



No Nonsense

Grammar

A complete grammar programme

Introduction and subject
knowledge

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Foreword

With recent changes in the National Curriculum, and the introduction of new tests for primary children, grammar is once more at the forefront of teachers' thinking. Grammar has had a chequered history in schools, and was largely abandoned in the 1960s and 1970s because many felt it served no obvious purpose in the curriculum. As a consequence, many teachers who are now responsible for teaching grammar did not learn grammar themselves at school. A contested history combined with a cadre of teachers who are often anxious about their subject knowledge means that the reintroduction of grammar risks being viewed as a curriculum imposition rather than a creative opportunity.

Learning about grammar is learning about language, and about how meaning is created through the choices we make. It should not be a dry, dull enterprise, characterised by labelling exercises and learning rules (which is how many of us who did do grammar at school remember it). Rather, it should be a way of looking at the way the English language works and the endless possibilities it gives us for making our communication powerful. After all, through writing we can cause revolutions, break hearts, capture moments of history and express our deepest feelings! Grammar teaching in the twenty-first century should be a creative, enjoyable element of learning – generating curiosity about our language and encouraging a playful approach to language. It should also give young learners the opportunities to experience rich and diverse texts, exploring the choices that writers make in creating their texts.

This programme very much reflects this twenty-first century approach to the teaching of grammar. It is closely focused on the requirements of the National Curriculum and rooted in classroom practice. It combines the need to assess pupils' learning of grammar and to monitor their progress with a host of practical activities, which give learners an opportunity to play with and explore language actively. Written by authors who are established experts in primary literacy practice, it guides teachers to manage pupils' learning through plentiful opportunities for practising and applying. At the same time, it will support teachers' grammatical subject knowledge, giving confidence in approaching unfamiliar grammar concepts. This is grammar that lives and breathes!

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Introduction: Grammar in the National Curriculum

Over the last few years, increasing emphasis has been placed on grammar and punctuation in primary schools. In particular, the new primary curriculum for English contains specific requirements for the teaching of grammar and punctuation within each year group and the learning that pupils should be able to demonstrate at the end of each year/key stage. There are a number of issues surrounding teaching and learning within this area of the curriculum.

Challenges for teachers

The first difficulty for teachers is that progression within each grammatical element is not always clear. Certain elements are mentioned in some year groups but not in others – for example, the present perfect tense appears in Year 3 but is not referred to again. The introduction to the National Curriculum Grammar Appendix states that the content in earlier years should be revisited and reinforced in subsequent years, but how should teachers do this? How, for example, should learning about the past perfect be consolidated in Years 4, 5 and 6? Furthermore, what groundwork is necessary to prepare pupils for learning some of the terminology they will come across? The term ‘adverb’ appears at Year 2, but can teachers do anything in Year 1 to make understanding adverbs easier for Year 2 pupils?

Another challenge for anyone teaching grammar and punctuation is the amount of subject knowledge required to feel comfortable with the content of the curriculum when the elements being taught can be used in so many different ways. Providing pupils with a pattern of language is a useful way of helping them understand a structure and how it can be used for effect. However, the English language is so flexible – with words, phrases and clauses capable of being used in extremely sophisticated structures – that it can be difficult to select examples of language that are correct for the grammatical feature being taught, appropriate to the text type being studied and not simplified to such a degree that their effect in writing is lost.

Subject knowledge

One area of subject knowledge that teachers may find particularly difficult is that caused by the merging of the previously separate ‘sentence level’ and ‘text structure’ strands. Although sentence structure and cohesion are inextricably linked, they are often considered discretely in teaching and assessment. In the National Curriculum Appendix, elements such as adverbials appear in the sentence and text sections, so teachers need to clearly understand when adverbials are being used to expand information for the reader and when they are acting cohesively to tie a text together.

Teaching grammar

The primary curriculum intends that pupils should develop a deep and secure understanding of grammar, and teachers are encouraged to go beyond the content set out in the Appendix if they feel it is appropriate. To achieve this, teachers need to ensure that learning is robust and can be applied in a variety of ways; they must also have a clear understanding of which concepts their pupils have successfully grasped and whether or not it is appropriate to go beyond the stated content. It is only by talking to pupils about texts and about their own writing that it is possible to ascertain whether or not they have attained the level of understanding required. Ensuring that they know the relevant terminology is key to enabling them to discuss their writing.

How No Nonsense Grammar is organised

The *No Nonsense Grammar* programme is intended to address the above challenges for the primary teacher, and includes the following features:

- A subject knowledge section, which explains the basic grammatical elements and constructions as well as the punctuation and cohesion required by the National Curriculum.
- Progression charts within each of the strands required by the National Curriculum. These detail the year group/key stage where each grammatical feature and punctuation mark is introduced and expanded upon. It explains which aspects of grammar pupils may find difficult, elaborates on any subject knowledge that might be useful for teachers and considers what consolidation or preparation would be useful in the year groups where features are not mentioned. It ends by considering how teachers could go beyond the content of the National Curriculum. Cohesion and punctuation objectives are cross-referenced to strand areas where it is relevant to include them in teaching.
- Grammar and punctuation teaching for Year 1, Year 2, Years 3 and 4, and Years 5 and 6, linked to assessment criteria, which provides:
 - information on what needs to be taught within each strand
 - appropriate generic activities, differentiated for each year group/key stage and strand area (in many cases, these include consolidation from previous teaching). The activities for strands 5 and 6 are integrated into all four of the other strands, as punctuation and cohesion cannot be taught in isolation.
 - links to teaching and learning sequences that use authentic texts with good models of writing and real purposes for writing
 - links with visual, auditory and kinaesthetic methods of teaching, such as some of the physical activities suggested and the use of the Babcock LDP *Sentence Toolkit* (see below)
 - resources
 - assessment activities where appropriate, including key questions to elicit understanding.
- Assessment criteria that explain what mastering each year group/key stage looks like and what pupils should understand and be able to do.
- Diagnostic assessment activities linked to the assessment criteria and the end of key stage assessment framework.

Whilst the *No Nonsense Grammar* programme provides activities and resources to support teachers, grammar should always be taught in context. It is the tool we use to communicate meaning, and that meaning should always be part of the discussion during teaching. Ideally, teachers will adapt the activities included in the programme and use them with the texts being studied. Across the programme we have provided three examples of a teaching and learning sequence for literacy, which show how grammar teaching should be embedded in wider English teaching. More sequences like these can be found at www.babcock-education.co.uk/ldp/

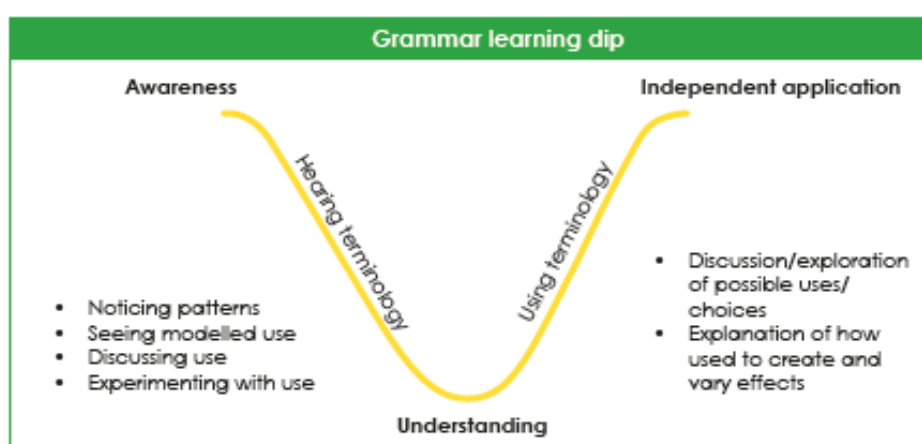
The USB stick

Included in this pack is a USB stick containing the following additional resources: instructional videos; PDFs of the books used in the teaching activities; editable versions of all three books in the programme, including the teaching resources.

The Sentence Toolkit

The abstract nature of grammar can make it difficult for young pupils to understand. The *Sentence Toolkit* has been developed and provided with the *No Nonsense Grammar* programme to help teachers make grammar come alive in the classroom and develop pupils' awareness and understanding.

The diagram below exemplifies the 'learning dip' surrounding learning in grammar. Pupils should be able to move beyond the awareness of features towards a genuine understanding of how they can be used to communicate effectively in writing. Exposing pupils to the correct terminology is essential in developing their understanding; using it will help pupils explore and explain how the features are used and the effects they have created.



The bullet points on either side of the dip are also vital for progression, and the *Sentence Toolkit* provides a way to help pupils focus on the aspect of grammar being used, to understand its use and remember it when writing. It does this by linking the grammatical terminology to real-life objects and, where possible, provides analogies to aid pupils' understanding of how the different grammatical features work.

Each tool makes an association between the use of the tool in real life and a writing skill that can be viewed in a similar way. Each one has a specific name and purpose – for example, we can show pupils that a spanner is used to tighten bolts and join pieces of wood or metal together. In the same way, subordinating conjunctions can be used to join clauses together. Pupils can use this analogy to help them understand the terminology as well as the writing process and how it works. The visual clues provided and actions that can accompany the tools make this a multi-sensory approach to learning about grammar.

Full guidance on using the *Sentence Toolkit* can be found within the introduction to that document.

Subject knowledge and progression

Subject knowledge

Grammar is all about the patterns and rules in a language: how we put words, phrases and clauses together to make structures that communicate information clearly to our reader. Pupils have this grammatical knowledge in place from an early age, which enables them to understand structures they have not heard before and to know if what is communicated makes sense or not. Whether this grammar acquisition is innate or learned, young pupils pick up the grammatical structure of their language very quickly and their attempts at forming grammatical structures increasingly conform to the rules of their language.

By the time pupils go to school, they have a working knowledge of English grammar, but they are not always explicitly aware of the patterns and conventions that we use to speak and write. Spoken language does not usually have the clearly demarcated sections that are required in writing; if we want pupils to create – and punctuate – sentences, it is important that we help them understand what a 'sentence' is. In order to do that, we need to be clear ourselves about how sentences are formed.

Sentence building is a little like a modular construction kit. Every sentence contains at least one clause and each clause is made up of different grammatical elements, which we will refer to as **clause elements** in this text:

S – **subject**

V – **verb**

O – **object** (which can be direct or indirect)

A – **adverbial**

C – **complement (adjective)/complement (noun phrase)**

Complement is probably the least familiar clause element, and it does not have to be taught within the primary curriculum. However, it is important that teachers understand this common clause construction – for example, where the verb expresses a state of being: Fido is happy (SVC).

