new paragraph when you move to a new period of **time**
- P. Start a new paragraph when you move to a different **place**
- To... Start a new paragraph when you move on to a new **topic** or subject
- **person** into your writing, or when you change from one person to another (especially when P. Start a new paragraph when you bring a new writing conversations)

paras

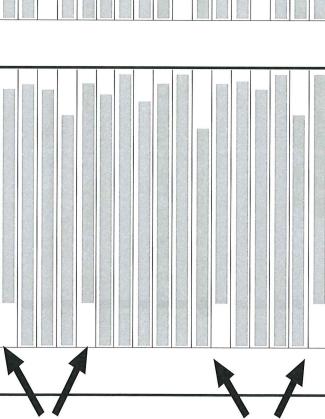
How to show a paragraph break on a page of your exercise book

new paragraphs There are FOUR on this page

There are THREE new paragraphs on this page

(The grey lines on this picture are to show where the handwriting is)

the new paragraph is INDENTED — the about 3cm in from The beginning of the page margin. first word starts



space created by the 3cm indentation

from the margin.

because of the white

A reader can easily see where the new paragraphs begin

paragraphs

There is NO BLANK LINE

between the

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Exploring the connotations of a word in your quotation.

The **connotations** of a word are the things you **associate (link)** with a word when you hear or read it.

They can have an **overall effect** that is either, **negative**, **positive** or neutral.

Always remember that usually the writer will be aiming for a negative or positive effect. Always select the connotations that help support your point.

- You have chosen a quotation that supports your point.
- You have **explained** the context of the quotation and how is supports your point.

For example:

My **point** here is that Stoker uses features of writing to describe (a simile) in his book 'Dracula'. I have included my **quotation** and I have also **explained** what is happening. I add why the quotation supports my point.

"Stoker uses a simile to describe Dracula negatively in his book; "The old man's grip was like a steel trap." This is when Harker shakes hands with Dracula for the first time. It is a simile because he is using the word 'like' and comparing Dracula's hand to something else, in this case a trap. This is a negative description"

The next step is to explore; think about the effects of the feature.

I add another sentence **exploring** how the simile and its imagery has **affected** me.

"Stoker uses a simile to describe Dracula negatively in his book; "The old man's grip was like a steel trap." This is when Harker shakes hands with Dracula for the first time. It is a simile because he is using the word 'like' and comparing Dracula's hand to something else, in this case a trap. This is a negative description The use of a simile helps the reader imagine Dracula in more detail by focussing the simile on one of the five senses."

• To **develop your 'explore'** of the affects you should now choose a word that will, with the help of its **connotations**, support your point even further.

I have decided that 'trap' is a good word to help support my point. I did this by at first thinking about what the connotations were of the word, selecting the ones that were useful to prove my point and then considering their overall effect and what it suggested to me.

"The noun 'trap' has very negative connotations of caught, unable to escape and fear. The overall effect of these connotations adds to the negative description of Dracula. It suggests that Dracula may 'trap' Harker and not allow him to leave."

To write a PEEEL paragraph, work through this plan.

1. Point

- This just means your answer to the question.
- It should be around one or two sentences long.
- Reword the question to help you get started.
- You should base your answers on a range of evidence: words, writing devices/features and structure.

2. Evidence

- This is the bit of text that gave you the answer (your point).
- Copy it out and put a comma before it, and quotation marks around it, "..."
- If your answer (point) is about the whole text (structure), just write a summary of what you want to use as evidence; for example: the play begins with the party and the Inspector arriving, it ends with the phone ringing. (sometimes your evidence and explain will merge together).
- Use a **range of evidence**: words, writing devices/features and structure/SCS1.

3. Explain

- Tell me who is saying the quotation and to whom. Tell me what they are talking about.
- If your answer (point) is about structure, use technical terminology as much as you can; for example: the plot structure begins and ends in the same place but the characters have changed.

4. Explore

 Tell me what you felt, thought or was suggested to you by the quotation. Say why this helps work out the answer (point). This should be the longest part of your PEEEL.

5. Link – back to the question, or for a text you have studied...

 Show off all that you know about the text in this section. Your answer (point) should be linkable with the writer's viewpoint, the context or the theme. Try and write about all three in three PEELs.

Formats Paper Two, Question Five

Showing ability to write for purpose and audience and, within the provided form.

