

No Nonsense
Grammar

A complete grammar programme

Years 3 and 4

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The USB stick features PDFs of books to be used in the teaching activities. To access them, please enter the following password: Raintree

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/

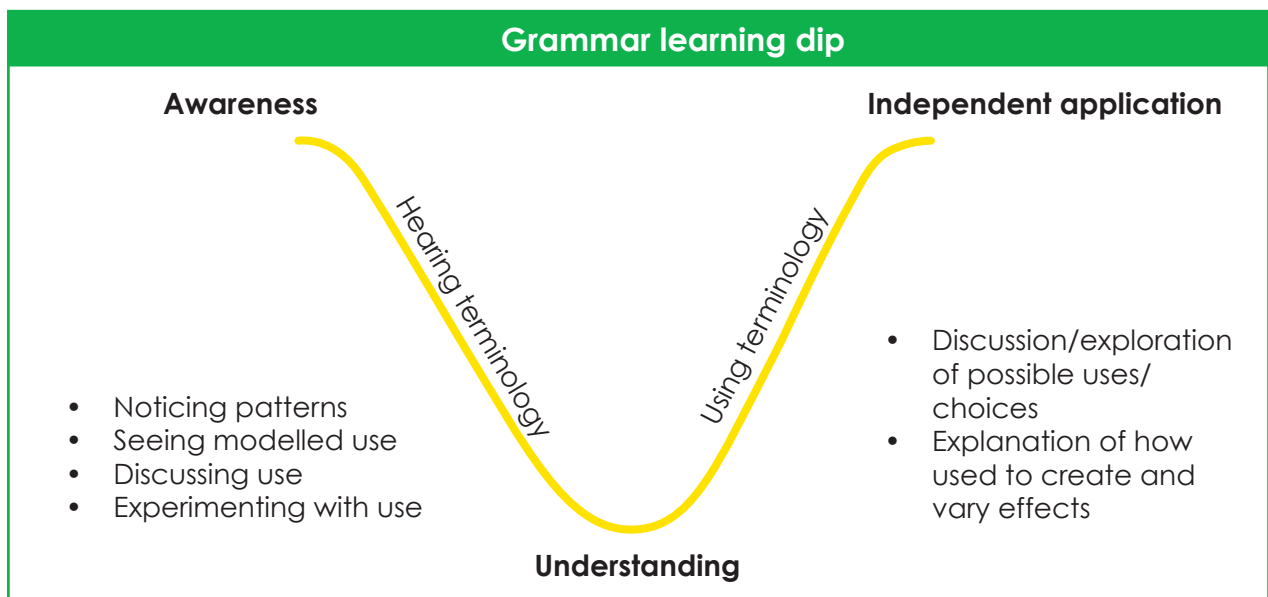
The USB stick

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 painting the door.
SVC	The man was happy.
SVOC	The man painting 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 painting the door.
ASVOCA	Actually , the man painting 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.

ASVO – with phrases filling **each** clause element slot:

In excitement, the playful dog Fido **started to chase** the tiny kitten.

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.

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 sentence)	<p>How words can combine to make sentences.</p> <p>Introduction to capital letters, full stops ... to demarcate sentences.</p> <p>Capital letters for names and for the personal pronoun.</p> <p>word sentence letter capital letter punctuation full stop</p>  <p>Sequencing sentences to form short narratives.</p>			
Preparation or consolidation		<p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p>		
Tricky bits	<p>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).</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p>			

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.








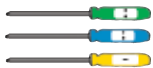

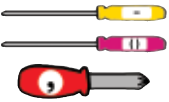
There are different types of subordinate clause: adverbial, relative and nominal. Adverbial clauses fill an adverbial slot in a sentence, relative clauses extend noun phrases and nominal clauses usually occur in subject or object positions in a sentence (see Appendix for further information).

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:


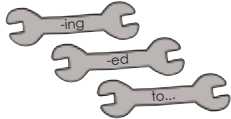
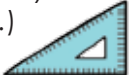
- **When he arrived**, the lights were already on.
- The lights were already on **when he arrived**.

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

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Tricky bits	<p>Understanding the meaning of the conjunctions used.</p> <p>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.</p>	<p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p>	<p>Linking with verb work to help pupils understand that each clause will contain a verb.</p> <p>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).</p> <p>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. <i>how</i>, <i>where</i>, <i>when</i>, <i>why</i>), 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.</p>	<p>Developing understanding around which subordinate structures are relative clauses and which are adverbial clauses.</p> <p>Understanding how to use a range of punctuation marks appropriately.</p> <p>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:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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 this.</i>) The structure here is SVO.	
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.	<p>Manipulation of clauses.</p> <p>Starting sentences with non-finite present participles (-ing). </p>	<p>Non-finite structures using both present and past participles and the infinitive. Manipulation of these to consider the most appropriate/effective construction.</p> <p></p> <p>Hybrid multi-clause constructions (e.g. mixing compound and complex).</p> <p>Develop clauses using the power of three (e.g. <i>Singing loudly, shouting jokes and giggling hysterically, they annoyed everyone on the train.</i>) </p>

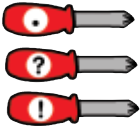
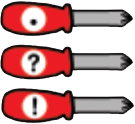


Strand 1c: Sentence types

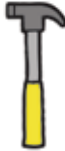
There are four different sentence types in English:

- **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	<p>Introduction to capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences.</p> <p>Capital letters for names and for the personal pronoun.</p> <p>letter capital letter punctuation full stop question mark exclamation mark</p> 	<p>How the grammatical patterns in a sentence indicate its function as a statement, question, exclamation or command.</p> <p>Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences.</p> <p>statement question exclamation command</p> 	<p>Introduction to inverted commas to punctuate direct speech.</p> <p>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>)</p> <p>direct speech inverted commas (or speech marks)</p> 	<p>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>).</p> 
Preparation or consolidation	<p>Developing talk around questions, commands and exclamations.</p> <p>'Noticing' the different punctuation marks used for questions and exclamations.</p>	<p>Different ways of forming questions. Some ways are more appropriate for speech:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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> 	<p>Developing a range of uses for different sentence types in different text types (e.g. questions in information texts).</p> <p>Collecting interjections to use in exclamatory speech, but talking about how these are not full sentences.</p>	<p>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.</p> <p>Linking sentence types in texts to the levels of formality required. Link with Standard English.</p> <p>Making links with modal verbs and apostrophes for contractions when writing dialogue.</p>

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Tricky bits		<p>Understanding that the grammatical pattern is different in different sentence types.</p> <p>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 you is implied). </p> <p>Finding opportunities to use the different sentence types. Link to dialogue in fiction, instructional writing and questions in information texts.</p> <p>True exclamatory sentences are rare – most are interjections.</p>	<p>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.</p>	<p>Getting the balance right in texts:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 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. <p>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></p>
Going beyond		<p>How to give advice in commands.</p>	<p>Developing an authoritative voice in commands.</p>	<p>Make links with cohesion to show how substitution and ellipses (omission) are used in dialogue.</p> <p>This is important to support discussion about appropriate levels of formality and how Standard English is adapted in day-to-day speech.</p>

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.*

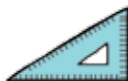
When the clause contains additional information, it is enclosed in commas (referred to as a 'non-restrictive' or 'non-defining' clause). If the clause identifies the noun, commas are not used and the clause is said to be 'restrictive' or 'defining'. For example:

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

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
National Curriculum content: Nouns and noun phrases			<p>Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition.</p> <p>pronoun possessive pronoun</p> 	
Preparation or consolidation	<p>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.</p> <p>Oral development of noun phrase by adding adjectives.</p> <p>Starting to use adjectives in writing.</p> <p>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>.</p> <p>Talking about and modelling the use of pronouns to replace a noun to avoid repeating it (link with cohesion).</p>	<p>Developing noun phrase expansion using prepositional phrases (e.g. <i>the man in the moon</i>), in preparation for Y3/4 use of prepositions.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>Modelling and encouraging correct use of <i>a</i> and <i>an</i> in preparation for Y3/4.</p> <p>Consolidating the use of 'tricky word' determiners and introducing others to vary the start of noun phrases.</p>	<p>Understanding that determiners are part of the noun phrase and the different types that can be used.</p> <p>Learning how to create prepositional phrases that post-modify nouns.</p> <p>Developing noun-phrase expansion for appropriateness and effectiveness in writing.</p> <p>Looking at precise nouns for succinctness and accuracy.</p> <p>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>.)</p>	<p>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.</p> <p>Although the only development of noun phrase here is with relative clauses, pre-modification can also be developed using adverbs.</p> <p>Consolidating work on not using noun phrases as a formula, but considering their effect on the reader.</p> <p>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.</p>

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Tricky bits	<p>Using the correct pronoun to replace a noun.</p> <p>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>).</p>	<p>Distinguishing between when description is appropriate and when nouns should be more precise.</p> <p>Understanding what suffixes mean as well as how to form the adjective.</p> <p>Encourage the correct use of Standard English subject and object pronouns.</p> <p>Understanding that commas can separate items in a list of words or phrases, which can be adjectives or nouns.</p>	<p>Understanding the difference between the Standard English subject and object pronouns and how this varies from the dialect they may use at home.</p> <p>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>).</p> <p>Determiners are difficult for EAL pupils who do not use these in their first language.</p>	<p>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.)</p> <p>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></p>
Going beyond	<p>Using the term <i>adjective</i>.</p> <p>Introduce using adjectives orally and in writing to describe nouns in an SVC structure.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Jim was happy.</i> • <i>Tiger was soft and cuddly.</i> 	<p>Although <i>hyphen</i> is terminology in Y6, this punctuation mark will be used in word work and writing from Y2 onwards.</p> <p>Introduce and develop adjectives and adjectival phrases in complementation slots. Use hyphenated adjectives, simple modifiers (e.g. <i>very</i>) and compound structures.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>The squirrel was bushy tailed.</i> • <i>The squirrel was very fluffy.</i> • <i>The squirrel was bright-eyed and bushy tailed.</i> <p>Compare these structures with pre-modified nouns to show pupils how they can transform descriptions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>The bushy-tailed squirrel ...</i> 	<p>Developing adjectival phrases in complement slots using adverbial modifiers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>The princess was understandably upset.</i> • <i>These cakes are exceedingly good.</i> • <i>He seems remarkably cheerful.</i> 	<p>Developing adjectival phrases in complement slots using the power of three:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>The scout was quick-thinking, extremely brave and surprisingly calm.</i>  <p>Developing punctuation use in relative clauses.</p>

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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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		<p>Use of <i>-ly</i> in Standard English to turn adjectives into adverbs.</p> <p>adverb</p> 	<p>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>).</p> <p>Fronted adverbials (for example, <i>Later that day, I heard the bad news.</i>)</p> <p>adverb preposition adverbial</p>  <p>Use of commas after fronted adverbials.</p> 	<p>Indicating degrees of possibility using adverbs (for example, <i>perhaps, surely</i>).</p>  <p>Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph (for example, <i>then, after that, this, firstly</i>).</p> <p>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>).</p> <p>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>).</p> <p>cohesion</p>
Preparation or consolidation	Understanding <i>how, where, when</i> in sentences.	<p>Understanding <i>how</i> and <i>when</i> in sentences to add information for reader.</p> <p>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.</p>	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	<p>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>).</p>	<p>Although many adverbs end in -ly, 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.</p>	<p>In Year 3, 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 Year 4.</p> <p>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>)</p> <p>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>)</p> <p>The confusion for pupils in Year 3 is that many prepositions are also conjunctions. Pupils should understand when the adverbial is a phrase or a clause:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <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) 	<p>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.</p>

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Tricky bits (continued)			<p>Pupils may not realise that similes are preposition/ adverbial phrases, introduced by the preposition <i>like</i> and prepositional phrase <i>as ... as</i>.</p>  <p>In Y4, teaching takes places around fronted adverbials, which could be single words, phrases or clauses. All will need commas to demarcate them.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Slowly, he swam to the surface. • Like a dolphin, he swam to the surface. • When he could no longer hold his breath, he swam to the surface. 	
Going beyond		<p>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.)</p> <p>Talking about how similes show how something is happening.</p>	<p>Distinguishing adverbial phrases from adverbial clauses.</p> <p>Making links with cohesion when fronted adverbials are conjuncts (connecting adverbs).</p> <p>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></p>	<p>Considering more formal adverbs for cohesion in non-fiction texts (e.g. using <i>specifically, especially, significantly, more importantly</i>) to emphasise information. (See Appendix for chart providing conjuncts used for different purposes.)</p> <p>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></p>

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)