As with construction kits, each of these clause elements can occur in different shapes (structure) and sizes (length) but there are basic rules for fitting the components together. Word order (syntax) is a key factor, but there is a huge degree of flexibility in building a variety of structures to suit different purposes for writing.

We usually consider the default word order in English as being **subject (S)**, **verb (V)**, **object (O)** and this is frequently the order that pupils start off with in early writing:

The horse **jumped** the fence. The cat **chased** the mouse. Jack **hit** the ball.

However, we can combine these clause elements in a variety of ways. The most common sentence constructions are:

SV	The man slept .
SVO	The man painted the door.
SVC	The man was happy.
SVOC	The man painted the door yellow .
SVOO	The man gave the car a good clean. ('the car' is the indirect object, 'a good clean' is the direct object)

As a flexible clause element, adverbials can be added in various positions in these constructions:

SVA	The man slept peacefully.
ASV	Peacefully, the man slept .
SAV	The man peacefully slept .
ASVO	On Saturday, the man painted the door.
ASVOCA	Actually, the man painted the door yellow in under an hour.

In particular, using adverbials in different positions can create different effects for the reader by emphasising certain information in the sentence. When using adverbials in different positions, it is important to consider what punctuation is needed to make the meaning clear.

The sentences above are all simple – or single clause – structures. The clause element slots can be filled by single words or phrases. However, these clause element slots can also be filled by clauses. Usually sentences include a mix of words, phrases or clauses within each clause element slot, but the following sentences demonstrate how it is possible to use single words, phrases or clauses in these positions.

ASVO – with single words filling each clause element slot:

Excitedly,	Fido	chased	Tibbles.
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ASVO – with phrases filling each clause element slot:

In excitement,	the playful dog Fido	started to chase	the tiny kitten.
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ASVO – with clauses filling the A, S and O slots:

As he barked excitedly,	the playful dog belonging to Mr Smith	started to chase	the tiny kitten, which mewed in fear.
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In the last example, an adverbial clause fills the adverbial slot, while relative clauses post-modify the nouns in the subject and object positions.

Some of the terminology in the National Curriculum links directly to these clause elements: verb (Y2), adverbial (Y3/4), subject (Y5/6), object (Y5/6). Other terminology covers the grammatical constructions that fill these element slots: noun/noun phrase, adverb (Y2), relative clause (Y5). The challenge for teachers is to help pupils to:

- understand how to fill these clause element slots
- develop a terminology for talking about the constructions
- improve their writing through varying and manipulating the component parts of the sentence, considering the effects they are creating.

Understanding how words, phrases and clauses fit together empowers pupils to communicate their ideas in speech and writing. They can experiment with different constructions and decide how effective and appropriate they are in different situations. This is, therefore, inextricably linked with the teaching of different genres and text types.

Progression

The following subject knowledge sections deal with different grammatical features and progression within each strand of the National Curriculum. They highlight potentially tricky aspects of grammar and elaborate on subject knowledge that teachers may find useful. They also consider useful areas of consolidation in the year groups where features are not mentioned, and offer suggestions for how to go beyond the content outlined in the National Curriculum. In particular, the 'tricky bit' sections will help teachers understand any awkward or confusing structures in the texts they are using, enabling them to choose appropriate models for teaching and learning.

In the following charts, the curriculum requirements are shown in blue, while terminology for pupils is indicated in red. Relevant *Sentence Toolkit* images are included in each of the sections. Each curriculum objective and associated terminology appears in the year group/key stage where it should be introduced. It is important that concepts are regularly revisited after initial teaching and terminology is consistently used in all year groups after it has been introduced. Although cohesion and punctuation strands have their own subject knowledge and progression charts, these are both cross-referenced in other strands where they can be incorporated into teaching.

Pupils often write as they speak – for example, using vocabulary such as 'like' and 'sort of'. Within the National Curriculum, there is an increased focus on pupils using Standard English in their speaking and writing. That task is challenging when another dialect is spoken outside school by family, friends, within the community and in popular media. While we should value the rich variation in language that a local dialect provides, it is important that pupils understand that Standard English is necessary for communicating with people outside their dialect area and for specific formal purposes. Once they understand that Standard English is a dialect used for a specific purpose, they have a choice: knowledge of two different ways of communicating and understanding the appropriate time and place for each. The Standard English requirements in the curriculum have been incorporated into the most relevant chart below.

Strand 1: Different ways to construct sentences

Sentences can be simple (single clause) structures, or they can be built up to include two or more (multi) clauses. These can be created through co-ordination or subordination. Sentences also occur in different types: statement, question, command and explanation. Before pupils come into Year 1, they will be encouraged to read and write simple sentences, using phonically decodable and common 'tricky' words. Talking about sentences and what information, words and punctuation marks they contain will help prepare pupils for the writing requirements in Year 1.

Strand 1a: Simple sentences

All full sentences in English must contain a verb, so constructing a simple sentence in its most basic form will require a subject and a verb (SV). The subject position in a sentence is filled by a noun or noun phrase. The verb position may contain a simple verb form, which will consist of one word, or a verb phrase, in which auxiliary verbs are used with a main noun. For example: *The small boy ate.* (noun phrase + present simple verb) or *The small boy was eating.* (noun phrase + past progressive)

You can add to this basic simple sentence structure with objects, complements and adverbials. For example: *The small boy was eating an apple noisily.* (SVOA)

When encouraging pupils to create sentences, it is vital to talk about what information is contained in the sentence and what sense it will make for the reader. Questions around sentences will be included in the year/key stage teaching and learning sections.

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
National Curriculum content: Constructing a simple sentence (or single-clause)	How words can combine to make sentences. Introduction to capital letters, full stops ... to demarcate sentences. Capital letters for names and for the personal pronoun. word sentence letter capital letter punctuation full stop Sequencing sentences to form short narratives.			
Preparation or consolidation		As pupils become more comfortable with the process of writing, help them understand how to extend sentences to provide additional detail. Later sections will explain how this is done, but the process of oral rehearsal, questioning about the information included and what sense is made for the reader is as important in Y6 as it is in Y1. Manipulating the order of the clause elements to create different effects is a focus for discussion – for example, different positions of adverbials, subject-verb inversion. Linking to ideas of composition, pupils will need to know when it is appropriate or desirable to use simple sentences in their writing, to match the text type or create particular effects.		
Tricky bits	Teachers often ask how they can help pupils understand where to place full stops. Before dealing with punctuation, however, pupils must have some understanding of what a sentence is. One of the most important steps in Y1 learning is for pupils to be able to orally compose a sentence and talk about sentences. To use the required terminology <i>sentence</i>, they need to develop some concept of what a sentence is and what information it contains (without requiring the terminology covered above: SVOAC). First of all, pupils need to understand that a sentence tells the reader about something that is happening or what something is like. Starting with a basic sentence consisting of just a subject and a verb (e.g. <i>Jack fell</i>), ask pupils 'Who fell?' or 'What happened?/ What did Jack do?' to get them used to the idea that a sentence is about someone or something who either <i>does</i>, <i>has</i> or <i>is</i> something. Notice the final punctuation and discuss it. Act out some of the sentences and have an action for the full stop. Sometimes in a sentence, someone is affected by the action or information is given about where, when or how it is happening, so you might need to discuss the object of the sentence or the adverbials used, using language pupils can understand. It is the discussion that is important, so they get an idea of what sort of information is included in a sentence. Encourage them to create their own verbal sentences, discuss what they contain and put in a piece of final punctuation with an action. Then, when they start to write, the concept of sentences and full stops will be familiar to them.			

Going beyond
in Y1

Much of the talk in Y1 will centre on actions that are 'done'. It is important not to refer to verbs only as 'doing words', as this will confuse pupils when they come across verbs such as *be*, *seem* and *have*, but questions will certainly be based on what someone is doing in the sentence. Moving beyond this involves discussing sentences where verbs fit into the 'having' or 'state of being' sense (e.g. *Maisie has a cold* or *Teddy is happy*). Pupils need to understand that these types of verbs (e.g. *has* and *is*) fill the same slot in the sentence as a word that can be said to have been 'done'.

Strand 1b: Co-ordination and subordination

Compound sentences are formed when two clauses are joined using a co-ordinating conjunction. Each clause will contain a verb or verb phrase and, although the clauses may not be the same length or contain exactly the same clause elements, they are considered grammatically equal – one is no more important than the other. For example: *Jack played on the slide and Sam climbed the tree.*

If the subject is the same in both clauses, we often omit the subject in the second clause. For example: *Dad washed the car and mowed the lawn.*

The main co-ordinating conjunctions are: *and*, *but*, *or*, (*and*) *then*, *yet* and *nor*. In a compound sentence, the conjunction always remains between the two clauses. Even if the clauses can be put in a different order the position of the conjunction does not change – it is not 'fixed' to either clause, but merely links the two together.

Complex sentences also contain two or more clauses, but here one is the main clause and additional clauses are subordinate. A subordinate clause cannot stand on its own as a sentence. Sometimes subordinate clauses may start a sentence; sometimes they may be positioned at the end of a sentence and sometimes they may be embedded within the sentence.

There are different types of subordinate clause: adverbial, relative and nominal. Adverbial clauses fill an adverbial slot in a sentence, relative clauses extend noun phrases and nominal clauses usually occur in subject or object positions in a sentence (see Appendix for further information).

When subordination is first taught to pupils the focus is on adverbial clauses, which are introduced with subordinating conjunctions such as *because*, *when*, *after*, *before*, *if*, *as*, *while*. These clauses can be placed in different positions within a sentence, and pupils will need to experiment with manipulation to investigate the different effects that can be created. For example:

- **When he arrived**, the lights were already on.
- The lights were already on **when he arrived**.

It is important that pupils understand how to demarcate clauses with punctuation. If the subordinate clause starts the sentence, a comma is required to demarcate the two clauses. If the main clause starts the sentence, the comma is optional. Pupils should consider whether it is needed to aid clarity and sense for their reader. If the clause is embedded, it will need to be enclosed in commas. For example: *She danced, **as she always had done**, to please the audience.*

Although not mentioned in the curriculum, an effective way of creating subordinate clauses involves the use of non-finite structures. In the chart below, these appear in the 'Going beyond' section and further detail is provided in the Appendix. If using the *Sentence Toolkit*, three additional spanners are provided for these structures.