The range of forms that can be set:

- letter
- article
- text for a leaflet
- text of a speech
- essay

- Using language for impact
- writing to instruct/advise
- writing to argue
- writing to persuade

Allowing opportunities (where relevant) to:

- give and respond to information
- select, organise and emphasise facts, ideas and key points
- cite evidence and quotation
- include rhetorical devices

Letter

Minimum:

- indication that someone is sending a letter to someone
- paragraphs (TiPToP)

More developed:

- the use of addresses (recipient top right, sender left)
- the date
- or a named recipient A formal mode of address if required e.g. Dear Sir/Madam
- / planning structure / discourse markers / writing features) effectively/fluently sequenced paragraphs (planning ideas
- an appropriate mode of signing off:

Yours faithfully (with unnamed recipient) or Yours sincerely (with named recipient).

Note:

If you look at some examples of formal letters you will see variations in layout. The exam board list the above bullet points as what they are looking for, so use them.

Sign off	Closing statement	Main body	Opening paragraph	

Article

Minimum:

- the use of a simple title
- Paragraphs (TiPToP)

More developed:

- a clear/apt/original title (writing feature / pun / alliteration)
- a strapline (an extra heading or caption) (planning ideas)
- Subheadings (planning structure)
- an introductory (overview) paragraph (planning structure)
- planning for structure / writing features/ discourse markers) effectively/fluently sequenced paragraphs (planning ideas /

Note: there is no need to write in columns (or include images).

How to Prevent Workplace Injuries: Pay Workers For Sick Days

A new study on how to prevent workplace injuries indicates that workers who are afforded paid sick days by their employers are workers who are afforded paid sick days by their employers are season areas for juries. The study, conducted by researchers from the Control of the Study Conducted by (CDC), found that workers given paid time off for litness were 20% (CDC), found that workers given paid time off for litness were 20% less likely to suffer an on-the-job injury.

Not surprisingly, me study substitute in the mass of the meast of the meast dangerous lines of two kir receive the poligoest benefits from compensated sick days. The most dangerous jobs examined in the study were those constitution. OST-IA estimates that should manufacturing and constitution. OST-IA estimates that should four million people are seriously injured at work every year in the U.S., Also, an average of thirden workers are killed on the job in America every days.



38,000 Workers Studied

In order to conduct their study, CDC researchers studied information collected from the <u>National Health Interview</u>
<u>Survey,</u> from 2005 until 2008. A total of 38,000 workers were examined in the study. The researchers were careful to account for gender, age, pay rate and other factors that could impact injury rights. The results of the study held true even when these factors were accounted for.

abeause all workers in the public sector are alforded paid sick firms, the CDC study only included data ogarding phirato sector workers. Reaghly 57% of those who participated in the study ware given paid sick days o by their employers. A total of 40 million workers in the United States receive paid time off for illnessers.

Vhy do Paid Sick Days Equate to Lower Injury Rates?

During their study, lead researcher Abay Aslaw and the other researchers discovered that workers had experienced injuries including the following:

- Spinal cord injuries
- Carrilage damage
- Hernlated discs

Bone fractures

- Cuts
- Solt tissue tears
- Soft tissue to
- Sprains

According to the researchers, these injuries are more likely to occur while workers are sick because even a temporary illness can lead to a reduced level of mental focus, as well as drowsiness and carelessness. The medications taken by sick workers also tend to have side effects such as drowsiness or impaired concentrals

Adding to a Growing Body of Evidence

According to Astaw, a CDO senior service follow, many workers may feet compelled to continue working even when they're sick if their employees don't offer them paid stick days. Astaw believes that the CDO study has finally provided the answer to how to prevent workplace injuries - fewer injuries and safer overall operations would be the norm if more workers abstained from working when they're suffering from an illness.

John Howard, the ODC's <u>(Indicond Institute for Occapational Statity and Hosith</u> director, agrees with Astaw and says that the study builds on a gowing body of evidence indicating that our prosenal health and our professional lives are instrictably interwined. Howard also said that previous studies have found that vortices who are given paid slob days experience fewer complications when dealing with minor Injuries, and recover from their aliments more quickly as well.

How to Prevent Workplace Injuries: The Bottom Line

new CDC study indicates that workers who are given paid slok days by their employers are 28% uses likely to fler an injury while on the job. The full load of the study can be found in anine in the <u>American Journal of Public</u> (alth).