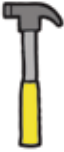


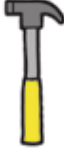
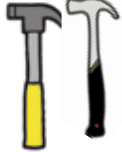
Pupils should understand that the passive is used in more formal writing and that it is often used to distance the writer from the content being presented. In some cases this enables the writer to 'hide' responsibility. Of course, when writing, we may not know who the agent is and cannot include this 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	<p>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>).</p> <p>How the prefix un- changes the meaning of verbs and adjectives (negation, for example, <i>unkind</i>, or undoing: <i>untie the boat</i>).</p> 	<p>Correct choice and consistent use of present tense and past tense throughout writing.</p> <p>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>).</p> <p>verb tense (past, present) present progressive past progressive</p>  <p>Apostrophes to mark where letters are missing in spelling.</p> <p>apostrophe</p> 	<p>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>).</p>  <p>present perfect</p> <p>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>).</p>	<p>Indicating degrees of possibility using modal verbs (for example, <i>might, should, will, must</i>).</p> <p>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>).</p> <p>Converting nouns or adjectives into verbs using suffixes (for example, <i>-ate; -ise; -ify</i>).</p> <p>Verb prefixes (for example, <i>dis-, de-, mis-, over-</i> and <i>re-</i>).</p> <p>modal verb active passive subjunctive cohesion</p>  <p>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>).</p> <p>Linking ideas across paragraphs using tense choices (for example, <i>he had seen her before</i>).</p> <p>Recognise and use vocabulary and structures that are appropriate for formal speech and writing, including the subjunctive.</p>

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Preparation or consolidation	<p>Understanding when to use present and past tenses, as part of suffix teaching.</p> <p>Creating oral sentences in the past and present.</p> <p>Recognising and using the past tense for stories.</p> <p>Encouraging the correct use of subject–verb agreement.</p>	<p>Consolidating <i>doing/being/having</i> verbs.</p> <p>Encouraging the correct use of subject–verb agreement and Standard English forms for verb inflections.</p> <p>Consolidating and developing the range of irregular verbs pupils know.</p>	<p>Encouraging the correct use of subject–verb agreement, particularly where these conflict in some dialects.</p> <p>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.</p>	<p>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.)</p>
Tricky bits	<p>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.</p> <p>Using the suffix <i>-ing</i> requires pupils to understand the auxiliaries of the verb <i>be</i>.</p> <p>Using the suffix <i>-ed</i>, pupils will sometimes try to regularise irregular verbs. These need to be corrected and explained.</p> <p>Refer to verbs as 'being' and 'having', as well as 'doing' words.</p>	<p>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.</p> <p>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>).</p> <p>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.</p>	<p>Using the correct Standard English forms of the past participle where these conflict with local dialect/home use.</p> <p>Understanding how the verb <i>have</i> alters as an auxiliary in the present tense.</p> <p>Understanding past participles of the irregular verbs (see Appendix for list).</p> <p>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.</p>	<p>Pupils may have difficulty understanding use of the subjunctive, particularly if they are already struggling with subject–verb agreement (<i>was/were</i>).</p>

	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):

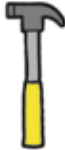


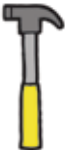


- *Have you been playing? Yes I have.*
- *What have you been doing? Swimming.*
- If you have just described an action or a state and you want to introduce a new, contrasting subject, use *than + the auxiliary verb*. (*She can see better than he can. He was earning more than I was.*)
- To change the verb 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	<p>Sequencing sentences to form short narratives. (To be taught through teaching and learning sequences.)</p>	<p>Correct choice and consistent use of present tense and past tense throughout writing. (Link with teaching of verbs.)</p> <p>tense (past, present)</p> 	<p>Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition. (Link with teaching of noun/noun phrases.)</p> <p>pronoun possessive pronoun</p>  <p>Introduction to paragraphs as a way to group related material.</p> <p>Headings and sub-headings to aid presentation.</p> <p>Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme. (To be taught through teaching and learning sequences.)</p>	<p>Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph (for example, <i>then, after that, this, firstly</i>) (Link with teaching of adverbials.)</p>  <p>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.)</p>   <p>How words are related by meaning as synonyms and antonyms (for example, <i>big, large, little</i>). (Link with teaching of noun/noun phrases.)</p> <p>synonym antonym</p> 

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
National Curriculum content: Cohesion				<p>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.)</p> <p>Layout devices (for example, headings, sub-headings, columns, bullets, or tables, to structure text). (To be taught through teaching and learning sequences.)</p> <p>cohesion</p>
Preparation or consolidation	<p>Preparing pupils for Y2 by noticing when the past and present tenses are used in different text types. (Link with verb strand.)</p>	<p>Consolidating pronoun use.</p>	<p>Consolidating pronoun use and linking with Standard English so that the correct subject and object pronouns are used.</p> <p>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.)</p>	<p>Consolidating work on adverbials, particularly those that refer to something that has happened earlier in the text or those that help sequence information.</p>

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Tricky bits	<p>Making sure pupils understand that sequencing information will help their reader understand what they want to say in a story.</p> <p>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.)</p> <p>Making sure the correct pronouns are used to avoid too much repetition of nouns. (Link with noun/noun phrase strand.)</p>	<p>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.)</p> <p>Tense consistency may be difficult for some EAL pupils.</p>	<p>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).</p> <p>Pupils will need to remember to use a comma after fronted adverbials. (Link with adverbial strand.)</p>	<p>Understanding the meaning of some of the conjuncts (connecting adverbs) (e.g. <i>furthermore, nevertheless</i>). (Link with adverbial strand.)</p> <p>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.)</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p>
Going beyond	<p>Developing a range of words to help sequence non-fiction texts (e.g. instructions, recounts). (Link with adverbial strand.)</p>		<p>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.)</p>	<p>More able writers can develop their use of ellipsis in dialogue.</p> <p>Developing wider understanding of how synonyms, antonyms and superordinates can be used to write cohesively. (Link with noun/noun phrase strand.)</p>

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.

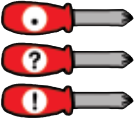
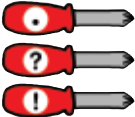


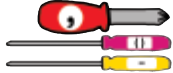
Often people are confused about when to use a semi-colon and when to use a colon. To decide which is correct, look to see whether the second sentence explains or elaborates on the first, since in this case a colon should be used. It should also be decided that the two sentences are closely related enough 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


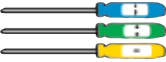



A series of bullet points or numbers will enable pupils to attach lists of information. This way of sequencing and laying details out clearly aids the reader in locating information more quickly than if it were written in large paragraphs. Lists are often introduced by some text followed by a colon.

The punctuation progression chart shows the National Curriculum requirements and consolidation for each punctuation mark.

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

	Y1	Y2	Y3/4	Y5/6
Apostrophes for contraction	Separation of words with spaces.	<p>Apostrophes to mark where letters are missing in spelling. (Link with teaching of verbs.)</p> <p>apostrophe</p> 	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		<p>Apostrophes to mark singular possession in nouns (for example, <i>the girl's name</i>). (Link with teaching of noun/noun phrases)</p> <p>apostrophe</p> 	<p>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.)</p> 	Consolidate use of apostrophes for possession.
Speech			<p>Introduction to inverted commas to punctuate direct speech.</p> <p>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.)</p> <p>direct speech speech marks</p> 	Consolidate using speech punctuation and layout correctly.

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

Y5/6	
Other punctuation	<p>Layout devices (for example, headings, sub-headings, columns, bullets or tables, to structure text). (To be taught through teaching and learning sequences)</p> <p>bullet point </p> <p>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.)</p> <p>semi-colon colon dash</p>  <p>Use of the colon to introduce a list and use of semi-colons within lists. (To be taught through teaching and learning sequences.)</p> <p>colon semi-colon</p>  <p>Punctuation of bullet points to list information. (To be taught through teaching and learning sequences.)</p> <p>bullet point </p> <p>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.)</p> <p>hyphen </p>

Teaching activities

Strand 1: Different ways to construct sentences

Y3/4	Strand 1b: Co-ordination and subordination	
National Curriculum content: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expressing time, place and cause using conjunctions (for example, <i>when, before, after, while, so, because</i>). Use of commas after fronted adverbials (where these are fronted adverbial clauses). 	Terminology for pupils: <i>conjunction</i> <i>clause</i> <i>subordinate clause</i>	
Pupils need to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> use and understand the terms <i>conjunction, clause</i> and <i>subordinate clause</i> when discussing sentence construction understand how to punctuate complex sentences, using commas to mark clauses where the sentence begins with the subordinate clause; recognise where the sentence ends and punctuate accurately understand the meanings of conjunctions and be able to use a wide range of them understand that the order of clauses can be manipulated for effect understand and discuss how different sentence constructions can be used for effect within texts. 		
Activity 1b.7: What's in a sentence? Resources: the range of <i>Sentence Toolkit</i> images used to date		Terminology for pupils: revise terminology from Y1/2
The purpose of this activity is to assess previous learning: understanding of simple sentences, co-ordination and subordination and associated punctuation.		
<p>Teach</p> <p>This activity could be done as a whole class activity or in small groups with supervision. The aim is for pupils to demonstrate what they know about sentence construction and for the teacher to identify misconceptions and priorities for teaching in Y3/4. Use the <i>Sentence Toolkit</i> images to support terminology and concepts. After each step, if pupils are not secure with the learning refer to the activities in Y1/2 to reinforce it.</p> <p>1 Start with a very simple sentence (just a subject and a verb) based on current text or cross-curricular learning (<i>George ran. / The dog barked. / The Romans fought.</i>) Ask: <i>Is this a sentence? How do we know?</i> Make sure they understand that a sentence needs a subject and a verb, and must be a complete unit of meaning. A sentence also needs a full stop and a capital letter.</p> <p>2 Ask: <i>Which slots in the sentence are filled? How could we extend/improve this sentence?</i> Take pupils' ideas and model adding them into the sentence. As you do this, get pupils to use the terminology to explain what they have done. They might suggest:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> adding adjectives (do they also know about noun phrases?) adding adverbial information (where, when, how) – this might be as single words (<i>quickly</i>) or phrases (<i>in the last century, down the road</i>) changing the verb – this might be into a verb phrase (<i>was running, are fighting</i>) adding a conjunction (<i>and, but, or, because, when, if</i>) and another clause. 		

3 Check that pupils can:

- recognise how many verbs they have (hammer)
- punctuate the end of the sentence correctly (screwdriver)
- discuss if they have used the co-ordinating conjunctions (glue gun) or subordinating conjunctions (spanner).

They may not be able to use all the terminology but should recognise the tools and understand that there are two different ways of joining clauses.

Use assessment information from this activity to select and adapt activities from Y3/4 (and previous year groups).

Activity 1b.8: Joining clauses

Resources: clause definition cards and sentence cards (p. 70), *Amphibians* PDF, conjunction spanner and glue gun from the *Sentence Toolkit*

Terminology for pupils:
clause
subordinate clause
conjunction

The purpose of this activity is to:

- use and understand the terms *conjunction*, *clause* and *subordinate clause* when discussing sentence construction.

Teach

Pupils should already know that two simple sentences can be joined with conjunctions to form another sentence and that this creates a sentence with more than one verb. They should also understand that conjunctions join sentences in different ways (glue gun versus spanner).

Show pupils the clause definition cards in the Resources section. They should read each definition and ask any questions if they are unsure of what anything means.

Then show them the sentence cards. First, identify all the clauses in the sentences, reminding pupils how we know they are clauses.

Next, identify the subordinate clauses in the sentences. Remember that in the last sentence, joined by *and*, both clauses could be sentences. Use the glue gun to explain this and revisit the spanner to explain why some clauses are subordinate.

Finally, get pupils to help you identify all the conjunctions in the example sentences.

Practise

Pupils should work in pairs to look at pages 9, 17 and 19 of *Amphibians*. They should copy out (or be provided with the sentences) and label the parts of a sentence with the correct terminology.

Afterwards, they can share with the class using the speaking frame: 'I know this is a ... because...'. You could discuss why the writer has used different types of sentences and conjunctions.

Apply

Pupils and teachers need to use this terminology all the time once it has been taught. Talk about sentence construction, clauses and conjunctions in shared reading/writing and in the context of feedback and improving writing.

Activity 1b.9: Fill in the punctuation

Resources: screwdrivers for end punctuation and commas from the *Sentence Toolkit*, unpunctuated paragraph (p. 71)

Terminology for pupils:
conjunction
clause
subordinate clause

The purpose of this activity is to:

- use and understand the terms *conjunction*, *clause* and *subordinate clause* when discussing sentence construction
- understand how to punctuate complex sentences, using commas to mark clauses where the sentence begins with the subordinate clause; recognise where the sentence ends and punctuate accurately.