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
National Curriculum content: Co-ordination and subordination	Joining words and joining clauses using <i>and</i>. Introduction to capital letters, full stops ... to demarcate sentences. sentence capital letter punctuation full stop	Subordination (using <i>when, if, that, because</i>) and co-ordination (using <i>or, and, but</i>). compound verb Use of capital letters, full stops ... to demarcate sentences.	Expressing time, place and cause using conjunctions (for example, <i>when, before, after, while, so, because</i>).  conjunction clause subordinate clause Use of commas after fronted adverbials (where these are fronted adverbial clauses).	Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses (for example, <i>It's raining; I'm fed up</i>). semi-colon colon dash Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity. ambiguity Brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis. parenthesis bracket dash The difference between structures typical of informal and formal speech, and writing.
Preparation or consolidation	Talking about the meanings of <i>because</i> and <i>when</i>. Use these in oral sentences.	Extending oral sentences – giving reasons or talking about timing of actions: <i>Before we ... After he ...</i> Making sure pupils understand the meanings of conjunctions.	Using an increasingly wide range of conjunctions to create complex (multi-clause) sentences. Understanding that commas need to be used in a list of clauses. Making sure pupils understand the meanings of conjunctions. Starting to manipulate clauses to create effects. Explaining how simple, compound and complex structures are used in texts (e.g. subordination for building up description; simple for building suspense).	Making sure pupils understand the meanings of conjunctions. Continuing to develop pupils' understanding around co-ordination as well as subordination. Using compound sentences for effect. Understanding how manipulation of clauses can add to effectiveness and variation in writing. Developing understanding around the appropriateness and effectiveness of simple, compound and complex structures in different text types.

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Tricky bits	Understanding the meaning of the conjunctions used. Understanding that, although these structures occur in a 'stream' in speech, it is important not to use too many clauses in one sentence. Encourage pupils to only join two (maximum three) sentences together with <i>and</i> before they add their full stop.	Understanding the difference between co-ordination and subordination and finding clear, straightforward examples from texts. Using the different <i>Toolkit</i> tools can help distinguish compound and complex sentences. The different ways in which <i>that</i> can be used: relative, adverbial and nominal clauses (see Appendix). This is not a focus of teaching in Y2, but it is necessary for teachers to understand the differences, particularly when choosing examples to model. Pupils may think that a subordinate clause can stand on its own as a sentence. Lots of modelling and talk around the sense of these should help them understand the need for both subordinate and main clauses.	Linking with verb work to help pupils understand that each clause will contain a verb. Understanding when words are acting as a conjunction and when they are acting as a preposition. Some words can be either and the job they are doing will depend on which words follow. For example: <i>He knew he was injured because he was bleeding.</i> (<i>because</i> is a conjunction as it introduces a clause) <i>He knew he was injured because of the blood.</i> (<i>because of the blood</i> is a prepositional phrase; no verb is included, only preposition + noun phrase). When pupils start to understand conjunctions and clauses, they may be confused by the different types of subordinate clause. They will need to know that some are adverbial clauses, which can be used to add information (e.g. how, where, when, why), but others are not and do not fit the pattern of manipulation. For example, in reported speech, where <i>that</i> introduces a nominal clause.	Developing understanding around which subordinate structures are relative clauses and which are adverbial clauses. Understanding how to use a range of punctuation marks appropriately. As knowledge of subordination and alternative punctuation increases, it can be difficult for pupils to make appropriate choices. Overuse of semi-colons, colons and dashes should be avoided and pupils should be encouraged to think about a mix of subordinate clauses, with a variety of word orders: • adverbial clauses starting with main clause • adverbial clauses starting with subordinate clause • non-finite clauses starting with main clause • non-finite clauses starting with subordinate clause • multi-clause structures (e.g. power of three, mix of compound and complex).

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Tricky bits (continued)			There will be two verbs in these sentences, but manipulation of the clauses does not work in the same way as an adverbial clause because the nominal clause is filling the object position in the sentence. For example: <i>He knew that she would be late</i> . We can replace the clause with a pronoun (<i>He knew</i>	
Going beyond	Some pupils may start to use <i>because</i> , <i>when</i> and <i>but</i> in their writing.	Starting to introduce a wider range of conjunctions and encourage pupils to use these orally and in writing.	Manipulation of clauses. Starting sentences with non-finite present participles (-ing).	Non-finite structures using both present and past participles and the infinitive. Manipulation of these to consider the most appropriate/effective construction. Hybrid multi-clause constructions (e.g. mixing compound and complex). Develop clauses using the power of three (e.g. <i>Singing loudly, shouting jokes and giggling hysterically, they annoyed everyone on the train.</i>)

Strand 1c: Sentence types

There are four different sentence types in English:

- **Statements** provide some information to the reader. We can describe these to pupils as 'telling' us something. Most sentences fall into this category and pupils need to know that they are punctuated with a full stop.
- **Questions** ask something. These sentences often start with the words *What*, *When*, *Where*, *Who*, *Why* or *How*, but they can also be formed in different ways, such as beginning with a modal verb, where a pronoun or noun splits the auxiliary verb and the main verb (**Could** we **meet** on Thursday?) or final question tags (*He has arrived, hasn't he?*). They end with a question mark.

- **Commands** order somebody to do something and end in a full stop. The command structure can be used flexibly to deliver an order (*Put it there.*), but also to give advice (*Take care not to rip the paper.*), warn somebody (*Look out for the uneven pavement.*) or issue an invitation (*Come and see us soon.*) They can be used in a polite way, with *please*, to request rather than order (*Please sit down.*)
- **Exclamations** indicate an element of excitement or emphasis and end with an exclamation mark. A complete exclamatory sentence will begin with *What* or *How* (*What a great party that was!*; *How nice to meet you again!*) In dialogue, exclamation marks are often used with words or phrases to express strong feelings or emotions: these are called interjections (*Amazing!*, *Wow!*, *Not again!*)

Once pupils have understood these structures, they should be encouraged to use them in their writing where appropriate.

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
National Curriculum content: Sentence types	Introduction to capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences. Capital letters for names and for the personal pronoun. letter capital letter punctuation full stop question mark exclamation mark	How the grammatical patterns in a sentence indicate its function as a statement, question, exclamation or command. Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences. statement question exclamation command	Introduction to inverted commas to punctuate direct speech. Use of inverted commas and other punctuation to indicate direct speech (for example, a comma after the reporting clause; end punctuation within inverted commas: <i>The conductor shouted, 'Sit down!'</i>) direct speech inverted commas (or speech marks)	The difference between structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing (for example, the use of question tags: <i>He's your friend, isn't he?</i>).
Preparation or consolidation	Developing talk around questions, commands and exclamations. 'Noticing' the different punctuation marks used for questions and exclamations.	Different ways of forming questions. Some ways are more appropriate for speech: • starting with <i>What, When, Where, Who, Why, How</i> • starting with a verb phrase that is split by a noun/pronoun: <i>Is he playing today? Can we have a biscuit? Have you seen it? Did you know ...?</i>	Developing a range of uses for different sentence types in different text types (e.g. questions in information texts). Collecting interjections to use in exclamatory speech, but talking about how these are not full sentences.	Developing a range of uses for different sentence types in different text types, including hybrid texts. Thinking about the appropriateness of these to the purpose/audience. Linking sentence types in texts to the levels of formality required. Link with Standard English. Making links with modal verbs and apostrophes for contractions when writing dialogue.

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Tricky bits		Understanding that the grammatical pattern is different in different sentence types. Understanding the imperative verb in commands. This is the same for each grammatical person, so it does not change in the third person singular like the verb in a statement does. Also there is no subject in a command (although <i>you</i> is implied). Finding opportunities to use the different sentence types. Link to dialogue in fiction, instructional writing and questions in information texts. True exclamatory sentences are rare – most are interjections.	Understanding that dialogue in stories reflects natural speech. Although the different sentence types will all be present, they are not always going to occur in full sentences.	Getting the balance right in texts: • not too many questions in a persuasive piece of writing • using a mix of different sentence types in dialogue, but with a balance of dialogue and narrative • developing instructional writing through blending the imperative voice with authoritative and advisory adverbials. Although we usually create complex sentences with statements, other sentence types can also contain more than one clause. For example, a command main clause can be preceded by a subordinate clause: <i>After you have finished the dishes, phone your mother.</i>
Going beyond		How to give advice in commands.	Developing an authoritative voice in commands.	Make links with cohesion to show how substitution and ellipses (omission) are used in dialogue. This is important to support discussion about appropriate levels of formality and how Standard English is adapted in day-to-day speech.

Strand 2: Nouns and noun phrases

Nouns and noun phrases describe people, objects and places. They fill the subject and object slots in sentences (**The policeman** arrested **the burglar**. SVO). They can also occur in complement positions (**My nephew** became **a fireman**. SVC). They can also be used in prepositional phrases, which means that they often occur in adverbial phrases (**The castle** stood on **a rocky outcrop**. SVA). Sometimes nouns can stand alone in a sentence. For example:

- **Suzie** won the race. (Proper nouns can stand alone.)
- **Sunflowers** can grow very tall. (Many plural nouns can stand alone.)
- **Wool** is useful for making warm clothes. (Mass nouns often stand alone.)
- **History** is interesting. (Many uncount nouns – qualities, substances, processes and topics – can stand alone.)

However, in other situations more than one word is needed to fill the subject or object slot, so a noun phrase must be used. The main noun appears as the head of a noun phrase, but other words can be added before or after the main noun to create the phrase. A complete noun phrase can always be substituted by a pronoun. For example:

- **The smiling man in the moon** disappeared behind a cloud.
- **He** disappeared behind a cloud.

Developing a noun phrase by adding words before the main noun

When pupils start to write, they tend to use basic noun phrases with only the determiners *a/an* or *the* in front of the noun; they may want to write more, but they do not know how to express these additional ideas. It is important to encourage pupils to describe objects, people and places orally at an early stage so that they get used to adding this detail and can apply it in their writing later on.

Determiners, adverbs and adjectives can be placed in front of the head noun. Determiners help define the noun, adjectives are used to describe a noun and adverbs modify the adjective (*my perfectly beautiful necklace*). One or more adjectives can be used before a noun to add detail and build up a noun phrase (*my bright silver necklace*). The following table provides examples of these word classes. You can, of course, use more than one adjective and words do not have to be selected from every column (*my first silver necklace*).