Text for Leaflet

Minimum:

- use of a simple title
- paragraphs or sections (TiPToP)

More developed:

- a clear/apt/original title (writing features / alliteration / puns)
- write a text for a leaflet so there is no need for columns or images). organisational devices such as inventive subheadings / boxes / bullet points (the task is to
- effectively/fluently sequenced paragraphs (planning ideas / planning structure / discourse markers / writing features)

The only parity which can get Brexit done is the conservative Party on 23 May, election to the European Parliament toke place. We don't wont these obstaces has Parliament been place and get an win have the services below that you want a Breat deal which the only your vote can show that you want a Breat deal delivered as soon as possible. Theresa May is working trielessly to pass a workable deal which as soon as possible. Theresa May is working trielessly to pass a workable deal which is leaves the Common Fisheries Pailey and the Common Agricultural pailey. I lakes back control of our money, laws and bardens. I lakes back control of our money, laws and bardens. I lakes back control of our money, laws and the Common Agricultural pailey. I protects jabs, security, and our United Kingdom Being the largest party in Parliament, the Conservatives are the only porty that con actually make Breat happen, and are committed to seriously and responsibly detivering it. Other parties went to stop Bevit - or would rather shout from the sidelines than work to get it done in the mational interest. "At this critical moment for our country, parties should not be playing politics—or couling for their own parsonal gain. We need to come together, stay the course, and cleiwer Breat in the national interest. I meet for the Conservatives on 23 May is a vate to that we can focus on our fully. There are made to the playing politics in the national interest. There are a serious possible. There are the EU with a deal as soon as possible. There are the EU with a deal as soon as possible. There are the EU with a deal as soon as possible.

What these European elections could mean for the UK

If people who want to see a Brexit doal delivered do not vote Conservative on 23 May, that will split the vote and could mean

- Jeremy Corbyn and Labour topping the poll—giving Corbyn a boost and taking him a step clo
- Parties which want to re-run the referendum using the result to claim that the British people don't really want to loave risking more dolay, division and uncertainty.
- Niget Farage and other parties which are standing for e- personal gain just getting more publicity - but not actually getting us closer to delivering a deal and getting Brexit done.

Parilament has come close to backing a Brexit deal. By voting Conservative on 23 May, you can show that you want a Brexit deal delivered as soon as possible.



Essay

Minimum:

- a simple introduction and conclusion
- Paragraphs (TiPToP)

More developed:

- an effective introduction and convincing conclusion (writing features)
- effectively/fluently linked paragraphs to sequence a discourse markers / writing features) range of ideas (*planning ideas / planning structure /*

STUDENT ESSAY SAMPLE "Act of God" by Joan Baxter

Joan Baxter's "Acr of God" revolves around the consequences of a water cut experienced by Jillian, a white woman who came to Africa to help the inhabitants of a small village. Due to this deliberate water cut, the villagers are forced to obtain unhealthy water from a tank. At the end of the story, Aisha, an African girl, drowns in it. As the action progresses. Baxter portrays Jillian's changing spectrum of emotions, emphasizing her insecurity, her anger towards the water company and her guilt towards the Africans. Through setting and characterization of Jillian and Aisha, the author suggests that when people are placed in a destabilizing situation, stuck between oppressor and oppressed, their quest for a sense of belonging and their often irrational feelings may become their main driving force.

With the idea that it could happen anywhere, [Consequently, it shifts the focus from the actual geographical setting to the struggles and feelings of the people who live in it.] The post-colonial world in which the action occurs gives rise to a series of conflictual situations. The main conflict opposes the water company and the Africans. Their interests are at opposite ends of the spectrum; the latter need the water whereas the company owners would rather sell it to make money. Bukari, Jillian's driver, refers to these rich people as "the Talon water maifa—the men who owned tanker trucks—(who) could sell water to people and 'grow fat'." The anger that is expressed is shared by Jillian, who directs her rage towards her own industrialized country in addition to the water company. Ironically, at one point she is also angry at Aisha who tries to fetch water from her tank. [Her indignation towards the oppressed and trucks translates into her momentary rage against the oppressed Africans.] The African struggle against the company extends to auditority of the newly independent government. When Jillian asks why the people do not protest against the water...

Speech

Minimum:

- a simple address to the audience (actually 'speak' to them e.g. 'Good morning everyone')
- a final address to the audience ('thank you for listening...')

More developed:

- a clear address to an audience (as above but include an appropriate writing
- effectively/fluently linked sections to indicate sequence (planning ideas / planning structure / writing features / discourse markers)
- rhetorical indicators that an audience is being addressed throughout
- a clear sign off e.g. 'thank you for listening...' (as above but include an appropriate writing feature)

Note: there is no need to use speech marks unless you quote someone in the speech.



How can I revise formats?

- Look at examples of texts and identify which format they belong to
- identify the features of that form.
- Take past paper two, question fives and replan and or rewrite the answers in a different format.
- Create revision cards to test yourself with.
- Annotate a features of a texts format.