Teach

Revisit what the pupils already know about punctuating different sentences. They should understand that:

- sentences need a capital letter and a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark
- commas can be used to separate items in a list.

They may have some knowledge about using commas to mark clause boundaries if the sentence begins with a subordinate clause, or to mark the end of a phrase if the sentence begins with an adverbial phrase.

Look back to the example sentences on the cards from Activity 1b.8 and ask pupils what they notice about the punctuation. Draw out the convention for using commas in a complex sentence (only generally used when the sentence begins with the subordinate clause). Use the *Sentence Toolkit* to reinforce these features.

Practise

Get pupils to make a poster for the classroom or for their book that explains clearly how to use punctuation in different sentences.

Apply

Working individually, pupils should work with a copy of the unpunctuated passage in the Resources section. They should put in the punctuation. When they have finished, pupils should share their version with a partner and discuss any differences, then agree what they think is correct.

Go through this as a class and discuss any difference of opinion. Use the posters the pupils have made to help revisit understanding and apply this in the text.

Activity 1b.10: Patterning sentences

Resources: example sentences from classroom texts, conjunction cards (p. 72), conjunction spanner from the *Sentence Toolkit*

Terminology for pupils:
clause
subordinate clause
conjunction

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand the meanings of conjunctions and be able to use a wide range of them.

Teach

Introduce different subordinating conjunctions as they appear in texts you are using in your English teaching. Identify the sentences where they are used and look at them in detail. For example, look at the sentence: *While her mother was sleeping, the delicate but bold little girl tiptoed towards the door.* You could point out the following:

- *While* emphasises the fact that something is going to happen that the mother will not know about. The reader does not know what will happen, but expects it to be a bit exciting or naughty!
- Adding lots of adjectives before the subject (*girl*) delays the action (*tiptoed towards the door*) even further and helps to build suspense.

Use the conjunction cards in the Resources section and ask pupils to put them in piles according to their meaning – time, place or cause.

Practise

Get pupils to describe the sentences from the texts and explain how they work grammatically. For example:

This sentence is a complex sentence with two clauses. I know this because there are two verbs (was sleeping and tiptoed). The subordinate clause comes first and starts with the conjunction 'while'. The comma marks the fact that the sentence starts with a subordinate clause.

Pupils could make up sentences orally that follow the pattern of this example in another context. For example:

- *While I was eating my tea, my greedy but skinny brother stole my pudding.*
- *While elephants are drinking, the cheeky but useful birds nibble parasites on their backs.*

Apply

In the classroom, build a growing display of examples of the use of different conjunctions in different ways. Alternatively, they could keep a sentences notebook and record their patterned sentences in it. Encourage pupils to use a wide range of conjunctions in their writing.

Activity 1b.11: Uncovering meaning

Resources: pages 12–13 PDF extract from *Healthy Choices: Lunch*, p. 13 extract PDF from *Minerva Mint: The Order of the Owls*

Terminology for pupils:
clause
subordinate clause
conjunction

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand that the order of clauses can be manipulated for effect
- understand and discuss how different sentence constructions can be used for effect within texts.

Teach

Look at pages 12–13 from *Healthy Choices: Lunch* or p. 13 in *Minerva Mint: The Order of the Owls* – or a suitable text from your current English teaching. Model discussing the text and expressing what it makes the reader think or feel. Explain how we can explore the choices the writer has made about sentence construction to uncover the meaning of the text.

Reinforce the key understandings about sentences:

- finding verbs to identify clauses
- recognising different constructions
- recognising different sentence types.

Contextualise this in terms of the impact on the meaning of the text – why did the writer do this?

Practise

Pupils mark extracts from guided reading texts to identify the different features outlined above. They should collect examples of where the variation in sentence construction has clearly developed the meaning of the text and explain how the writer has achieved this.

Apply

Pupils should begin to apply varied sentence structures in their own writing.

Activity 1b.12: Transform it!

Resources: text extracts to transform (p. 73)

Terminology for pupils:

clause
subordinate clause
conjunction

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand that the order of clauses can be manipulated for effect
- understand and discuss how different sentence constructions can be used for effect within texts.

Teach

Show pupils the sentences about tigers in the Resources section. What do they notice about the sentences? (They are all simple sentences.) Ask them to think about how the sentences could be rewritten and joined to show variety in a piece of text and have a greater impact. Model how this could be done with the first two sentences. Stress that sometimes simplicity and contrast are important: a text written all in complex sentences is as weak as one written all in simple sentences.

Practise

In pairs, pupils should transform the rest of the tiger paragraph to show variety and achieve particular effects. It is important that pupils try things out, compare effects, revise and develop their work.

Afterwards, have them share their writing with the class or with another pair and give at least three examples of where they have improved the text through varying sentences.

Apply

Independently, pupils should repeat the activity with the fiction text provided in the Resources section. As an extra challenge, they could try continuing the story.

Y3/4	Strand 1c: Sentence types	
National Curriculum content: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction to inverted commas to punctuate direct speech. • Use of inverted commas and other punctuation to indicate direct speech. 	Terminology for pupils: <i>direct speech</i> <i>inverted commas</i> <i>(or speech marks)</i>	
Pupils need to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understand the conventions used to demarcate speech in writing: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - inverted commas around all words spoken, with punctuation at the end of the speech - end punctuation within inverted commas - use of comma following reporting clause where it starts the sentence (<i>The conductor shouted, 'Sit down!'</i>) • understand that all four sentence types can be used in dialogue • understand how questions can be used for different purposes in information texts. 		
Activity 1c.8: Who said it? Resources: <i>Honestly, Red Riding Hood was Rotten!</i> PDF, speech marks screwdriver from the <i>Sentence Toolkit</i> , punctuation-free paragraph (p. 74)		Terminology for pupils: <i>direct speech</i> <i>inverted commas</i> <i>(or speech marks)</i>
The purpose of this activity is to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understand the conventions used to demarcate speech in writing: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - inverted commas around all words spoken, with punctuation at the end of the speech - end punctuation within inverted commas - use of comma following reporting clause where it starts the sentence (<i>The conductor shouted, 'Sit down!'</i>) • understand that all four sentence types can be used in dialogue. 		
<p>Teach</p> <p>This is best taught during a narrative teaching sequence so that pupils can apply their learning and consider how to create a balance between speech and narrative.</p> <p>Start by reinforcing the way that speech stands out in a text. Split the class into groups to take parts while reading the text <i>Honestly, Red Riding Hood was Rotten!</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The wolf as narrator • The wolf speaking • Red Riding Hood speaking • Granny speaking <p>Encourage them to use silly voices and expressions.</p> <p>After reading the whole story, focus on pages 10–12. Read these pages again and draw attention to the way the speech is recorded. What do pupils notice about how to write speech? As a class, come up with some rules for using speech in stories.</p> <p>Practise</p> <p>Pupils should write a short section of a story including dialogue. This could come from the text you are using for English or they could write the beginning of the story of <i>Little Red Riding Hood</i>, where she has a conversation with her mother about going to Granny's. They should apply the rules you have drawn up.</p> <p>Afterwards, get them to swap their writing with a partner and check each other's use of speech conventions. As a class, revisit any bits they have found difficult.</p>		

Apply

Pupils should punctuate the text extract in the Resources section, including the correct speech punctuation. It may help them to cut up the text first to isolate the sections that they think are speech. They can then reassemble the speech and add punctuation before copying it out.

Ensure that pupils apply the speech conventions in their own writing correctly and do not over-use speech.

Activity 1c.9: Sorting sentence types

Resources: *Honestly, Red Riding Hood was Rotten!* PDF, a range of books linked to your current topic

Terminology for pupils:
direct speech
inverted commas
(or speech marks)

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand that all four sentence types can be used in dialogue
- understand how questions can be used for different purposes in information texts.

Teach

Recap the four main sentence types with the class. Return to *Honestly Red Riding Hood was Rotten!* and collect examples of the different sentence types. Draw attention to the fact that speech can include all of the sentence types.

Practise

Challenge the pupils to look in information books related to your current topic and find any examples they can of questions, exclamations or commands. Discuss the examples they find and display a few.

Focus on questions in information texts. In small groups, pupils should discuss the following question using examples they have previously found:

Why do authors use questions in non-fiction?

Take feedback from the groups and create a class concept map.

Apply

In the context of cross-curricular writing, challenge pupils to include some questions in their writing appropriately. Share some examples and discuss how they affect the text.

Strand 2: Nouns and noun phrases

Y3/4	Nouns and noun phrases	
<p>National Curriculum content:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formation of nouns using a range of prefixes (for example <i>super-</i>, <i>anti-</i>, <i>auto-</i>). • Word families based on common words, showing how words are related in form and meaning (for example, <i>solver</i>, <i>solution</i>, <i>dissolve</i>, <i>insoluble</i>). • 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, a rock, an open box). • The grammatical difference between plural and possessive s. • Apostrophes to mark singular and plural possession (for example, <i>the girl's name</i>, <i>the girls' names</i>). • Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and prepositional phrases (for example, <i>the strict maths teacher with curly hair</i>). • Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition. 	<p>Terminology for pupils:</p> <p><i>word family</i> <i>determiner</i> <i>pronoun</i> <i>possessive pronoun</i> <i>preposition</i> <i>prefix</i> <i>consonant</i> <i>vowel</i></p>	
<p>Pupils need to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understand different ways that nouns are formed (e.g. with prefixes) and how other words are related in word families • understand how to use <i>a/an</i> correctly • understand the difference between plural and possessive s • understand and explain that nouns can be expanded before and after the main noun (pre- and post-modification) • understand that determiners are part of the noun phrase and use a wide range (e.g. numbers, possessives, articles) • understand that prepositional phrases can be used to add information about a noun, after the noun (<i>The glistening, grey dragon with enormous wings...</i> , <i>The sheep in the field were grazing contentedly</i>, <i>His multi-coloured cloak of many colours...</i>) • understand how to link ideas across a text and avoid unnecessary repetition through the use of nouns and pronouns • understand different ways that nouns are formed and how other words are related in word families. 		
<p>Activity 2.14: What do determiners do? Resources: tape measure, paintbrush, comma and full stop screwdrivers from the <i>Sentence Toolkit</i>, <i>Look Inside a Burrow</i> PDF (or similar text), pre-modification chart (p. 75), determiner chart (p. 75)</p>		<p>Terminology for pupils:</p> <p><i>determiner</i> <i>pronoun</i></p>
<p>The purpose of this activity is to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understand that determiners are part of the noun phrase and use a wide range (e.g. numbers, possessives, articles). <p>Teach Begin by revising the learning from Year 2. Remind pupils that simple sentences are made up of clauses with slots for different elements. A common clause pattern (although not the only one) is: nouns/noun phrases (subject) followed by verbs and then other nouns/noun phrases (object):</p> <p><i>The hungry teacher ate a delicious doughnut.</i> (SVO)</p>		

With pupils:

- identify the noun phrases and verb
- make sure they understand which words are adjectives and nouns, and use the tape measure to expand and contract the noun phrases, using the comma screwdriver if more adjectives are added
- replace the noun phrases with pronouns (She ate it)
- talk about the words *the* and *a* (definite and indefinite articles). What do they do in the sentence? How does the meaning change if you swap them in the sentence? Explain that there are other words like these that we use at the start of noun phrases and that they define the noun more clearly (determiners).

Practise

Use the pre-modification chart in the Resources section to orally practise using different determiners to change the sentence and see what it does to the meaning. Model one or two before pupils work on their own. For example, **Your** hungry teacher ate **my** delicious doughnut implies that the teacher should not have done this. Then ask pupils to write down the statements that they particularly like. They should explain their choices and describe what meaning the determiners carry.

Apply

Use *Look Inside a Burrow* or your teaching sequence text and show pupils examples of determiners. Ask them to continue reading and pointing out the determiners. Examples in this text include: *the, a/an, many, some, their, its, her, this, these, other*. You could give pupils the list to help them identify them as they read or ask them to record them as they find them.

Discuss any misconceptions as they arise – for example, if pupils choose adjectives instead of determiners. Then show them how the determiners can be grouped using the chart in the Resources section and ask the pupils if they can generate more examples for each group.

Activity 2.15: a/an

Resources: *a* and *an* cards (p. 76), noun cards (p. 76)

Terminology for pupils
determiner
consonant
vowel

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand how to use *a/an* correctly.

Teach

Teach this as an extension of the work on determiners in Activity 2.14. Pupils need to understand how we use these determiners – *an* is used where the noun following begins with a vowel.

Share the *a/an* cards and the noun cards in the Resources section among the class (create more cards if you need to). Pupils with noun cards go and stand next to either someone holding *a* or a child holding *an* as appropriate. The rest of the class decides if the choice is correct. The pair should then create an oral sentence using that determiner and noun.