Determiner	Adverb	Adjective	Main noun
a, an, the, this, that, these, those, some, many, my, your, her, our, several, few, last, next, first, fifth, seven, ten	slightly very extremely really exceedingly perfectly surprisingly rather quite considerably	beautiful bright annoying terrifying mysterious wonderful silver famous unsettling peaceful	dream necklace

Developing a noun phrase by adding words after the main noun

There are two ways to develop the noun phrase by adding detail after the head noun – by using a prepositional phrase or by using a relative clause.

Prepositional phrases can make writing more efficient. For example:

A cat was sheltering under the bush. It was drenched and shivering.

The cat under the bush was drenched and shivering.

We know that the emboldened section is the noun phrase because it can be replaced with the pronoun *It*. (For more about prepositional phrases, see Appendix.)

Like prepositional phrases, relative clauses allow you to be more efficient when adding detail to sentences. Relative clauses are introduced by relative pronouns:

Relative pronoun	Example (noun phrase emboldened)
who	My father, who was relaxing in the garden, didn't hear a thing.
whom	Her grandson, whom she doted on, was a funny boy.
which	Their car, which they had only just bought, broke down.
that	The journalist that had written the story won a prize.
where	The town where they lived was always in the news.

Relative pronouns refer to a person or object that has already been mentioned, but they also act like conjunctions joining clauses. Note that sometimes relative clauses are written without the relative pronoun, particularly *that*. For example: *The main reason they came was the football.*

When the clause contains additional information, it is enclosed in commas (referred to as a 'non-restrictive' or 'non-defining' clause). If the clause identifies the noun, commas are not used and the clause is said to be 'restrictive' or 'defining'. For example:

My sister, **who lives in Sweden,** phoned me yesterday.

The relative clause provides additional information about my sister: where she lives.

My sister **who lives in Sweden** phoned me yesterday.

The relative clause identifies which sister phoned me – the one that lives in Sweden.

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
National Curriculum content: Nouns and noun phrases	Regular plural noun suffixes -s or -es (for example, <i>dog, dogs; wish, wishes</i>), including the effects of these suffixes on the meaning of the noun. How the prefix <i>un-</i> changes the meaning of verbs and adjectives (negation, for example, <i>unkind, or undoing: untie the boat</i>). singular plural	Formation of nouns using suffixes such as -ness, -er and by compounding (for example, <i>whiteboard, superman</i>). Formation of adjectives using suffixes such as -ful, -less. Use of the suffixes -er, -est in adjectives. Expanded noun phrases for description and specification (for example, <i>the blue butterfly, plain flour, the man in the moon</i>). noun noun phrase compound adjective suffix Commas to separate items in a list. comma Apostrophes to mark singular possession in nouns (for example, <i>the girl's name</i>). apostrophe	Formation of nouns using a range of prefixes (for example <i>super-, anti-, auto-</i>). Word families based on common words, showing how words are related in form and meaning (for example, <i>solve, solution, solver, dissolve, insoluble</i>). word family Use of the forms <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> according to whether the next word begins with a consonant or a vowel (for example, <i>a rock, an open box</i>). The grammatical difference between plural and possessive -s. Apostrophes to mark singular and plural possession (for example, <i>the girl's name, the girls' names</i>). Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and prepositional phrases (for example, <i>the teacher expanded to the strict maths teacher with curly hair</i>). determiner pronoun possessive pronoun preposition prefix consonant vowel	Relative clauses beginning with <i>who, which, where, when, whose, that</i>, or an omitted relative pronoun. Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity. How words are related by meaning as synonyms and antonyms (for example, <i>big, large, little</i>). relative pronoun relative clause subject object synonym antonym cohesion How hyphens can be used to avoid ambiguity (for example, <i>man eating shark versus man-eating shark, or recover versus re-cover</i>). hyphen (Although <i>hyphen</i> is terminology in Y6, this punctuation mark will be used in word work and writing from Y2 onwards).

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
National Curriculum content: Nouns and noun phrases (continued)			Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition. pronoun possessive pronoun	
Preparation or consolidation	Talking about the <i>who</i> and <i>what</i> in sentences. Pupils need to understand where noun phrases can be placed – particularly subject and object positions. Oral development of noun phrase by adding adjectives. Starting to use adjectives in writing. Using the 'tricky word' determiners from phonics teaching in oral and written sentences. Talking about how these are useful to start a description of someone or something instead of just <i>a</i> or <i>the</i>. Talking about and modelling the use of pronouns to replace a noun to avoid repeating it (link with cohesion).	Developing noun phrase expansion using prepositional phrases (e.g. <i>the man in the moon</i>), in preparation for Y3/4 use of prepositions. Looking at how all of a noun phrase can be replaced with a pronoun, to consolidate knowledge of subject/object <i>who</i> or <i>what</i> in a sentence. Modelling and encouraging correct use of <i>a</i> and <i>an</i> in preparation for Y3/4. Consolidating the use of 'tricky word' determiners and introducing others to vary the start of noun phrases.	Understanding that determiners are part of the noun phrase and the different types that can be used. Learning how to create prepositional phrases that post-modify nouns. Developing noun-phrase expansion for appropriateness and effectiveness in writing. Looking at precise nouns for succinctness and accuracy. Linking work on punctuation for speech to reported speech, which uses a nominal clause, introduced by <i>that</i>, to fill the object position in a sentence. For example: <i>Michael said that he was not interested.</i> (Pupils do not need to know the term <i>nominal clause</i>.)	Continuing to work on correct subject and object pronouns in speech (where Standard English is required) and writing. Choice of noun/noun phrase will also be important when writing more formal texts. Although the only development of noun phrase here is with relative clauses, pre-modification can also be developed using adverbs. Consolidating work on not using noun phrases as a formula, but considering their effect on the reader. Consolidating work on <i>who</i> or <i>what</i> the sentence is about (the subject) and <i>who</i> or <i>what</i> is affected in a sentence (the object). This will lead into work on passive verbs.

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Tricky bits	Using the correct pronoun to replace a noun. Encourage the correct use of Standard English subject and object pronouns. For example, look at the sentence, <i>Me and Dan like them</i>. This is incorrect because the object pronoun (<i>me</i>) is used in the subject position instead of the subject pronoun (<i>I</i>).	Distinguishing between when description is appropriate and when nouns should be more precise. Understanding what suffixes mean as well as how to form the adjective. Encourage the correct use of Standard English subject and object pronouns. Understanding that commas can separate items in a list of words or phrases, which can be adjectives or nouns.	Understanding the difference between the Standard English subject and object pronouns and how this varies from the dialect they may use at home. Understanding that a possessive pronoun replaces the noun phrase (e.g. <i>mine</i>), whereas a determiner is placed at the start of the noun phrase (e.g. <i>my</i>). Determiners are difficult for EAL pupils who do not use these in their first language.	Using synonyms to aid cohesion in a text. Pupils need to understand that using synonyms (and antonyms), plus other closely related vocabulary, varies their writing, but also helps the text make sense for their reader. (Link with cohesion.) Examples: Synonyms: <i>horse, nag</i> Near synonyms: <i>pony, stallion</i> Antonyms: <i>It was the best of times, it was the worst of times ...</i> Connected vocabulary: <i>lion, cat, mane, animal, pride</i>
Going beyond	Using the term <i>adjective</i>. Introduce using adjectives orally and in writing to describe nouns in an SVC structure. • <i>Jim was happy.</i> • <i>Tiger was soft and cuddly.</i>	Although <i>hyphen</i> is terminology in Y6, this punctuation mark will be used in word work and writing from Y2 onwards. Introduce and develop adjectives and adjectival phrases in complementation slots. Use hyphenated adjectives, simple modifiers (e.g. <i>very</i>) and compound structures. • <i>The squirrel was bushy tailed.</i> • <i>The squirrel was very fluffy.</i> • <i>The squirrel was bright-eyed and bushy tailed.</i> Compare these structures with pre-modified nouns to show pupils how they can transform descriptions: • <i>The bushy-tailed squirrel ...</i>	Developing adjectival phrases in complement slots using adverbial modifiers: • <i>The princess was understandably upset.</i> • <i>These cakes are exceedingly good.</i> • <i>He seems remarkably cheerful.</i>	Developing adjectival phrases in complement slots using the power of three: • <i>The scout was quick-thinking, extremely brave and surprisingly calm.</i> Developing punctuation use in relative clauses.

Strand 3: Adverbials

Adverbials are used for many different reasons. Primary pupils begin by using them to provide more information about how, where or when something happened, moving onto 'why' once they have grasped the concept.

- *The princess smiled smugly.* (how/manner using an adverb)
- *The pupils left the room in silence.* (how/manner using an adverbial phrase)
- *The fish swam through the coral like a dart.* (how/manner using an adverbial phrase that is a simile)
- *The dragon flew beyond the snow-capped mountains.* (where/direction)
- *The dragon waited in his cave.* (where/position)
- *The rider reached his destination by the end of the day.* (when/time)
- *The maid collected water every day.* (frequency/time)
- *The postman walked for six hours.* (duration/time)

Adverbials can often be placed in different positions within a sentence, but some positions sound better than others – they flow more naturally. Sometimes we alter the positions to create a specific effect:

- *Mysteriously, the ship disappeared into the fog.*
- *The ship disappeared mysteriously into the fog.*
- *The ship disappeared into the fog, mysteriously.*
- *Into the fog, the ship mysteriously disappeared.*

One particularly effective aspect of this flexibility when using adverbials is the possibility of inverting subject and object in a sentence that starts with an adverbial of place:

- *Under the thick, green growth lurked the crocodile.*
- *Over the hills, through the forests and beyond the river flew the silver dragon.*

Adverbials are also used to connect ideas in a text (so acting cohesively). They can have the following functions:

- addition: *also, furthermore, moreover, in addition*
- opposition: *however, nevertheless, on the other hand*
- reinforcing: *besides, anyway, after all*
- explaining: *for example, in other words, that is to say*
- listing: *first(ly), first of all, finally*
- indicating result: *therefore, consequently, as a result*
- focusing: *only, merely, simply, especially, just*

The table below explains some of the terminology associated with adverbials. This terminology is not required in the National Curriculum but is included to support teachers' understanding.

Adjuncts	- Some adverbials are used to provide information to the reader that is not contained in the subject, verb, object or complement. These are called <i>adjuncts</i> and are integral to the sentence. - They can be single words (<i>quickly, home, almost, away, curiously</i>), phrases (<i>down the street, at the end of the day, extremely angrily, because of the rain</i>) or clauses (<i>when he left the station, as you climb the cliff, if the doctor can see me</i>). - Commas are optional when adverbials are used for adding information and their use depends on clarity and effect for the reader. However, fronted adverbials – whether words, phrases or clauses – are usually demarcated with commas.
Conjuncts	- Some adverbials have a cohesive function, connecting different parts of the text – for example linking a new sentence to a previous sentence or paragraph. These are called <i>conjuncts</i> (or <i>connecting adverbs</i>) and are usually placed at, or near, the beginning of the sentence. (These used to be referred to in some documents as <i>connectives</i>.) - Conjuncts are usually individual words (<i>first, next, finally, meanwhile, furthermore, alternatively</i>) or phrases (<i>in the same way, on the other hand, for example, in the meantime</i>). - When adverbials are used to connect in this way, they always require a comma for demarcation.
Disjuncts	- The third type of adverbial is called a <i>disjunct</i>. These provide information about the speaker's/writer's beliefs or feelings. - Disjuncts can be words (<i>seriously, personally, obviously, understandably</i>), phrases (<i>of course, to be blunt, very wisely, in my opinion</i>) or clauses (<i>it was understandable, which is clearly wrong, I'm telling you confidentially, what is certain</i>). - These require commas to demarcate them from the rest of the sentence.

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
National Curriculum content: Adverbials		Use of -ly in Standard English to turn adjectives into adverbs. adverb	Expressing time, place and cause using adverbs (for example, <i>then, next, soon, therefore</i>), or prepositions (for example, <i>before, after, during, in, because of</i>). Fronted adverbials (for example, <i>Later that day, I heard the bad news.</i>) adverb preposition adverbial Use of commas after fronted adverbials.	Indicating degrees of possibility using adverbs (for example, <i>perhaps, surely</i>). Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph (for example, <i>then, after that, this, firstly</i>). Linking ideas across paragraphs using adverbials of time (for example, <i>later</i>), place (for example, <i>nearby</i>) and number (for example, <i>secondly</i>). Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices. Grammatical connections (for example, the use of adverbials such as <i>on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence</i>). cohesion
Preparation or consolidation	Understanding <i>how, where, when</i> in sentences.	Understanding <i>how</i> and <i>when</i> in sentences to add information for reader. Understanding that the term <i>adverb</i> refers to a single word that fills the adverbial slot. This will prepare pupils for work on phrases and clauses in Y3/4.	Any work on using adverbials cohesively will be preparation for Y5/6.	Consolidating adverbs/ adverbial phrases/ adverbial clauses in preparation for the grammar and punctuation test.

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Tricky bits	Understanding how to express position and time. Pupils do not need to know the term, but they should understand the meanings of many common prepositions (e.g. <i>between, on top of, afterwards, through, across</i>).	Although many adverbs end in <i>-ly</i>, several common ones do not. Pupils will be using words such as <i>now, soon, away, almost, off, fast</i> – and they should understand that these also give information about when, where or how.	In Y3, the term adverb appears again. Although the grammar for this year group covers prepositions (which will introduce phrases) and subordinate (adverbial) clauses, adverbial is not terminology for pupils until Y4. Using prepositions, pupils will create prepositional phrases for adverbial slots; these will occur in different positions (e.g. <i>The haunting cry drifted through the forest. Through the forest, the haunting cry drifted.</i>) Using conjunctions, pupils will create subordinate clauses for the adverbial slots in complex sentences and experiment with manipulating these. (e.g. <i>He was tired when he stopped. When he stopped, he was tired.</i>) The confusion for pupils in Y3 is that many prepositions are also conjunctions. Pupils should understand when the adverbial is a phrase or a clause: • <i>I couldn't see because of my tears.</i> (adverbial phrase) • <i>I couldn't see because I had been crying.</i> (adverbial clause)	Pupils will be exposed to a wider range of connecting adverbials, which are used for different purposes in different text types. They may be unsure which conjunct to use in which text type and end up making inappropriate choices – for example, using more formal conjuncts (connecting adverbs) used for non-fiction texts (<i>furthermore, nevertheless, moreover</i>) inappropriately in fiction.

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Tricky bits (continued)			Pupils may not realise that similes are preposition/ adverbial phrases, introduced by the preposition <i>like</i> and prepositional phrase <i>as ... as</i>. In Y4, teaching takes places around fronted adverbials, which could be single words, phrases or clauses. All will need commas to demarcate them. • <i>Slowly</i>, he swam to the surface. • <i>Like a dolphin</i>, he swam to the surface. • <i>When he could no longer hold his breath</i>, he swam to the surface.	
Going beyond		Encouraging pupils to use prepositional phrases to give information about how, where and when an action is taking place. (They do not need the terminology <i>preposition</i> at this stage.) Talking about how similes show how something is happening.	Distinguishing adverbial phrases from adverbial clauses. Making links with cohesion when fronted adverbials are conjuncts (connecting adverbs). Where examples are provided in texts, introduce subject-verb inversion after a fronted adverbial of place: <i>Under the thick, green growth lurked the crocodile</i>.	Considering more formal adverbs for cohesion in non-fiction texts (e.g. using <i>specifically</i>, <i>especially</i>, <i>significantly</i>, <i>more importantly</i>) to emphasise information. (See Appendix for chart providing conjuncts used for different purposes.) Developing subject-verb inversion after fronted adverbials of place: <i>Over the hills, through the forests and beyond the river flew the silver dragon</i>.

Strand 4: Verbs

The verb is a key element in a clause or sentence because it handles most of the grammatical workload. Verbs can be varied to show tense and form. Although some simple-tense verbs are a single word, many verb forms require more than one word in the form of a verb phrase. Variation and consistency in the use of verb forms increase as pupils' writing develops.

The components of a verb phrase are the main (or lexical) verb and auxiliary verbs. Auxiliary verbs increase the information around the main verb:

- *she **has been** singing*
- *he **does** look cross*
- *it **will be** built*
- *they **could have been** stopped.*

Auxiliary verbs can be divided into two types:

- **primary auxiliaries**, which can also occur alone as main verbs (*be, have, do*).
- **modal auxiliaries**, which are used to build up verb phrases and contain an element of possibility, probability, intention, ability, obligation, etc. (*will, may, can, must, ought (to), shall, might, could, would, should*). The future tense is created using the modal verbs *will* and *shall*.

The lexical meaning of the verb provides certain information, but there is much more we can glean.

The position reveals:

- who the subject/agent is
- who is being affected (object).

The tense and form reveal:

- when the action takes place, or when state of existence or ownership takes place (*He jumps the fence. She will be happy. He owned a car. The baby is crying.*)
- an element of duration or frequency (present perfect: *She has always cycled to work*; past perfect: *He had been prime minister.*)
- the speaker's or writer's feelings, including emphasis (*We ought to write to them. We must refuse. We could attend the meeting.*)
- negative action/existence (*He can't go to the ball. She is not content.*)
- clues as to sentence type (statement, question, command) indicated by word order and form of verb – for example, imperative (*Eat it.*), modal forms in questions (*Did you know about it?*)

One difficulty teachers face is that most speech and authentic texts use a mixture of verb forms and sometimes tenses. This allows subtle yet complex information to be conveyed in a natural way, but when teaching verbs it is important to consider which parts of the text to focus on to avoid confusing pupils with differing forms. Selecting carefully will provide opportunities to experiment with these examples and help pupils use them independently where appropriate.

Forms and tenses

The **simple** form:

- **present simple:** *I look, he cooks, they sing* (third person in the present simple is indicated by -s or -es suffixes: *she sings, he does*. The person is also indicated in the irregular verbs *be* and *have*: *I am, you are, it is, she has, we have*.) The present simple often portrays habitual actions and general truths.
- **past simple:** *I looked, he cooked, they sang* (irregular past tenses do not use the -ed suffix). In the present simple, the action is over and done with.

The **progressive** form indicates an action that is or was continuing. It incorporates a form of the verb *be* as an auxiliary in the present or past tense:

- **present progressive:** *I am looking, he is cooking, they are singing*.
- **past progressive:** *I was looking, he was cooking, they were singing*.

The main verb in the -ing form is called the *present participle*.

The **perfect** form incorporates a form of the verb *have* as an auxiliary in the present or past tense. It indicates actions that have been completed, but the effects or consequences of these actions are still relevant at the time referred to:

- **present perfect:** *I have looked, he has cooked, they have sung*. (The timescale referred to is up to the present and the possibility exists that the action can be continued.)
- **past perfect:** *I had looked, he had cooked, they had sung*.

The main verb in this -ed or irregular past tense form is called the *past participle*.

Modals express:

- ability (be able to or capable of): *We can/could go to the ball*.
- permission (be allowed or permitted to): *Can/may/might we go to the ball?*
- possibility (theoretical or factual): *We can/could go to the ball*.
- intention (willingness): *We shall/will/would go to the ball*.
- insistence: *We shall/will go to the ball*.
- obligation/compulsion: *We should/must/have to/ought to go to the ball*.
- prediction (specific, timeless, habitual): *We will go to the ball*.
- probability: *We would go to the ball*.
- necessity: *We need to/have to/must go to the ball*.

The passive voice

We usually write in the active voice. In this structure, the subject of the sentence is the person or thing doing the action and the object is what is being affected by the action. For example:

The dog chased the cat.
S V O

The passive voice uses a form of the verb *be* and the past participle of the main verb (see Appendix for a list of irregular past participles). In the passive voice, the person or thing being affected by the action becomes the subject of the sentence; the person or thing doing the action may or may not be provided. For example:

The cat **was chased**.

S V (past passive form)

The cat **was chased** **by the dog**

S V A (preposition + the agent)

The list below shows the most common variations of different tenses and verb forms in the passive, using the main verb constructed.

- *It is constructed.* (simple present passive)
- *It was constructed.* (simple past passive)
- *It is being constructed.* (present progressive passive)
- *It was being constructed.* (past progressive passive)
- *It has been constructed.* (present perfect passive)
- *It had been constructed.* (past perfect passive)
- *It will be constructed.* (simple future passive)
- *It is going to be constructed.* (simple future passive (is going to))
- *It could have been constructed.* (conditional present perfect passive)

Pupils should understand that the passive is used in more formal writing and that it is often used to distance the writer from the content being presented. In some cases this enables the writer to 'hide' responsibility. Of course, when writing, we may not know who the agent is and cannot include this information in a sentence. For example, in journalistic writing the perpetrator of a crime may not be known (*The statue was damaged last night, at around ten*). The passive may also be used if the agent is irrelevant to the text or to focus on the person or thing being affected (*Stonehenge was built thousands of years ago*).