Practise

In pairs, pupils make a list of as many nouns as they can that take *an*, then write some silly sentences including these nouns.

Apply

Pupils should swap their writing with another pair and check they have used *a/an* correctly.

Activity 2.16: Adjective overload!

Resources: tape measure, comma and full stop screwdrivers from the *Sentence Toolkit*, *Look Inside a Burrow* PDF or similar text, sentences with lots of adjectives (p. 76)

Terminology for pupils:
determiner

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand and explain that nouns can be expanded before and after the main noun (pre- and post-modification).

Revise

These activities will work best when pupils are working on a topic about animals and have already researched information about an animal they want to write about.

Model using the text to find noun phrases with adjectives before the noun (pre-modification). Show pupils how to write them into a blank chart based on the one from Activity 2.14. Look especially at unusual examples, such as hyphenated adjectives ('hook-shaped', p. 7) and alliteration ('a slithering slow worm', p. 14) from *Look Inside a Burrow*.

Using the information about their chosen animal, pupils can generate their own adjectives and nouns, write them in the chart and then construct full sentences about the animal. Reinforce the importance of using a comma for lists of adjectives before the noun and full stops at the end of sentences.

Teach

Show pupils the first example sentence with lots of adjectives from the Resources section. Ask them what is wrong with them, to elicit that some words are not needed because they are either close in meaning to another adjective or they tell us something we already know about the noun. Reduce the noun phrase by taking out these words.

Practise

Now look at the adjectives that remain. What do they make us think about the noun being described? How might we achieve a different effect – scary or funny or sad, for example? What adjectives could we use? Do we need to change the determiner?

Provide pupils with the other sentence examples and ask them to reduce the noun phrases. They should then replace one or more of the adjectives to create a different effect.

Apply

As part of your teaching sequence, use a vocabulary generation game to get pupils to think of or find adjectives linked to the animal or part of the animal that they are going to write about (e.g. *wings, paws, teeth*). Using their research about the animal's characteristics, model how these words can be put on a 'Zone of Relevance' so that those that best describe it are at the centre, with others further out.

Use this chart to construct noun phrases by choosing those that are nearer the centre. Pupils should use these to construct sentences to use in their writing.

Activity 2.17: Nonsense phrases

Resources: noun phrase chart (p. 77), blank noun phrase chart (p. 78) tape measure and punctuation screwdrivers from the *Sentence Toolkit*

Terminology for pupils:
preposition
determiner
hyphen

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand and explain that nouns can be expanded before and after the main noun (pre- and post-modification).

Teach

Introduce pupils to the idea that nouns can be expanded *after* the noun as well as before (post-modification). Introduce the prepositions *with*, *of* and *up to* as common ways to post-modify the noun. Explain that these are called *prepositional phrases* and that one of their jobs is to give more information about a noun.

Introduce other ways in which words can be post-modified:

- using an adjective after the noun
- beginning with *for example* or *such as*
- using a simile (*as big as a house*, *like a...*).

Show example noun phrases where these techniques are used, for example in *Look Inside a Burrow*:

- *a small bird of prey*
- *insects with sharp pincers*
- *amphibians with knobbly skin*
- *prey such as slugs*
- *long, flat minibeasts with many legs*
- *damp, dark places such as other animals' burrows*
- *other minibeasts such as slugs, worms and spiders*
- *mammals with brown backs and a white belly*
- *predators such as hawks.*

Demonstrate how these phrases fit into the noun phrase chart in the Resources section.

Practise

Ask pupils to write a list of all the adjectives they can think of in one minute. Then repeat the exercise with nouns. Give pupils a few examples of prepositional phrases beginning with *of* or *with* to post-modify the nouns. For example:

- ... *with violent-pink horns*
- ... *of towering strength*
- ... *of impossible wishes*
- ... *with a swirling, curling tail.*

Ask pupils to generate more examples. They can be as silly as they like.

Using the three lists (adjectives, nouns and prepositional phrases), work with pupils to combine different elements to make silly phrases – for example, *a knobbly mouse with slime-green wings*.

You could extend this by adding different determiners or creating sentences. For example, could some of the sentences have a second silly phrase? *My knobbly mouse with slime-green wings flew into a marshmallow house of immense kindness.*

Apply

Ask pupils to use the information that they have collected about their own animals and to create phrases to expand the noun phrase after the noun. Give pupils a copy of the blank noun phrase chart in the Resources section to support the process if necessary. They should use the phrases to create sentences.

Support pupils with editing their sentences and improving them. Use the tape measure and punctuation screwdrivers to support decisions about whether the noun phrases are too long and where commas need to go.

Activity 2.18: Happy families

Resources: prefix cards (p. 79)

Terminology for pupils:
prefix
word families

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand different ways that nouns are formed and how other words are related in word families.

Teach

Introduce a common prefix using the cards in the Resources section. On the board, model building a word web with all the words pupils can think of that start with that prefix. Ask pupils for ideas about how these words could be sorted. They may think of meaning links, but encourage them to consider word classes, too. Model sorting the words according to possible word class.

Generate an example of the word being used in a sentence to prove the word class. Some words may fit in more than one word class – for example, *disinterest* (noun), *disinterested* (adjective). Use the tools from the *Sentence Toolkit* to support the definitions of word classes if needed.

Practise

In pairs, pupils should choose a different prefix. They should then create their own word web and sort their words into word classes, with example sentences to justify their choices. Afterwards they should share their sentences with another pair to check each other's classifications.

Apply

Identify one or two words that are new vocabulary. Get pupils to record them in their spelling journals and try to use them in writing or talk in the next week.

Activity 2.19: It's mine!

Resources: passage missing apostrophes (p. 79)

Terminology for pupils:
possessive pronoun

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand the difference between plural and possessive s.

Teach

Possessive apostrophes are used to 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 don't end in s (*men's coats, children's games*).
- If a plural noun already ends in an s, then 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*).

Recap previous learning about apostrophes: pupils should know that apostrophes are used for omission and for singular possession (explain what possession means).

Divide pupils into small groups and give them each one of the statements from the bullet points above. Ask them to read it and see if they can work out what it means. Their challenge will be to explain their strand of the subject knowledge to the rest of the class. Give them large sheets of paper to jot down their ideas. They could:

- find more examples
- exemplify in a sentence
- reword the explanation
- extend the explanation.

Each group reports back and explains their subject knowledge. Other pupils can ask questions. Ask a pupil not in the group to explain their understanding to check everyone's understanding.

Practise

Still working in small groups, ask pupils to try adding the correct apostrophes to the passage in the Resources section. When they have done so, they should share their completed passage with another group and use the subject knowledge bullet points to clarify any differences.

Apply

Have a focus on the use of apostrophes in feedback and marking. Pupils can review their writing to see if they have used apostrophes correctly.

Activity 2.20: Follow my thread

Resources: text with only pronoun use (p. 80) and text with only noun/subject use (p. 80), *Zebras Are Awesome!* PDF

Terminology for pupils:
pronoun

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand how to link ideas across a text and avoid unnecessary repetition through the use of nouns and pronouns.

Teach

Ideally, follow this activity with a text you are using in English or across the curriculum. You could use the example from *Zebras Are Awesome!* first, then apply the same approach to a known text.

Use the two text examples in the Resources section to discuss why and how we use pronouns and nouns in a text to aid cohesion. You could give both pieces to groups and ask them to problem-solve/discuss what is difficult about the texts. Alternatively, you could work on it as a shared activity.

Look at pages 4 and 16–17 of *Zebras Are Awesome!* (the book from which the two extracts have been adapted). Get pupils to explain and justify the choices the writer has made about when to use pronouns and when to use nouns.

Practise

Give pairs of pupils a copy of different pages from the book (or an extract from a known text). They should mark the pages to show how the writer has used pronouns/nouns and the effect these choices have on the reader.

Apply

Pupils could write a paragraph or two in a cross-curricular area (science/technology can be good as there are often lots of subjects to talk about), maintaining a clear thread of meaning for the reader through effective use of pronouns/nouns.

Activity 2.21: Build it!

Resources: sentence cards (p. 81), challenge cards (p. 82), text type cards (p. 82)

Terminology for pupils:

determiner
pronoun
preposition
prefix

The purpose of this activity is to assess pupils' understanding of nouns and noun phrases.

Teach

Introduce the sentence cards and the challenge cards from the Resources section to the class. Make sure they understand the terminology and what each challenge card asks them to do.

In pairs or small groups, take it in turns to pick one sentence card and one challenge card, then modify the sentence as directed. If everyone agrees it is correct, the points marked on the challenge card are awarded.

Once pupils have played a few rounds, discuss which bits are difficult and why. Review the final sentences and discuss if they are effective. How would you change the sentence to ensure you have made a really effective one?

This could be a guided activity to maximise assessment information.

Practise

Get pupils to play more rounds of the game in pairs or small groups.

Apply

Add extra challenge by selecting a text type card to focus the sentence on particular text types.

Strand 3: Adverbials

Y3/4	Adverbials	
<p>National Curriculum content:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 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>). Use of commas after fronted adverbials. 	<p>Terminology for pupils:</p> <p><i>adverb</i> <i>preposition</i> <i>adverbial</i> <i>comma</i></p>	
<p>Pupils need to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> understand that a word or phrase can fill the adverbial slot in a sentence understand that adverbials usually express how, when or where, but can also express cause, purpose or reason understand that adverbials can be moved into different places in a sentence for effect; when they occur at the start of a sentence they are called <i>fronted adverbials</i> understand that most adverbial phrases begin with a preposition and are therefore also prepositional phrases (e.g. <i>Before tea, I had eaten too many sweets. My holiday was ruined because of the rain.</i>) understand that commas need to be used after fronted adverbials. 		
<p>Activity 3:12: Adverbial slots Resources: adverbial cards (p. 83)</p>		<p>Terminology for pupils:</p> <p><i>adverb</i> <i>adverbial</i></p>
<p>The purpose of this activity is to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> understand that a word or phrase can fill the adverbial slot in a sentence understand that adverbials usually express how, when or where, but can also express cause, purpose or reason. <p>Teach Recap the work pupils did on on adverbs in Year 2. Demonstrate some adverbs in sentences using the construction noun/noun phrase + verb + adverb. Ask pupils what these adverbs do (describe how something happens using a single word). Then show pupils constructions using adverbial phrases from the cards provided instead of adverbs. Discuss what these phrases do: <i>silently/in silence (how)</i>, <i>up the river/past the lighthouse (where)</i>. Explain that the adverbial slot in a sentence can be filled by a single-word adverb or an adverbial phrase.</p> <p>Practise Pupils use the sentence starters <i>The ship sailed...</i> and experiment with making sentences using the adverbial cards. Discuss what the sentences are telling the reader about how or where the ship sailed. Get pupils to sort the cards into how and where piles, then see if they can add any adverbs or adverbial phrases to the list.</p> <p>Apply In pairs, pupils use blank cards to produce their own sentences using cards they make themselves. They should use one noun/noun phrase, up to three verbs, and create as many cards to fill the adverbial slot as they can. Afterwards, they should join with another pair to investigate each other's examples.</p>		

Activity 3.13: 'My Journey'

Resources: prepositional list poem (p. 83)

Terminology for pupils:

preposition
adverbial

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand that adverbials usually express how, when or where, but can also express cause, purpose or reason
- understand that most adverbial phrases begin with a preposition and are therefore also prepositional phrases (e.g. *Before tea, I had eaten too many sweets. My holiday was ruined because of the rain.*)

Teach

Introduce the term *preposition* and show pupils some example of prepositions of position (*in, on, under, over, between, beside, beyond, after, before*). Discuss what they mean. Elicit that they can be used to say **where** things are. Ask pupils to think of other prepositions of position and write them in a list.

What follows these words? Create some structures using noun phrases for landmarks:

by the supermarket, next to the school. Point out that a phrase using a preposition + noun/noun phrase can be used to fill the adverbial slot in a sentence that tells the reader **where** something is happening.

Model putting a preposition with a noun/noun phrase and discuss how it informs the reader where something is. Read the prepositional list poem in the Resources section and discuss how using prepositional phrases can be used to write a poem about a journey.

Practise

Ask pupils to make a list of the things they see on their journey to school. They can then experiment with creating their own prepositional phrases to describe their journey. They should write each one on a strip of paper and put them in order to create their own poem.

Apply

Pupils should use prepositional phrases to create another poem describing a different journey – a family outing, a visit to another local landmark or a school trip, perhaps. For an extra challenge, they could write these poems in the form of a riddle, so that others had to guess the final destination from the description of the journey.

Activity 3.14: Where am I?