Subjunctive

Verbs in the subjunctive mood are used to express a hypothetical situation or one in which something is demanded, recommended, hoped for or expected. It is only used in formal writing.

There are different ways of forming the subjunctive (see appendix). It is likely that teaching at Year 6 will focus on using subordinate clauses introduced by *if*, which express a hypothetical situation: *If ... were ...*. In these structures, the first and third person singular past form *was* is changed to *were*. (*If he were a better swimmer, he would have won the race.; If I were to leave, I would miss the final speech.*)

Although Appendix 2 of the National Curriculum does not specifically state that **present/past progressive**, **present perfect** and **subjunctive** forms are terminology for pupils, these terms do appear in the sample KS2 grammar, punctuation and spelling test. They are therefore included here where the form is first introduced to pupils.

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
National Curriculum content: Verbs	Suffixes that can be added to verbs where no change is needed in the spelling of root words (e.g. <i>helping, helped, helper</i>). How the prefix <i>un-</i> changes the meaning of verbs and adjectives (negation, for example, <i>unkind</i>, or undoing: <i>untie the boat</i>).	Correct choice and consistent use of present tense and past tense throughout writing. Use of the progressive form of verbs in the present and past tense to mark actions in progress (for example, <i>she is drumming, he was shouting</i>). verb tense (past, present) present progressive past progressive Apostrophes to mark where letters are missing in spelling. apostrophe	Use of the present perfect form of verbs instead of the simple past (for example, <i>He has gone out to play</i> contrasted with <i>He went out to play</i>). present perfect Standard English forms for verb inflections, instead of local spoken forms (for example, <i>we were</i> instead of <i>we was</i>, or <i>I did</i> instead of <i>I done</i>).	Indicating degrees of possibility using modal verbs (for example, <i>might, should, will, must</i>). Use of the passive to affect the presentation of information in a sentence (for example, <i>I broke the window in the greenhouse</i> versus <i>The window in the greenhouse was broken (by me)</i>). Converting nouns or adjectives into verbs using suffixes (for example, <i>-ate; -ise; -ify</i>). Verb prefixes (for example, <i>dis-, de-, mis-, over- and re-</i>). modal verb active passive subjunctive cohesion The difference between vocabulary typical of informal speech and vocabulary appropriate for formal speech and writing (for example, <i>find out – discover; ask for – request; go in – enter</i>). Linking ideas across paragraphs using tense choices (for example, <i>he had seen her before</i>). Recognise and use vocabulary and structures that are appropriate for formal speech and writing, including the subjunctive.

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Preparation or consolidation	Understanding when to use present and past tenses, as part of suffix teaching. Creating oral sentences in the past and present. Recognising and using the past tense for stories. Encouraging the correct use of subject–verb agreement.	Consolidating <i>doing/being/having</i> verbs. Encouraging the correct use of subject–verb agreement and Standard English forms for verb inflections. Consolidating and developing the range of irregular verbs pupils know.	Encouraging the correct use of subject–verb agreement, particularly where these conflict in some dialects. Although teaching of modal verbs does not come until Y5, pupils will be using these in their speech and writing. In preparation, they should be encouraged to think about and discuss the differences in meaning when they use different modal verbs.	Consolidating understanding around all the studied verb forms and when it is most appropriate to use them. Take opportunities to notice and discuss these in texts being studied. (Link the teaching of modal verbs to the use of apostrophes for contractions where applicable.)
Tricky bits	Understanding which part of the sentence is the verb. Lots of talk will be needed to establish this. Using the Toolkit hammer with an action will help pupils identify the patterns in a sentence. Using the suffix <i>-ing</i> requires pupils to understand the auxiliaries of the verb <i>be</i>. Using the suffix <i>-ed</i>, pupils will sometimes try to regularise irregular verbs. These need to be corrected and explained. Refer to verbs as 'being' and 'having', as well as 'doing' words.	Teachers need to be able to identify texts with good examples of the present and past simple, and the present and past progressive. Many good texts will have a sophisticated mixture of verb forms and tenses, so examples should be chosen carefully. Teachers should also understand that the term <i>progressive</i> is the same as <i>continuous</i>, which is terminology used in some grammar texts (including the <i>Sentence Toolkit</i>). Pupils need to be able to use and understand how the verb <i>be</i> alters as auxiliary in both the present and past tenses.	Using the correct Standard English forms of the past participle where these conflict with local dialect/home use. Understanding how the verb <i>have</i> alters as an auxiliary in the present tense. Understanding past participles of the irregular verbs (see Appendix for list). Understanding how the present perfect differs in meaning to other past tense forms of the verb. This will require modelling and discussion around the meanings.	Pupils may have difficulty understanding use of the subjunctive, particularly if they are already struggling with subject–verb agreement (<i>was/were</i>).

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Going beyond		Look at how the verb <i>have</i> is formed in the present tense, with a different spelling for third person singular.	Once pupils understand the present perfect, develop the use of the past perfect, particularly where there are examples in the texts being used.	More able writers could investigate different forms of the passive voice and subjunctive mood. (See appendix for subject knowledge around these items.)

Strand 5: Cohesion

It is important to link and sequence ideas in writing, so that a text flows well and makes sense to a reader. Different language devices are used to hold a text together and signpost to the reader how different parts relate to one another. This is called 'cohesion'. Where possible and relevant, the objectives in this strand have been linked to other strands. Some cohesive objectives will need to be covered within teaching and learning sequences, as they refer to links within and between sections of the text, rather than purely to sentence construction.

In the primary National Curriculum, cohesion covers verb tense consistency, appropriate choice of pronoun to avoid repetition, adverbials and lexical cohesion, such as the use of synonyms and antonyms.

Verb tense and form

Cohesion can be established by using the same tense/form throughout a piece of writing and by selecting the correct tense – for example, when expanding verb phrases. Experienced writers move between tenses and forms in a sophisticated way for effect, but pupils often find maintaining consistency more problematic. They may start a recount in the past tense and move into the present tense later, or slip into the past tense in a set of instructions when they started in the imperative.

Pronouns

Personal and possessive pronouns can be used to avoid repetition:

- *My husband has retired. He is enjoying himself.*
- *I found a pencil case in the playground. Sophie told me it was hers.*

Relative pronouns can be used to refer to something that has already been mentioned:

- *The red car, which was being driven by the robber, screamed up the road.*
- *The politician, who was not very popular, left the venue through the back door.*

Many determiners can also act as pronouns and replace a noun:

- **demonstratives:** *this, that, these, those* (King Henry had already married twice, but **that** didn't stop him marrying again. Would you like some cakes? Yes, I'll take **these** please.)
- **universal determiners:** *each, every, all, both* (I went into the shop to choose between two books and came out with **both**.)
- **partitive determiners:** *some, someone, anyone, anybody, no one, none, neither, either* (I saw a red and a blue blouse, but I didn't like **either**.)
- **quantifiers:** *many, much, few, several* (There were **many** pupils on the beach and I knew **several**.)
- **numerals – cardinal and ordinal:** *one, the first* (I have lots of friends, but she was **the first**.)

Adverbials

Conjuncts (connecting adverbs) link sentences and paragraphs throughout a text to help a reader follow meaning (see p. 24). For example, in instructions, using conjuncts will help the reader with the sequencing of the information: *first, next, after that, finally*. In a persuasive text, readers can be assisted through the use of signalling words: *moreover, in addition, furthermore*.

It is important to consider which conjuncts (connecting adverbs) are appropriate to the text type. The conjuncts used in a story are not necessarily appropriate for an explanation or a non-chronological report.

Lexical cohesion

Lexical cohesion relies on vocabulary choice. At primary level, this involves:

- repetition of vocabulary
- synonyms or near synonyms/antonyms
- superordinates (words that include the meaning of another word, e.g. *cat* is a superordinate word for *lion*)
- words that are closely related to the item being discussed.

The following paragraph shows examples of lexical cohesion: repetition of *lion*, a synonym in the *king of animals*, *cat* as a superordinate. It also includes the word *mane*, which is closely associated with lions. *Regal* and *king* are also related.

Lions are unique in that they are the only cats to live in groups (prides). Male lions are also the only cats that have manes, giving them a regal appearance that has earned them the title 'king of the beasts'. This king of animals is a top predator.

Ellipsis

Ellipsis is the omission of words that would otherwise be repeated. It is more common in speech than in writing, but some of the examples of ellipsis below may be useful in teaching cohesion in dialogue.

Noun/pronoun ellipsis:

- In compound sentences, often the subject is omitted before the second verb (*The dog barked and jumped*).
- The noun can also be omitted by using *have*. (*She probably has a temperature – she certainly looks as if she has*).