Resource: preposition cards of place (p. 84)

Terminology for pupils:

preposition
adverbial

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand that adverbials usually express how, when or where, but can also express cause, purpose or reason
- understand that most adverbial phrases begin with a preposition and are therefore also prepositional phrases (e.g. *Before tea, I had eaten too many sweets. My holiday was ruined because of the rain.*)

Teach

Mentally 'hide' yourself in some part of the school and get students to ask you questions to try and find out where you are. They should keep refining the questions until they 'find' you. For example:

- Are you hiding inside or outside? *Outside.*
- Where outside? *In the playground.*
- What part of the playground? *Near the fence.*
- Which fence? *The fence by the climbing frame.*

Introduce the idea that precise use of adverbial phrases will give information about position (**where**). The activity can be supported by the preposition cards in the Resources section. Choose the ones suitable for where you are 'hiding'.

Practise

In pairs, pupils should take it in turns to mentally 'hide' themselves in some part of the school). Their partner should question them about where they are. They should use the information to orally rehearse, then write sentences describing where their partner is: *Jack is outside, in the playground, near the fence by the climbing frame.* Encourage pupils to be as precise as possible, rather than simply producing the longest string of phrases they can.

Apply

Pupils should use prepositional phrases in their writing to give precise information about position.

Activity 3.15: When does this happen?

Resources: none needed

Terminology for pupils:
preposition
adverbial
comma

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand that adverbials usually express how, when or where, but can also express cause, purpose or reason
- understand that most adverbial phrases begin with a preposition and are therefore also prepositional phrases (e.g. *Before tea, I had eaten too many sweets. My holiday was ruined because of the rain.*)
- understand that commas need to be used after fronted adverbials.

Teach

Look at the examples of *when* adverbial phrases in the text extract below:

In winter, we had two days of heavy snow. ***For about four or five days***, the snow stayed on the ground. ***On the coldest day***, I didn't want to go outside! ***After about a week***, the weather began to warm up. ***A few days later***, all the snow started to melt.

Look at the structure of these phrases with pupils: preposition + noun or noun phrase. Discuss what they are telling the reader (*when* things happen). How does this help the reader understand the text?

This use of adverbs links with cohesion, and pupils should start to consider how adverbials help structure the information in a text. You can adapt these examples to demonstrate time adverbials to structure texts in narrative writing (*soon, later that day, the next afternoon, that night*) and also in instructional texts (*firstly, next, then, finally*).

Practise

As a class, draw up a list of things that pupils have done in school over the past few weeks. Write these on the board without any adverbials. In pairs, pupils should come up with some prepositional phrases to describe when these activities happened: *On Monday, After two days, In maths, At 10.00 each morning.* Afterwards, pupils could write up their sentences into a paragraph.

Apply

Pupils should use adverbial phrases of time in their own writing. They could recount a weekend/holiday activity or a school visit.

Activity 3.16: Transform it!

Resources: list of *-ly* adverbs (p. 85), list of prepositions for *how* adverbial phrases (p. 85)

Terminology for pupils:
adverb
preposition
adverbial

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand that adverbials usually express how, when or where, but can also express cause, purpose or reason
- understand that most adverbial phrases begin with a preposition and are therefore also prepositional phrases (e.g. *Before tea, I had eaten too many sweets. My holiday was ruined because of the rain.*)

Teach

Recap Year 2 work on single-word adverbs to describe **how** an action is done. Develop the learning from Activity 3.12 by modelling how to change some *-ly* adverbs into prepositional phrases: *silently/in silence, quickly/at speed, bravely/like a lion*.

Explain that in order to create the phrase, we have to turn the adverb into a noun: preposition + noun/noun phrase. Pupils will need this to be modelled clearly with several examples:

- *silently – silence; angrily – anger*
- adverbs that end in *-fully*, remove the suffixes (*gracefully – grace, fearfully – fear, respectfully – respect*)
- some adverbs will add *-ness* to make them into a noun (*awkward – awkwardness, rudely – rudeness; kindly – kindness*).

Explain that not all prepositions can be used in these phrases. Model using each of the examples in the Resources section.

Practise

Give pupils the list of *-ly* adverbs in the Resources section and the 'how' prepositions. Ask them to change as many *-ly* adjectives into prepositional phrases as they can. Pupils should be encouraged to note these in texts they are reading and collect the phrases they find for future use.

Apply

Pupils should start to use a variety of ways of describing **how** things happen, so that they are not relying exclusively on *-ly* adverbs.

Activity 3.17: More about adverbials

Resources: *Lion Habitats Under Threat* PDF, sentence cards (p. 86), preposition cards (p. 86)

Terminology for pupils:
prepositions
adverbials
comma

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand that adverbials usually express how, when or where, but can also express cause, purpose or reason
- understand that adverbials can be moved into different places in a sentence for effect; when they occur at the start of a sentence they are called *fronted adverbials*
- understand that most adverbial phrases begin with a preposition and are therefore also prepositional phrases (e.g. *Before tea, I had eaten too many sweets. My holiday was ruined because of the rain.*)
- understand that commas need to be used after fronted adverbials.

Teach

Recap what pupils have learnt about adverbial phrases so far. Consider examples in *Lion Habitats Under Threat*

- **Unlike other big cats**, lions live in groups. (p. 4)
- Lion habitats are under threat **because of humans**. (p. 14)
- These areas are used **for farmland**... (p. 14)
- **Because of the dry seasons**, lions must keep moving around their territory in order to find water. (p. 16)
- **As a result**, they can sometimes come into contact with humans. (p. 16)
- Humans are slowly starting to understand how important lions are **because of their position in the ecosystem**. (p. 21)

Do these examples match the structure? Do they fill the adverbial slot in the sentence? What are they doing? Explain that adverbial phrases can also be used for cause/reason or purpose (e.g. why, what for, to give examples, contrast). Clarify that they are not subordinate clauses because they do not contain a verb. Look at the examples that front the sentence and note that they use commas.

Practise

Give pupils the cards from the Resources section – sentences for extension and prepositions. Ask them to use the preposition cards to extend the sentences to provide a cause/reason or purpose. They should write the new sentences in their books. Remind pupils to use commas for fronted adverbials.

Apply

Pupils could draft a paragraph for a non-fiction text using the structures they have investigated for cause/reason and purpose.

Activity 3.18: Sort it!

Resources: *Lion Habitats Under Threat* PDF, adverbial phrases and clauses (p. 87)

Terminology for pupils:
preposition
adverbial
comma

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand that adverbials usually express how, when or where, but can also express cause, purpose or reason
- understand that adverbials can be moved into different places in a sentence for effect; when they occur at the start of a sentence they are called *fronted adverbials*
- understand that commas need to be used after fronted adverbials.

Teach

This activity should build on Year 3 learning of subordinate clauses and conjunctions. Recap the phrases from *Lion Habitats Under Threat* in Activity 3.17 – these have the structure preposition + noun/noun phrase. Then consider some more examples from the text:

- Today lions are under threat **because they have come into conflict with humans**. (p. 5)
- Savannas and woodlands are being destroyed **to build houses for humans**. (p. 15)
- Lions must keep moving **to find food and water**. (p. 16)
- Lions often attack these animals **because they are easy prey**. (p. 17)
- Livestock fences are being strengthened **to stop lion attacks**. (p. 20)
- **However, since the land on game reserves can rarely be used for this purpose**, it stops the lion's habitat from being destroyed. (p. 23) (Note the two adverbials here – one is an adverb and the other an adverbial clause; however is fronted and the clause requires punctuation because it is embedded)

Ask pupils how the bold sections are different – they are subordinate clauses, using a conjunction to start the clause. Explain that these are adverbial clauses because they do the same job as the adverbial phrases: explain how, where, when, cause/reason or purpose. Just as we need a comma with fronted adverbs and adverbial phrases, we also need a comma with fronted adverbial clauses. If we move these clauses to the front of the sentence, commas must be used. Unpick the example that has two fronted adverbials – you could take out *however* and the sentence would still make sense, but how does this word add to the meaning?

Practise

Give pupils the adverbial phrases and clauses cards from the Resources section. In pairs, pupils should sort them into two piles – phrases and clauses. They should underline the verb in the clauses. Afterwards, get them to join with another pair to check whether they have the same answers. These could be used to write different sentences, ensuring they are punctuated correctly.

Apply

Challenge pupils to use both adverbial phrases and clauses in their writing. Give them time after drafting to work with a partner to identify these phrases and clauses in each other's work.

Activity 3.19: Creating physical sentences

Resources: a picture (perhaps linked to the English unit you are using) showing people/characters/animals doing different things, comma screwdriver and adverbial saw from the *Sentence Toolkit*

Terminology for pupils:
preposition
adverbial
comma

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand that adverbials can be moved into different places in a sentence for effect; when they occur at the start of a sentence they are called *fronted adverbials*
- understand that commas need to be used after fronted adverbials.

Teach

Show pupils the picture and get them to tell you what they can see. Choose a noun phrase and verb from their observations to start a sentence. Write these on two separate cards to reflect they are two separate clause elements that are the basis of a sentence. These can be in different colours to distinguish the words/phrases (e.g. *the fish swam*.) Do not use capital letters or full stops on these cards, but have a full stop card and some comma cards ready. Ask pupils what other information we need.

Recap with pupils information about the function of adverbial phrases. Elicit *where*, *when*, and *how* the verb is affected. Discuss how adverbial phrases often begin with a preposition and provide a display of these as prompts if needed. Ask pupils to think of as many words and phrases as they can for where, when and how *the fish swam*. Pick one of each for where, when and how, and write on three separate cards. Ask five pupils to come to the front of the class. Four of them should hold the word cards and the fifth pupil should hold a full stop card. List the adverbials after the noun and verb.

the fish swam through the coral all morning like silver arrows.

Ask pupils if they are happy with the order of the sentence. Discuss how adverbial phrases are very flexible in where they can be placed in a sentence and point out that different positions can create different effects. In the example above, the reader will focus on the fish swimming, but what happens if the adverbials are moved around? Model using the saw to 'cut out' the adverbial and move it.

Experiment with moving the pupils holding the cards into different positions and discuss the effects. Which sentences do pupils like best? Why? Are there any differences for the reader? Pupils should understand that, in their writing, it is their choice how they arrange the information for the reader. They may wish their reader to picture the **how** first, or the **where**, and it really depends on the image they want to create.

Discuss the punctuation required in each order and provide pupils with comma cards to hold in the correct positions (you may wish to model using the comma screwdriver to insert these). Emphasise that punctuation helps the reader understand the sentence and makes it clearer for them.

Also model that we do not have to have one of each type of adverbial in a sentence. For example, we could have two **where** adverbials and one **how**, or two **how** adverbials and no **where** or **when**. It depends on the information we want to convey.

Some pupils may notice that some fronted adverbials enable the subject and verb to be inverted: *In and out of the coral, swam the fish*. This is possible when the adverbial indicates where and particularly when it indicates direction.

Practise

Pupils should create sentence cards for their own sentences and experiment with ordering for effect. Encourage all pupils to justify their final choices.

Apply

Re-read previously written sentences to see if they prefer the adverbials in different positions. Pupils' drafted sentences could be photocopied and cut up at the clause element boundaries so that adverbials can be manipulated or added in if they have not used any.

Activity 3.20: Assessing adverbials

Resources: none needed

Terminology for pupils
adverb
preposition
adverbial
comma

The purpose of this activity is to assess pupils' understanding of adverbs and adverbial phrases.

Pupils should draw up a list of words to use in the adverbial slot in sentences for assessment purposes. These should include:

- adverbials of where, when, how and cause/reason or purpose
- single word adverbs
- adverbial phrases
- adverbial clauses.

Strand 4: Verbs

Y3/4	Verbs	
<p>National Curriculum content:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 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>). 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>). 	<p>Terminology for pupils: <i>present perfect</i></p> <p>Consolidate Y2 terminology: <i>verb</i> <i>tense (past and present)</i> <i>present perfect</i></p>	
<p>Pupils need to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> construct the present perfect form using the verb <i>to have</i> with the past participle (e.g. <i>I have walked this way for years. She has eaten chocolate before.</i>) form the past participle with regular and irregular verbs understand how the present perfect expresses a different meaning understand that the perfect form of the verb can also be expressed in the past perfect (e.g. <i>I had played the piano for the last time.</i>) use the correct form of Standard English verb inflections. 		
<p>Activity 4.13: Perfectly formed sentences Resources: perfect form sentence cards (p. 88)</p>		<p>Terminology for pupils: <i>verb</i> <i>tense (past and present)</i> <i>present perfect</i></p>
<p>The purpose of this activity is to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> construct the present perfect form using the verb <i>to have</i> with the past participle (e.g. <i>I have walked this way for years. She has eaten chocolate before.</i>) understand that the perfect form of the verb can also be expressed in the past perfect (e.g. <i>I had played the piano for the last time.</i>) use the correct form of Standard English verb inflections. <p>Teach Show pupils these two sentences:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>I am walking as quickly as I can.</i> <i>He stops, sniffs the air and moves on.</i> <p>Ask pupils to discuss these sentences in pairs, then share their thoughts with a wider group or the whole class. If pupils don't say anything about the verbs in the sentences, prompt them for a response. Talk about the fact that verbs can be more than one word and that some sentences can contain more than one verb slot. Ask pupils to say what tense these sentences are in.</p> <p>Explain that there are other ways of constructing verbs – one of these is the perfect form, where we use <i>to have</i> and <i>-ed</i> (past participle). Look at the sentence <i>John had walked down this path before</i>. Read this aloud and get pupils to hammer with a fist when they hear the verb. Talk about which part of <i>had walked</i> tells us the tense and which part tells us what John did. You may need to conjugate the verb <i>to have</i> if pupils need further support.</p> <p>Practise Provide pupils with the cards containing sentences in the perfect form in the Resources section. In pairs, pupils should find the verb, underline it and decide on the tense.</p> <p>Apply In the hall or playground, put a sign on one side saying 'present tense' and on the other side a sign saying 'past tense'. Call out verb phrases and get pupils to run to the tense that they think it is and then back to the middle. You can use the verb phrases from the sentences used earlier.</p>		

Activity 4.14: Changing tenses

Resources: verb cards (p. 89), chart for recording verbs (p. 89)

Terminology for pupils:
verb
tense (past and present)
present perfect

The purpose of this activity is to:

- form the past participle with regular and irregular verbs.

Teach

Use the verb cards from the Resources section. Put them in a pile and turn them upside down. Turn the top card over and ask pupils what that verb is in its past simple form. They should then create a sentence using the verb.

Practise

In pairs, pupils take the pile of verb cards and work through them, converting each verb to the past simple form and recording it on a chart like the one in the Resources section. Those who finish early can explore whether they can use this form of the verb in the present perfect or not and record the past participle in the third column of the chart. Pupils should share their chart with the class.

Apply

You may need to explore spelling of some of these verbs. Ask pupils to try the past simple form in the perfect (e.g. *watch – watched, had/has watched, take – took, has/had taken*). Which of your verbs need a different form in the perfect? Pupils could try this out and then share what they have found. Display findings on the wall.

Activity 4.15: What does it do?

Resources: sentence comparison sheet (p. 90), verb cards (p. 89)

Terminology for pupils:
verb
tense (past and present)
present perfect

The purpose of this activity is to:

- understand how the present perfect expresses a different meaning.

Teach

Compare sentences that have the same content but are written in the past simple or present perfect. For example

- The day was bright with sunshine.
- The day has been bright with sunshine.

Note that in the simple past, the day is over, whereas in the present perfect it feels like we are still in the day and are now expecting something else weather-wise. Try this with a few other sentences.

Practise

In pairs, pupils look at the cards containing the past simple and past perfect sentences from the Resources section. They should discuss the difference between them and note down what they think the difference in meaning is. Some pupils could record their ideas using Talking Tins or some other recording device so that they do not have to write.

Apply

Give pupils a verb card from Activity 4.14, but make sure that there are two pupils with each verb. Ask one half of the class to create a sentence in the past simple with the verb on the card and the other half to create a sentence in the present perfect.

In a big space, pupils move around until they find the person with the same verb as they have, then they stop and discuss their sentences and the meaning. In this activity, the pairs will have different content in their sentences.

Teaching resources

Strand 1b: Co-ordination and subordination

Activity 1b.8: Joining clauses

Clause definition cards

**A clause is a group of words that must have a verb.
A clause also usually has a noun.
A clause can be a sentence.**

**A subordinate clause is a clause in a sentence,
which couldn't be a sentence on its own.**

**A conjunction is a word that joins two clauses
(or words) together.**

Sentence cards

Children love chocolate because it is sweet.

When you hear the siren, leave the building.

If reptiles get too cold, they can die.

Teachers love coffee and biscuits.

**He tripped over and he started to roll
down the hill at speed.**

Activity 1b.9: Fill in the punctuation

julies dog didnt want to stay in the garden as soon as julie had gone inside he ran up the side of the house and pushed his way through a tiny gap under the gate it was very easy julies dog had a lovely time running all over the park he ran in and out of the playground and across the flower beds he even ran into a cafe to look for something to eat that evening when julie went to feed him she couldnt find him anywhere she was very upset she looked all over the house and garden for the dog he was nowhere to be seen

Answer:

Julie's dog didn't want to stay in the garden. As soon as Julie had gone inside, he ran up the side of the house and pushed his way through a tiny gap under the gate. It was very easy. Julie's dog had a lovely time running all over the park. He ran in and out of the playground and across the flower beds. He even ran into a cafe to look for something to eat. That evening, when Julie went to feed him, she couldn't find him anywhere. She was very upset. She looked all over the house and garden for the dog. He was nowhere to be seen.

Activity 1b.10: Patterning sentences

Co-ordinating conjunctions

and	but	or
nor	then	yet

Subordinating conjunctions

if	when	because
after	although	as
before	since	so (that)
though	unless	until
where	wherever	while
that		

Activity 1b.12: Transform it!

Most tigers are orange and black. Tigers can come in other colours. Tigers sometimes have white or golden fur. It is uncommon to have this. White tigers are rare. White tigers are mainly found in zoos. Golden tigers are even rarer than white tigers. Their fur is a light gold colour. Their fur is generally thicker than other tigers. Like white tigers, golden tigers are usually larger than other tigers. There are very few golden tigers in captivity. The last wild one was killed in India many years ago.

Fiction example

The little girl crept towards the house. The house was neat and tidy. It was nestled in the woods. She went up to the door. She knocked quietly. She knocked harder. There was no reply. Cautiously, she pushed the door. She peeped inside.

Strand 1c: Sentence types

Activity 1c.8: Who said it?

The yeti suddddenly broke down the door of the house the boys heard yelling coming from inside that's daisy and joshua they're in danger ahmed exclaimed we've got to help them kim and ahmed sprinted towards the cabin and burst in the fake monster was advancing towards daisy and joshua get away from our friends you oversized furball yelled ahmed what's happening what's happening asked jen as she too ran into the house we're being attacked said daisy no you're not said the yeti

Strand 2: Nouns and noun phrases

Activity 2.14: What do determiners do?

The hungry teacher *ate* a delicious doughnut.

Pre-modification chart

Determiner	Adjective	Noun	Verb	Determiner	Adjective	Noun
the a/an this that my your their one two some many	hungry	teacher	ate	a the this that my your their one two some many	delicious	doughnut

Determiner chart

the
a/an

this, that
these, those

my, your, its, his, her, our, their

few, several, some, many, much, a lot of, any, no

one, two, three...

first, second, third...

Activity 2.15: a/an

a	an
----------	-----------

bottle	helicopter	egg
antelope	ocelot	igloo
car	lion	umbrella
jungle	kiss	interest

Activity 2.16: Adjective overload!

this tiny, small, timid, frightened mouse
 this tiny, timid mouse
 that enormous, gruesome mouse

the long, slippery, slinky, slimy, slithery slow worm
 the long, slithery slow worm
 my wobbly, ticklish slow worm

the cute, cuddly, furry, fluffy, long-eared rabbit
 the furry, long-eared rabbit
 this giant, fearsome rabbit

Activity 2.17: Nonsense phrases

Noun phrases chart

Determiner	Adjective	Noun	Adjective	Prepositional phrase
the a/an				of prey
this, that these, those				with sharp pincers
my, your, its, his, her, our, their	small sharp knobbly	bird insects amphibians		with knobbly skin
few, several, some, many, much, a lot of, any, no	long flat brown white damp dark	prey centipedes minibeasts prey mammals predators		with brown backs and a white belly
one, two, three...		places		such as hawks
first, second, third...				such as slugs such as slugs, worms and spiders
				with many legs

Determiner	Adjective	Noun	Adjective	Prepositional phrase

Activity 2.18: Happy families

Prefixes

pre-	dis-	sub-
tele-	un-	re-
co-	ex-	auto-

Activity 2.19: It's mine!

This isn't good said the farmer as the cows hooves came thundering towards him. Farmer Giles hat flew off as he ran. He had been asked to check that his friends cows were safe but friends don't usually have to risk their lives! The childrens games in the field must have spooked the cows. Didn't they know how to avoid the cows madness?

Activity 2.20: Follow my thread

A hungry lion slinks through the tall grass of the savannah. It is on the hunt. It spots a group of zebras. The black-and-white stripes of their coats blend together. It cannot pick out a single one to chase. It moves on to find easier prey. They are safe for now.

Zebras eat for up to 19 hours a day! Zebras munch mostly on grass. Zebras also eat bark, leaves and roots. A zebra's food does not contain many nutrients. A zebra has to eat a lot to get the energy a zebra needs.

Activity 2.21: Build it!

Sentences

The dog ran down the road.

Put the glue on the stick.

**Afraid to move, the girl
stayed by the tree.**

George has a toy.

Corn is growing in the field.

**Last night, a robbery took
place in a shop.**

Challenge cards

<p>Add a prefix to a word.</p> <p>2 points</p>	<p>Use a noun that needs <i>an</i>.</p> <p>1 point</p>	<p>Add an adjective before the noun.</p> <p>1 point</p>
<p>Add an adjective after the noun.</p> <p>2 points</p>	<p>Change a determiner.</p> <p>2 points</p>	<p>Add a phrase (prepositional) after the noun.</p> <p>3 points</p>
<p>Use a pronoun.</p> <p>2 points</p>	<p>Add a simile.</p> <p>3 points</p>	<p>Make a noun more precise.</p> <p>4 points</p>

Text type cards

story	instructions	newspaper article
poem	information (non fiction)	advert/persuasion

Strand 3: Adverbials

Activity 3.12: Adverbial slots

Adverbials

The ship sailed...	behind the dolphins	without a sound
silently	in silence	around the world
swiftly	up the river	through the waves
into the storm	mysteriously	to America
slowly	past the lighthouse	with speed

Activity 3.13: My journey

My Journey

Down the lane,
 Across the bridge,
 Along the road,
 Into the village.
 Through the lights,
 Past the church,
 At the roundabout,
 Out of the village.
 Up the hill,
 Under branches of trees,
 Over the top
 On Woodbury Common.
 Between farm shop and fields,
 Beyond pubs, parks and houses,
 Exeter!

Activity 3.14: Where am I?

Prepositions

about	above	across
after	against	along
among	around	as
at	because of	before
behind	below	beneath
beside	between	beyond
by	down	during
for	from	in
inside	into	like
near	of	off
on	onto	opposite
out of	outside	over
past	round	since
through	to	toward
towards	under	underneath
unlike	until	up
upon	with	within
without		

Activity 3.16: Transform it!

-ly adverbs

angrily	anxiously	awkwardly
badly	boldly	bravely
carefully	cheerfully	curiously
defiantly	devotedly	dramatically
eagerly	enormously	faithfully
finally	foolishly	fortunately
gleefully	gracefully	happily
hastily	honestly	hopelessly
hungrily	irritably	jealously
kindly	lazily	madly
merrily	mysteriously	nervously
obediently	politely	powerfully
quickly	rudely	safely
selfishly	seriously	silently
shakily	sharply	slowly
sternly	tightly	unexpectedly
warmly	wearily	wildly

Prepositions for *how* adverbial phrases

at	in	like	out of
through	unlike	with	without

Activity 3.17: More about adverbials

Sentences for extension

I could not go out that night.**Some people support animal charities.****Pandas are in danger of extinction.****Many animals eat grass.****My brother was ill.****I left early to catch my train.****He needed the money.****The football team was happy.**

Prepositions

because of	as a result
due to	unlike
for example	like

Activity 3.18: Sort it!

Adverbial phrases and clauses

because of the snow
because she wanted to see the programme
as a result of his accident
since she was feeling unwell
unlike many people
in order to win the race
because of the time
for farming or building houses
so that he can keep his cattle safe
since she didn't like carrots
due to the hot temperatures
because the dogs were excited
for example, cats, dogs and goldfish
like the other girls in her class
as she had never seen it before
due to the old lady's kindness
for safe-keeping

Strand 4: Verbs

Activity 4.13: Perfectly formed sentences

Perfect form sentences

The plane had taken off.	Rosie had walked for miles and miles.
Ballard has made some amazing discoveries.	Robbers have carved secret tunnels through the pyramids.
We had spent many nights in a tent.	You had cleared the table before I returned.
We have come to the end of our journey.	He has splattered the paint all over the walls.