Verbal ellipsis (usually lexical verb, although auxiliaries can be ellipted):

- *Have you been playing? Yes I have.*
- *What have you been doing? Swimming.*
- If you have just described an action or a state and you want to introduce a new, contrasting subject, use *than + the auxiliary verb*. (*She can see better than he can. He was earning more than I was.*)
- To change the verb tense/form or modality (*They would stop if they could. Very few of us want to go, although we know we must. The poster should have created more interest than it has.*)
- Often used in the passive (*I'm sure it was repeated on the news. It must have been.*)
- *Do* is often used (*Do the pupils want to come? I think they do. Does the parrot talk? Yes he does. No he doesn't.*)

Adjective ellipsis (when using the verb be):

- *I think you are right. I'm sure I am.*
- *She was great! I thought she might be.*

Clausal ellipsis:

- *He advised her to visit a doctor, but she couldn't afford to.* (infinitive verb)
- *Do you think parents know how long planning takes? No, I don't think they do.*
- *Has she got any idea about how he feels? She should (have).*
- *Will she be happy there? She'd better (be).*
- *Who was going to switch on the Christmas lights? The mayor was.*

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
National Curriculum content: Cohesion	Sequencing sentences to form short narratives. (To be taught through teaching and learning sequences.)	Correct choice and consistent use of present tense and past tense throughout writing. (Link with teaching of verbs.) tense (past, present)	Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition. (Link with teaching of noun/noun phrases.) pronoun possessive pronoun Introduction to paragraphs as a way to group related material. Headings and sub-headings to aid presentation. Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme. (To be taught through teaching and learning sequences.)	Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph (for example, <i>then, after that, this, firstly</i>) (Link with teaching of adverbials.) Linking ideas across paragraphs using adverbials of time (for example, <i>later</i>), place (for example, <i>nearby</i>) and number (for example, <i>secondly</i>) or tense choices (for example, <i>he had seen her before</i>). (Link with teaching of adverbials and verbs.) How words are related by meaning as synonyms and antonyms (for example, <i>big, large, little</i>). (Link with teaching of noun/noun phrases.) synonym antonym

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
National Curriculum content: Cohesion (continued)				Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: repetition of a word or phrase, grammatical connections (for example, the use of adverbials such as <i>on the other hand</i>, <i>in contrast</i>, or <i>as a consequence</i>) and ellipsis. (Link with various strands and also to be taught in teaching and learning sequences.) Layout devices (for example, headings, sub-headings, columns, bullets, or tables, to structure text). (To be taught through teaching and learning sequences.) cohesion
Preparation or consolidation	Preparing pupils for Y2 by noticing when the past and present tenses are used in different text types. (Link with verb strand.)	Consolidating pronoun use.	Consolidating pronoun use and linking with Standard English so that the correct subject and object pronouns are used. Start considering how nouns with similar meanings can be used to vary writing (e.g. <i>girl</i>, <i>child</i>, <i>youngster</i>). The term <i>synonym</i> is not needed until Y5/6. (Link with noun/noun phrase strand.)	Consolidating work on adverbials, particularly those that refer to something that has happened earlier in the text or those that help sequence information.

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Tricky bits	Making sure pupils understand that sequencing information will help their reader understand what they want to say in a story. Noticing and developing their own range of words to help sequence stories (e.g. <i>the next day, later, after</i>). (Link with adverbial strand.) Making sure the correct pronouns are used to avoid too much repetition of nouns. (Link with noun/noun phrase strand.)	Keeping tense consistent throughout a text, particularly in stories where dialogue is used. The narrative is likely to use the past tense, but dialogue usually uses the present tense. Pupils will need help checking that they have returned to past tense in the narrative. (Link with verb strand.) Tense consistency may be difficult for some EAL pupils.	Cohesion will link with work on fronted adverbials, although most of the Y3/4 adverbial work will involve adverbials as additional information. Teachers should be clear about the function of these different types of adverbials (see 'Ways of connecting ideas' in the Appendix). Pupils will need to remember to use a comma after fronted adverbials. (Link with adverbial strand.)	Understanding the meaning of some of the conjuncts (connecting adverbs) (e.g. <i>furthermore, nevertheless</i>). (Link with adverbial strand.) Understanding which conjuncts (connecting adverbs) are appropriate for different text types. It will help to collect appropriate conjuncts (connecting adverbs) for each text type and discuss how they help the text to flow for the reader. (Link with adverbial strand.) Pupils may have been told not to repeat themselves, so using repetition for cohesion and effect will require good examples in texts and discussion around how these are used. Ellipsis as an alternative to repetition can be introduced when writing dialogue. Pupils should problem- solve examples to decide what information has been missed out and how the structure works.
Going beyond	Developing a range of words to help sequence non-fiction texts (e.g. instructions, recounts). (Link with adverbial strand.)		Developing adverbials for cohesion where appropriate to the text type. More able writers can start collecting a range of conjuncts (connecting adverbs) for different purposes. (Link with adverbial strand.)	More able writers can develop their use of ellipsis in dialogue. Developing wider understanding of how synonyms, antonyms and superordinates can be used to write cohesively. (Link with noun/noun phrase strand.)

Strand 6: Punctuation

Punctuation should always be taught in the context of writing for a particular purpose and audience. Where relevant, the National Curriculum punctuation requirements have been embedded in the progression charts above – for example, commas in a list when teaching pupils to add more than one adjective into a noun phrase. This will help pupils understand where and when punctuation is correct or appropriate. Other punctuation marks should be covered when the text being used exemplifies them well, so they will be linked to particular teaching and learning sequences.

Punctuation is a system of symbols and marks that help organise writing and make its meaning clear. When we speak, in addition to the words we use, our listener can use a range of cues to help make sense of what we say: expression, tone, volume, body language, etc. All of these aid meaning. This is often much more than comprehension of the words and includes the emotional content and nuances of the message. In writing, however, these signals are not available – punctuation marks are used to clarify the full meaning of a message.

Full stops

A full stop is used to mark the end of a sentence that expresses a statement. In a simple sentence, a statement consists of one clause and contains one verb or verb phrase. If a sentence contains more than one clause, it is a compound or complex sentence and will include one of the ways of joining clauses (see below), or a semi-colon or colon.

Question marks

A question mark is used at the end of a sentence that forms a direct question. If an indirect question is written – for example, in reported speech – then the sentence becomes a statement and a full stop should be used:

- *What's for breakfast?*
- *She asked what was for breakfast.*

Exclamation marks

Exclamation marks are generally used in writing to denote the emphasis or feeling (often surprise) that would be expressed in the spoken words.

Sentences that are exclamations (beginning with *What* or *How*) are usually punctuated with an exclamation mark: *How good to meet you!*; *What a great party this is!* Very often these expressions of emphasis and surprise are used in dialogue and are not always represented by full sentences (in the manner of natural speech). For this reason we often use exclamation marks with single words (sometimes called interjections) or phrases (*Awesome! Fantastic! Wow! Nice dress! Great party! What a day! Goodness me!*).

Some commands have exclamation marks (*Run!*, *Don't do that!*) This is particularly common in dialogue, or where a writer wants the reader to understand the urgency or curtness of the order. It is less common in longer imperative structures, such as instructions: *Check the consistency of the mixture after half an hour.*

In addition to dialogue, exclamation marks are often seen in narrative structures to highlight onomatopoeic words: *Pop! Bang! Crash!*

Because exclamation marks are often used to reflect normal speech, they are not generally used when writing formally.

Commas

Pupils should be able to understand three uses of commas.

Commas for listing. The examples below demonstrate the use of commas to separate lists of single words, phrases or clauses:

- *Ben was cold, tired, hungry and irritable.* (single adjectives)
- *He ran home as fast as he could, through the park, past the library and up the hill.* (adverbial phrases)
- *Jemima wanted a new doll, a board game, some pretty clothes and her very own pink bike.* (noun phrases)
- *Talking loudly, giggling hysterically and singing out of tune, they annoyed everyone on the train.* (clauses)

Commas to demarcate additional information. If this additional information is embedded in the sentence, pairs of commas (bracketing commas) are used either side of the word, phrase or clause:

Mrs Smith, who has been with us for four years, will be retiring at the end of the year.

If this embedded information is removed, the sentence will still have its grammatically correct structure:

Mrs Smith will be retiring at the end of the year.

Sometimes the additional information will be placed at the beginning or end of the sentence:

In my opinion, people should never keep wild animals as pets.
People should never keep wild animals as pets, in my opinion.

The additional information *in my opinion* can be removed in both examples and the sentence remains complete.

Commas to demarcate clauses that are integral to the sentence, rather than embedded as additional information. For example, commas should be used to demarcate the two clauses in a complex sentence: *As the guards looked the other way, Robin ran quickly across the passage.* This could be written as two separate sentences (*The guards looked the other way. Robin ran quickly across the passage.*), but if we are going to use the conjunction *as* to join them in a complex sentence, we need a comma between the clauses to demarcate. The subordinate clause *As the guards looked the other way* could not stand as a sentence on its own. Pupils should understand that a comma is required when an adverbial subordinate clause starts the sentence (as it is a fronted adverbial), but it is optional when the main clause comes first. In those cases commas should be used for clarity or to create a specific effect on the reader.

When reading we tend to pause at points when commas are inserted, but pupils should understand that commas are used for the above purposes and not that they are used for a pause.

Apostrophes

Apostrophes are used for contractions and to show possession. Contractions (where one or more letters are omitted) are usually used in informal writing, so pupils should understand that the most appropriate use is in dialogue, plays and forms of non-fiction where writing is more conversational – some recounted texts, advice in instructions, persuasive posters, etc.

The apostrophe should be placed where the letter/s are omitted – *it's* (*it is*), *can't* (*cannot*), *I'll* (*I will*). The apostrophe avoids confusion with complete words that contain the same letters (*I'll* – *ill*, *she'll* – *shell*, *we're* – *were*). Although pupils will see the word and contracted to 'n' in everyday situations, they should be encouraged to use this only occasionally – for example, on an advert.

Pupils will come across apostrophes used for contractions in different types of text, from classic literature (*'twas*, *o'er*) to modern slang, (*nothin'*, *s'pose*, *'cause*, *'fraid*). As in all writing choices, it is essential to talk about the uses and where they are appropriate.

Possessive apostrophes show belonging:

- 's is added to singular nouns (*Jack's bag*, *the cat's dish*, *a year's duration*). This is usually the same for a noun that already ends in an s (*James's football*, *Chris's horse*).
- 's is usually added to irregular plurals that do not end in s (*men's coats*, *children's games*).
- If a plural noun already ends in an s, it only takes the apostrophe (*the footballers' injuries*, *the boys' books*, *both horses' saddles*).
- Pronouns do not need apostrophes (*The dog lost its ball*, *the car is ours*, *it was his loss*, *the pencil was hers*).
- Some names (proper nouns) do not pronounce an additional s in the possessive; the apostrophe comes after the final s of the name. This is often the case when adding an extra s would make the word awkward to say (*Achilles' heel*, not *Achilles's heel*). There is much debate over whether proper nouns ending in a sibilant sound (/s/ or /z/) should take 's or just the apostrophe to indicate possession. When working with pupils, it is best to consistently add 's, unless this makes the word awkward to say.

Pupils should understand that apostrophes are not used to form plurals. However, when reading, pupils may notice apostrophes used to form some numerical plurals, such as dates (*1860's*, *1970's*), which is a US publishing convention.

Speech marks

Also referred to as quotation marks or inverted commas, speech marks are used to mark the beginning and end of speech or a direct quotation. They are usually written or typed in double form, although British printing often uses single speech marks.