Activity 4.14: Changing tenses

Verbs

fly	drink	win	make	watch	take
break	buy	travel	cook	touch	run
eat	lose	break	meet	sing	ride
sleep	feel	hear	visit	trick	play

Base	Past simple form	Past participle (where different)
fly	flew	flown

Activity 4.15: What does it do?

Past simple and past perfect sentences

They reached the gate.	They have reached the gate.
The Sabretooth tiger hid and waited for its prey.	The Sabretooth tiger has hidden and has waited for its prey.
Sabretooth cats hunted bison.	Sabretooth cats have hunted bison.
We reached the control centre of the body: the brain!	We have reached the control centre of the body: the brain!
Floyd got his kite stuck in a tree.	Floyd has got his kite stuck in a tree.
The archaeologist took part in over 120 investigations.	The archaeologist has taken part in over 120 investigations.

Example teaching sequence

The focus of this sequence is expanding and adding detail to a story. Therefore the text chosen is a relatively simple version with opportunities to add more to the story.

Writerly knowledge chart: *Ratpunzel* by Charlotte Guillain

How do I feel about the text?	How did the author do that?	Examples
Small snippets of detail but there are places where I want more.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adverbials to tell where, when or how things happened. Speech to move the story on. Post-modification of noun phrases. The use of when and relative clauses. Use of the perfect form to refer to something that has already happened. 	<p><i>Deep in the forest, at the top of the tower, in the deep dark forest day and night</i></p> <p><i>A thorn bush which scratched his eyes, a beautiful rat with a very long tail</i></p> <p><i>Had visited</i></p>
A sense of this story taking place over a long time.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of fronted adverbials. 	<i>One morning, on the third night, one day, that night</i>

Key learning outcome:
write an expanded, animal version of a traditional tale and read it to younger pupils

Elicitation task

Ask pupils to think of their favourite traditional tale. With a partner, they should share their favourite stories, relating them in as much detail as possible. Ask pupils to write their version of the story. *Use the outcomes from this to adapt the medium-term plan and the national standards outcomes below. You will need to adapt the sequence by removing unnecessary aspects. The grammar section includes everything you **could** teach, but you will not be able to cover it all.*

Medium-term plan

Reading	Writing	Grammar
<p>Develop positive attitudes to reading and understanding by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> listening to and discussing a wide range of fiction, poetry, plays, non-fiction and reference books or text books increasing their familiarity with a wide range of books, including fairy stories, myths and legends, and retelling some of these orally Discussing words and phrases that capture the reader's interest and imagination. 	<p>Plan their writing by discussing and recording ideas.</p> <p>Draft and write by composing and rehearsing sentences orally (including dialogue), progressively building a varied and rich vocabulary and an increasing range of sentence structures.</p> <p>Evaluate and edit by assessing the effectiveness of their own writing and suggesting improvements, proposing changes to grammar and vocabulary to improve consistency.</p>	<p>Develop understanding of the concepts set out in Appendix 2 of the National Curriculum by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> extending the range of sentences with more than one clause by using a wider range of conjunctions, including <i>when, if, because, although</i> using fronted adverbials (Y4). <p>Indicate grammatical and other features by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> using commas after fronted adverbials (Y4) using and punctuating direct speech (Y3/4).

<p>Understand what they read independently by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • checking that the text makes sense to them, discussing their understanding and explaining the meaning of words in context • drawing inferences such as inferring characters' feelings, thoughts and motives from their actions, and justifying inferences with evidence • identifying how language, structure and presentation contribute to meaning. <p>Participate in discussion about books that are read to them and those they can read for themselves, taking turns and listening to what others say.</p>	<p>Proofread for spelling and punctuation errors.</p> <p>Read aloud their own writing – to a group or the whole class – using appropriate intonation and controlling the tone and volume so that meaning is clear.</p>	<p>Standard English forms for verb inflections instead of local spoken forms (for example we were instead of we was or <i>I did</i> instead of <i>I done</i>).</p> <p>Terminology Y3: adverb, preposition, conjunction, clause, subordinate clause, direct speech, inverted commas (or speech marks)</p> <p>Y4: adverbial</p>
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Spoken language

Pupils should be taught to gain, maintain and monitor the interest of the listener(s).

Working at national standards

- Expand a story, adding detail through noun phrases, adverbials and sentence construction.
- Use speech to move parts of the story on.
- Add sufficient detail in the story so that the reader is not left with questions about what or how things happened.

Working at greater depth

- Make own choices about ways of subverting a traditional tale.

Guided group writing targets

Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5
Teaching			Guided work linked to sequence	Learning: I can... I know... I understand...
<p>Familiarisation/immersion in text/analysis</p> <p>Use the imitate phase of the sequence to construct a writerly knowledge chart with pupils.</p> <p>Imitate Discuss and list the traditional stories that pupils already know from more modern texts. Try to categorise them by the original traditional tale, e.g. 'The Three Little Pigs' and then all the stories that are based on this but told from a different point of view or have a different ending or some sort of change. Borrow and display these books in the classroom and add to the list that pupils know through story time. Create a wall display that can be developed across the half term of study.</p>				

Learn and remember the bare bones of *Ratpunzel* with a story map, in a way that pupils will find engaging. This could be through drama or by using actions and sounds.

Read the book to pupils. How has this story been changed from the original story of Rapunzel? Add this tale to the chart.

In fours, use the sentence starters below this grid to discuss the book. Groups should then share their ideas with the whole class. Identify some statements/questions for pupils to follow up and report back on.

Use a drama circle to act out the story. Give pairs of pupils a story card (see below) and ask them to work out how they might act out their card. Sit in a circle and ask the pair who think they have the first card to move into the circle and act out their card, reading it aloud as they do so. The pair that thinks they have the next part of the story should go next, and so on.

Grammar

Give pairs of pupils the card where the cat takes away Ratpunzel and show them the picture on p. 9. Pupils should take on the role of the rats and imagine what they would say at this point. Film pairs and show the conversations, discussing the effectiveness of the talk. Using speech bubbles, pupils record the speech around the outside of the image.

Give pupils a range of sentences with speech in them and ask them in pairs or threes to devise a set of rules for punctuating speech. Share the ideas they come up with and test them out on some speech from the story. Create a class set.

Look at the reporting clause on p. 18: *he snarled when the prince reached the top of the tower*. Identify that the statement contains more information than simply *how* he spoke. Take off the *when* clause and come up with some ideas for what could be added after *snarled* (e.g. *when he came towards me*).

Take an example of speech from the bubbles and model writing it as if it were in the story, with an extended reporting clause. Pupils then choose from the speech bubbles and record their chosen example in the same way, adding an extended reporting clause.

Use the image on p. 6 of the book and the reduced sentence 'The husband went to fetch more seeds.' Put three headings on the board – **How**, **Where**, **When**. Model creating adverbial phrases to extend this sentence and putting them under the headings. Include similes. Pupils then generate some of their own on cards and group them according to the headings. What is the best sentence they can make by adding the cards and why is it the best?

Can they extend the idea by adding another sentence and using different adverbials? Discuss the effect of the sentences they have created. Explain that a comma is needed if the adverbial phrase is put at the front of the sentence. Pupils should then note down their sentences.

Use a range of conjunction cards. Put the start of a sentence on the board (e.g. *Terrified, the husband agreed...*) and ask pupils to choose a conjunction, then complete the sentence. Model writing the sentence down, including punctuation where necessary. Explore and discuss how different conjunctions change the end of the sentence and therefore its meaning. Provide a couple of other starters from the book and ask pupils to complete them. In pairs, they should discuss the differences, then choose the sentence that would best fit the story.

Using the sentences they have constructed, discuss and identify the main and subordinate clauses. Model moving the clauses around and discussing the impact. Pupils should then do the same for their sentences and discuss the impact of each choice.

Show pupils how to look through their books to identify the conjunctions they use regularly. Pupils should work in pairs to identify the conjunctions they use less frequently, to try and use them more for greater variety in their writing.

Innovate

Use the cards and play the drama circle activity again. Choose one card and model identifying where you could add more detail. Record ideas around the card. An example is provided below. Pupils take their cards and explore where they could add more detail.

Discuss some possibilities for the new ideas as a class. Act these out to choose the ideas that they want to include. Jot down notes on the sheet of paper as a reminder. These jottings may be adverbial phrases to include, speech and a list of conjunctions that pupils want to use.

Shared writing

Model writing the expanded section of text, focusing on the elements taught at the Imitate phase. Pupils write an expanded version using their own ideas.

Read the section aloud to a group of pupils from another class and ask them to draw what they think they can see in the text and label it. Model reading writing and improving it with an emphasis on the idea of providing enough detail for the reader so that they can visualise the detail.

Pupils should then choose another card, identify where they can expand it and write the expansion. Finally, they should evaluate its effectiveness with a friend.

Mark the writing and identify aspects that need further development in the Invent stage. The aspects are detailed in the national standards information at the start of this sequence.

Capturing ideas

Invent

Discuss and list a range of traditional stories. Decide how they could be adapted to use animals as characters (e.g. *Goldiclucks and the Three Bears*, *The Emperor Penguin's New Clothes*, *Cat and the Beanstalk*, *Rumplesnakeskin*, *Little Red Riding Duck*, *The Kitten Who Cried Dog*, *Sleeping Badger* and *Panderella*, plus any that the pupils can come up with).

Pupils choose a story and write it in separate boxes in the middle of an A3 sheet. They should only write the bare bones of the story in the boxes. Model this if necessary.

Then ask pupils to expand their ideas, jotting their thoughts as notes around the boxes on the sheet of paper. They should be thinking about how to visualise the story for the reader. Some pupils might need to collect images to support their writing at this point, e.g. what the forest looks like, the clothes that the emperor thinks he is wearing, etc.

Teach the aspects identified at the end of the Innovate stage that need further development.

Support pupils writing the text through revising and editing of the text to include the elements taught throughout the sequence.

Compare and comment on the progress made from the elicitation task and the Invent writing.

Pupils take their stories to read to a group of pupils in a younger class.

Sentence starters

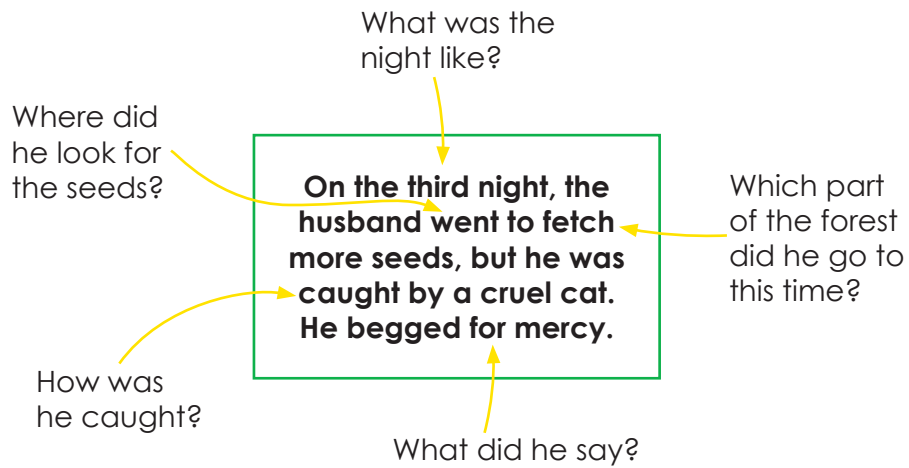
- I wonder if...
- Why did...
- I like...
- I didn't like...
- I wish I could...
- Parts of the story reminded me...