If the reporting clause occurs first, a comma should be inserted before the speech begins. Within inverted commas, punctuation should be used in the normal way, with final punctuation included if the character is finishing speaking: *Sarah whispered, 'Do you know where you are going?'; 'Do you know where you are going?' Sarah whispered.*

If the reporting clause is embedded, a comma is used after the first part of speech and a full stop after the reporting clause. The second part of the speech then continues within speech marks: *'I will go first,' said Jim. 'Then you can follow.'*

In a direct quotation, only the punctuation used in the quotation should be copied. Quotation marks can also be used to identify a particular word or phrase in the text that you are referring to: *The term 'noun' refers to a person, an object or a place.* Enclosing a word in quotation marks can also indicate disapproval or sarcasm: *The minister has suggested more CCTV cameras for our 'protection'.*

Brackets

Often called parentheses or round brackets, these are used in a similar way to commas demarcating additional information. Bracketing commas are usually used where there is little interference with the flow of the sentence, brackets can be used for either weak or strong interruption to the flow of text:

- *William Smith (aged 39) won the marathon in record time.*
- *Swedish smörgåsbord (a selection of open sandwiches) is served each day at 1300 hours.*

Brackets are always used in pairs, so the final bracket is included even if the additional information is at the end of the sentence. A complete sentence can be written inside brackets, in which case the full stop is placed inside the final bracket: *(You may not have been aware of this.)*

Brackets are useful for providing additional comment to the reader, not directly connected to the content of the text – for example: *From next term (as you may already be aware) assemblies will take place at the end of the day, rather than the beginning.*

It is important for pupils to understand that brackets should not be overused because they can make the text seem disjointed.

Dashes

Dashes demarcate additional information in the same way as commas and brackets, but they are used for separating information that interferes with the flow of the sentence: *Using metal snares – a barbaric practice – should be banned to prevent further suffering of animals.*

As with commas, if the added information occurs at the end of the sentence, only one dash is used: *Basking sharks have huge jaws, but are actually harmless filter feeders – even though they look similar to a great white shark.*

A dash can also be used when a sentence is suddenly broken off in dialogue: *'Keep on the pavement!' shouted Mum. 'Watch out for that lo–'.* This contrasts with ellipsis use, where speech tails off more gradually.

As with brackets, overuse of dashes should be discouraged.

Hyphens

Hyphens can be used for the following purposes:

- Splitting words that do not fit at the end of a line. Pupils should be encouraged to avoid this as much as possible, but if it is necessary they should think carefully about where the hyphen should be placed. The word should be split as equally as possible, so that there is not a very small part of it on either line, and syllable boundaries should be considered as suitable break points.
- Writing double-barrelled names: *Marie-Claire, Felicity Fenton-Smythe.*
- Writing numbers in full: *fifty-four, four-ninths.*

- In compound words. Would you write *harbour-master*, *harbour master* or *harbourmaster*? Many dictionaries list the last two (without hyphens), although the hyphenated spelling can be seen in print. The rule really is to think about how clear the word is to read and understand, and to follow conventional spelling rules. If pupils are in doubt, encourage them to check in a recent dictionary.
- In compound constructions used to modify/describe nouns. English is an extremely versatile language that enables us to combine words to create effect. Pupils can be encouraged to combine words to develop description, but it is important to consider the sense of the words when combining them this way to make things clear for the reader:
 - *The dragon had shiny scales.*
 - *It was a shiny-scaled dragon.*
 - *The dragon unfolded its jade veined wings.*
 - *The dragon unfolded its jade-veined wings.*
 - *He was a late night waiter.*
 - *He was a late-night waiter.*
- In some prefixed words. Hyphens should only be used if the meaning of the word is unclear without it, or if it makes it easier to read. For example, *co-pilot* and *pre-existing* are the correct versions (copilot and preexisting being difficult to read), but *cohesive* and *preheat* do not use hyphens. Some words can be written with or without a hyphen (e.g. *co-ordinate/coordinate*). This also reflects the more frequent use of the hyphen in British English, but recognises the increase in influence of American English, where hyphens are not used as much. There are some prefixes that usually use a hyphen (*anti-*, *pro-*, *self*, *non-*, *all-*). All prefixes have a hyphen if they are followed by a proper noun (*The British are often accused of being anti-French*).

Ellipsis

The ellipsis is sometimes referred to as an *omission mark* and signifies that the writer has left a sentence incomplete and that information has been deliberately omitted. This device is often used in narrative and enables the reader to draw on their understanding of the text so far – and their knowledge of the world – to infer the consequences for character or plot. It can be used in other text types, such as journalistic writing, to represent an unfinished comment being quoted, but is rarely used in formal writing.

An ellipsis can also be used to denote words, phrases or sentences omitted from a quotation. This can be useful when a passage to be quoted is long or contains information that is not necessary for the purpose of the quote. However, care should be taken that omission of any part of the quote does not alter the original sense or distort meaning.

Semi-colons

This punctuation mark is very much a matter of authorial choice, since other options are possible when considering the way that closely related information can be written using one or two sentences.

A semi-colon can be used to join two full, closely related sentences, instead of using a conjunction or another construction that would create a complex sentence:
Men compete in the decathlon; women compete in the heptathlon.

More than two sentences can be joined with semi-colons, creating a list of closely related sentences: *Nouns denote people, objects and places; verbs denote actions or states of being; adjectives describe nouns.*

Sometimes the second sentence will begin with a connecting adverb (see adverbials on p. 34), which should not be confused with a conjunction: *Many dogs like chocolate treats; however these are not good for their health.*

A semi-colon should be able to be replaced by a full stop, which means that there should be an independent, or main clause either side of the semi-colon.

Semi-colons can also be used for a complicated list containing many items, especially if commas have already been used: *Speakers at the education conference will be Mrs Elizabeth Smith, Professor of English at Marsh University; Dr Chris Candle, Lecturer at Hyde College; Mr Adrian Poster, MSc, Adviser to the DfE; and Mrs Freda Fenton, Member of Parliament for East Drewshire.*

Colons

A colon introduces an explanation or expansion of a statement. It is always written immediately after the statement, with no space, and is never used with a dash or hyphen. A single space should be used before the text continues, unless bullet points or numbers are used on the next line to start a list. Although there is usually a full clause before the colon, the text following the colon need not be an independent clause:

- *If we continue to churn out carbon dioxide into the environment, we will experience problems in the future: climate extremes on a huge scale.* (adds explanation of the problems)
- *He had learnt two important lessons during the game: not to dive without being fouled and not to argue with the ref.* (elaborates what he had learnt)
- *There are many places I would like to visit in Italy: Rome, Florence, Venice, Sienna and Naples.* (expands the information and is also an example of a colon introducing a list)
- *Rome, Florence, Venice, Sienna and Naples: these are some of the places I would like to visit in Italy.* (the expansion is reversed and appears first – this could be introduced to more able writers to enable them to vary sentence constructions, but they should be aware that it should not be overused).

In addition to the above formats, colons are used to introduce bullet-point lists. Pupils' non-fiction texts will provide many examples of these. They will also see colons used in play scripts, as a convention for introducing the dialogue a character is to deliver.

Often people are confused about when to use a semi-colon and when to use a colon. To decide which is correct, look to see whether the second sentence explains or elaborates on the first, since in this case a colon should be used. It should also be decided that the two sentences are closely related enough that a full stop would not be the best choice. The differences can be seen in the following examples:

- *Dad was worried; the children were crying.* (The semi-colon is showing that the sentences are closely related and the suggestion is that whatever is worrying Dad is making the pupils cry)
- *Dad was worried: the pupils were crying.* (Here the colon introduces the explanation that Dad was worried because the pupils were crying.)

Bullet points/numbers

A series of bullet points or numbers will enable pupils to attach lists of information. This way of sequencing and laying details out clearly aids the reader in locating information more quickly than if it were written in large paragraphs. Lists are often introduced by some text followed by a colon. The punctuation progression chart shows the National Curriculum requirements and consolidation for each punctuation mark.

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Spaces	Separation of words with spaces.			
Sentence demarcation	Introduction to capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences. Capital letters for names and for the personal pronoun. (Link with teaching of sentence types.) letter capital letter punctuation full stop question mark exclamation mark	Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences. (Link with teaching of sentence types.)	Continue encouraging demarcation of sentences accurately throughout, using capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks.	Punctuating simple, compound and complex sentences accurately.
Commas		Commas to separate items in a list. (Link with teaching of noun/noun phrases.) comma	Use of commas after fronted adverbials. (Link with teaching of adverbials) Continue teaching of using commas to separate items in a list and extend this to work on lists of adverbials.	Brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis. Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity. (Link with teaching of various strands.) parenthesis bracket dash ambiguity Continue teaching of using commas to separate items in a list and extend this to work on lists of adverbials and clauses.

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Apostrophes for contraction	Separation of words with spaces.	Apostrophes to mark where letters are missing in spelling. (Link with teaching of verbs.) apostrophe	Consolidate use of apostrophes for contraction.	Consolidate use of apostrophes for contraction (this will link well with work on modal verbs, especially when writing dialogue). Opportunities linked to work on question tags.
Apostrophes for possession		Apostrophes to mark singular possession in nouns (for example, <i>the girl's name</i>). (Link with teaching of noun/noun phrases) apostrophe	Apostrophes to mark singular and plural possession (for example, <i>the girl's name, the girls' names</i>). (Link with teaching of noun/noun phrases.)	Consolidate use of apostrophes for possession.
Speech			Introduction to inverted commas to punctuate direct speech. Use of inverted commas and other punctuation to indicate direct speech (for example, a comma after the reporting clause; end punctuation within inverted commas: <i>The conductor shouted, 'Sit down!'</i>) (Link with teaching of sentence types.) direct speech speech marks	Consolidate using speech punctuation and layout correctly.

Other punctuation is covered in Years 5 and 6, as follows:

	Y5/6
Other punctuation	Layout devices (for example, headings, sub-headings, columns, bullets or tables, to structure text). (To be taught through teaching and learning sequences) bullet point
	Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses (for example, <i>It's raining; I'm fed up</i>). (Link with teaching of co-ordination and subordination.) semi-colon colon dash
	Use of the colon to introduce a list and use of semi-colons within lists. (To be taught through teaching and learning sequences.) colon semi-colon
	Punctuation of bullet points to list information. (To be taught through teaching and learning sequences.) bullet point
	How hyphens can be used to avoid ambiguity (for example, <i>man eating shark</i> versus <i>man-eating shark</i>, or <i>recover</i> versus <i>re-cover</i>). (Link with teaching of noun/noun phrases.) hyphen