Drama cards

<p>Once upon a time there were two rats who loved each other very much. One day the wife fell ill.</p> <p>'Please fetch me some special seeds from the forest for me to eat,' she begged her husband. He did as she asked for two nights and she began to get better.</p>	<p>On the third night, the husband went back to fetch more seeds, but he was caught by a cruel cat. He begged for mercy.</p>	<p>'I will let you go if you promise to give me your first baby,' purred the cat. Terrified, the husband agreed and scurried away.</p>
<p>Time passed and the couple had a baby daughter. They called her Ratpunzel.</p>	<p>One morning, the cat appeared. 'You must keep your promise and give me your child,' said the cat, taking Ratpunzel away.</p>	<p>Ratpunzel grew up into a beautiful rat, with a very long tail. The cat hid Ratpunzel away in a tall tower, deep in the forest.</p> <p>Only the cat could visit her, by climbing up Ratpunzel's tail.</p>
<p>Ratpunzel had a beautiful voice and would spend her time singing at the top of the tower. One day, Handsome Prince Ratdolph was riding through the forest.</p>	<p>Prince Ratdolph heard Ratpunzel singing. He followed the sound and saw the cat climbing up Ratpunzel's tail.</p>	<p>Prince Ratdolph came back that night. 'Let down your tail!' he called like the cat. Ratpunzel did as he asked and Prince Ratdolph climbed up into the tower.</p>
<p>Prince Ratdolph and Ratpunzel fell in love. He visited her every night, taking thread for Ratpunzel to weave into a ladder to escape.</p>	<p>Time passed and Ratpunzel had almost finished weaving the ladder for her escape.</p> <p>One morning the cat came to visit her. 'You're so much heavier than the prince,' puffed Ratpunzel.</p>	<p>The cat was furious that Prince Ratdolph had visited. He sent Ratpunzel out into the forest.</p>
<p>That night, Prince Ratdolph came to see Ratpunzel as usual. The cat pulled him up using a rope.</p> <p>'You will never see Ratpunzel again!' he snarled when the prince reached the top of the tower. The prince jumped from the tower to escape.</p>	<p>Prince Ratdolph landed in a thorn bush which scratched his eyes and blinded him. He wandered in the deep, dark forest day and night, unable to see.</p>	<p>But one day he heard a familiar voice singing beautifully.</p>

<p>Prince Ratdolph followed the voice into a clearing where he fell into Ratpunzel's paws. She wept when she saw his scratched eyes. Magically, her tears brought his sight back.</p>	<p>Prince Ratdolph and Ratpunzel were married and lived happily ever after.</p>	
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Adding more detail



Assessment criteria and diagnostic activity

Strand 1: Different ways to construct sentences	
Y3/4	Pupils need to:
<p>Co-ordination and subordination</p> <p>Expressing time, place and cause using conjunctions (<i>when, before, after, while, so, because</i>).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use and understand the terms <i>conjunction, clause</i> and <i>subordinate clause</i> when discussing sentence construction. • Understand how to punctuate complex sentences using commas to mark clauses where the sentence begins with the subordinate clause. Recognise where the sentence ends and punctuate accurately. • Understand the meanings of conjunctions and be able to use a wide range. • Understand that the order of clauses can be manipulated for effect. • Understand and discuss how different sentence constructions can be used for effect within texts.
<p>Sentence types</p> <p>Introduction to inverted commas to punctuate direct speech.</p> <p>Use of inverted commas and other punctuation to indicate direct speech.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand the conventions used to demarcate speech in writing: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Inverted commas around all words spoken, with punctuation at the end of the speech. - End punctuation within inverted commas. - Use of comma following reporting clause where it starts the sentence (<i>The conductor shouted, 'Sit down!'</i>) • Understand that all four sentence types can be used in dialogue. • Understand how questions can be used for different purposes in information texts.
Strand 2: Nouns and noun phrases	
Y3/4	Pupils need to:
<p>Formation of nouns using a range of prefixes (for example, <i>super-, anti-, auto-</i>).</p> <p>Word families based on common words, showing how words are related in form and meaning (for example, <i>solve, solution, solver, dissolve, insoluble</i>).</p> <p>Use of the forms <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> according to whether the next word begins with a consonant or a vowel.</p> <p>The grammatical difference between plural and possessive s.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand different ways that nouns are formed (e.g. with prefixes) and how other words are related in word families. • Understand how to use <i>a/an</i> correctly. • Understand and explain that nouns can be expanded before and after the main noun (pre- and post-modification). • Understand that determiners are part of the noun phrase and use a wide range, for example numbers, possessives, articles, etc. • Understand that one of the uses of prepositional phrases is to add information about a noun after the noun (e.g. <i>The glistening, grey dragon with enormous wings... The sheep in the field were grazing contentedly, His multi-coloured cloak of many colours...).</i> • Understand how to link ideas across a text and avoid unnecessary repetition through the use of nouns and pronouns.

<p>Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and prepositional phrases (for example, <i>the strict maths teacher with curly hair</i>).</p> <p>Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition.</p>	
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Strand 3: Adverbials	
Y3/4	Pupils need to:
<p>Expressing time, place and cause using adverbs or prepositions.</p> <p>Use of commas after fronted adverbials.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand that a word or phrase can fill the adverbial slot in a sentence. • Understand that generally adverbials express how, when or where, but can also express cause, purpose, reason. • Understand that adverbials can be moved into different places in a sentence for effect. • Understand that most adverbial phrases begin with a preposition and are therefore also prepositional phrases (e.g. Before tea, <i>I had eaten too many sweets</i>. <i>My holiday was ruined because of the rain.</i>) • Understand that commas need to be used after fronted adverbials.

Strand 4: Verbs	
Y3/4	Pupils need to:
<p>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>).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Construct the present perfect form using the verb <i>to have</i> with the past participle (e.g. <i>I have walked this way for years.</i> / <i>She has eaten chocolate before.</i>) • Understand how the present perfect expresses a different meaning. • Understand that the perfect form of the verb can also be expressed in the past perfect (e.g. <i>I had played the piano for the last time.</i>)

Diagnostic activity

The purpose of this activity is to gather information to help you make judgements against the assessment criteria. Carry out the basic diagnostic game below, using the cards and instructions, then look at the suggestions for how to extend the diagnostic activity to focus on key areas of learning for Years 3 and 4.

Terminology for pupils	
Year 3	adverb, preposition, conjunction, word family, prefix, clause, subordinate clause, direct speech, consonant, consonant letter, vowel, vowel letter, inverted commas (or speech marks)
Year 4	determiner, pronoun, possessive pronoun, adverbial

Notes for teachers about the colour-coded cards

For this generic diagnostic activity, use only the cards listed below.

There are additional cards of different colours for the year group variations. Please refer to the additional games for each year group for instructions on how to use these extra cards.

All the Y3/4 cards are based on the theme of animals, and pupils should be able to use them to make a range of fiction and non-fiction sentences.

The set of cards contains some noun cards (blue) with subject pronouns and object pronouns. For the basic diagnostic game, you may wish to remove some or all of these.

Similarly, you may wish to remove the verb cards (pink) with the single words (*is, are, was, were*). This will prevent pupils forming sentences with complements (e.g. *A crab is a sea creature*).

You may need to change the colours of the cards according to what you have available. If this is necessary, please note:

- The colours should to be consistent each time pupils use them.
- The colours need to be consistent across the school.
- Where possible, determiners, adjectives and nouns/noun phrases should be similar shades (e.g. blues and purples to signify that they all form parts of the noun phrase).

Key to the coloured cards

Blue: nouns, noun phrases, subject and object pronouns

Pink: verbs

Green: adverbials

Yellow: conjunctions

White: punctuation

Introducing pupils to the cards

Ideally, pupils should work in groups of three to six, as the problem-solving and discussion within the group will provide useful information about how well pupils have grasped the concepts.

Give each child a blue, pink, green, yellow and white card. Ask them what is written/ what is the job of each coloured card. Give each child a chance to answer individually, then encourage them to work as a group and pool their cards. Prompt/question pupils, but do not give them the answer. Make notes about their understanding.

Explain the game to pupils. They will be working as a team initially, although you may split them into pairs as you progress. Stress that this is not an easy game – they are going to have to really think about it!

Basic diagnostic game: instructions

- 1 Put the blue, pink, white and green cards into piles. Keep the yellow cards to one side. Pick a blue card (noun phrase). Pupils read what is on the card.
- 2 Pupils should turn one pink (verb) card over. Does it work with the noun? (Use the term noun or refer to the blue card with Years 1–4; use the term *noun*, *subject* or *object* in Years 5–6). What about sense? Could they build a sentence with these two cards? If it doesn't work, give each child two pink cards from the pile and ask them to consider if they have any verbs that would work now. They should choose one.
- 3 What colour card do they need to pick next to make a sentence? Let them choose a card from one of the four piles. If the new word/phrase does not fit, let them turn over two more of the same colour to widen the choice.
- 4 Pupils can use up to six cards of the three main colours to make their sentence, using the white cards to add the punctuation. If you wish, introduce the scoring system below for pupils to collect points and allow them to add up their scores using a score card like the example given.
- 5 Introduce the yellow cards (conjunctions). Make sure pupils know what these are and what they do. Ask pupils to choose a yellow card, then extend their sentence using any other colour cards they want.
- 6 Discuss the sentences that they have made, using relevant terminology and probing understanding and misconceptions (e.g. punctuation, the difference between co-ordinating and subordinating conjunctions or main and subordinate clauses).

Note: Make sure you have blank cards in the colours that you are using so that pupils can add words and phrases if needed.

Record notes about pupils' understanding. Detail the knowledge that they demonstrate, such as terminology, and jot down notes from their discussion on anything that shows either good understanding or gaps in knowledge.

Scoring system

'Silly' sentence semantically (but grammatically correct) = 1 point per card + 1 for the sentence.

Grammatically correct sentence + makes sense in the genre = 1 point per card + 5 for the sense.

Correct punctuation: 1 point per correct card.

Terminology: bonus points at the teacher's discretion for correct terminology used in discussion of their sentences.

Impact: bonus points at the teacher's discretion for relevant explanations made about changes in meaning or the impact on the reader of using grammatical items in a particular way.

	Number of points
Points per card	
Sentence	
Sense	
Punctuation	
Terminology	
Impact	
Other bonus points	
Total	

Generic questions to ask about parts of sentences and punctuation

Use the following questions when you introduce each colour-coded set of cards and as you build sentences throughout the activity.

Parts of sentences:

What does this colour card do in the sentence?

What is it called?

(If it is a phrase) What is the most important word and why?

(If it is a phrase) What do the other words in the phrase do?

Can this card go anywhere else in the sentence and still make sense? Does the meaning of the sentence stay the same or change?

Punctuation:

What punctuation do you need?

What job is the punctuation doing?

Is there any other punctuation that could replace it?

If so, which could you choose and why?

Can you change the meaning by changing the punctuation?

Standard English

It is important to take every opportunity to secure pupils' understanding and use of Standard English throughout this activity. Where they demonstrate incorrect use of English or misconceptions, discuss and correct them. Common errors are likely to be subject/verb agreement (*we was playing in the park*), incorrect tense form (*he brung*) and incorrect pronoun use (*Becca and me went swimming*).

Years 3/4 variations to the diagnostic activity

The following activities offer some variations on the generic diagnostic game. They focus on specific aspects of the Programme of Study for different year groups. You do not need to use all the activities – choose and adapt those that are relevant to gather the information you need.

Key to the additional coloured cards (to be used alongside cards from the basic set)

Purple: adjectives

Light blue: determiners

Turquoise: prepositions

Language choices appropriate to genre

When using any of the activities for Y3/4, be aware of pupils' choices of cards that are suitable for fiction/non-fiction. Use their choices to explore understanding of the language more suited to one than the other. Identify any inconsistencies.

Noun phrases

Y3: Use of the forms a or an according to whether the next word begins with a consonant or a vowel

Y3/4: Understand that determiners are part of the noun phrase and use a wide range, e.g. numbers, possessives, articles, etc.

Provide pupils with the determiner cards (light blue). Using the sentences that they have created, ask them to choose a different determiner with their nouns/noun phrases. Ask them to explain how this changes the meaning of their sentence.

Y3/4: Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and prepositional phrases

Remove the noun cards that have prepositional phrases on them (e.g. *the lion **with** the long mane*).

- 1 Provide pupils with the noun cards (blue), verb cards (pink) and punctuation cards (white) and ask them to build a simple sentence. Use this to check their understanding of the terminology and secure the punctuation.
- 2 Focus on the noun phrases. Give them the preposition cards *of* and *with* (turquoise) and ask them to expand one of their noun phrases by choosing a preposition and completing the phrase on a blank blue card (e.g. *a stripy parrot **with beady eyes***). Ask them to explain what they have done, using of the terminology that they know.
- 3 Show pupils the noun cards (blue) that include prepositional phrases. Can they spot these phrases? Do they understand that the prepositional phrase is part of the expanded noun phrase? Ask them if they know other ways to expand the noun phrase and provide blank cards so that they can do this (e.g. by putting adjectives before the noun to add to their original noun phrase). Do the sentences still make sense? Is any additional punctuation needed? Is this the meaning that they want to communicate?

Y4: Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition

When playing the basic diagnostic game, include noun cards (blue) with subject and object pronouns. Ask pupils to explain where and why they have used them. Do they know what they are called? Ask them to say noun phrases (or write on blue cards) to replace the pronouns and explain what they have used (e.g. *The little blue car was racing towards the frightened little girl. / It was racing towards her.*) Why would they use the pronouns? Make sure that pupils understand the difference between the pronouns and the determiners even though some have the same form.

Adverbials

Y3: Expressing time, place and cause using adverbs or prepositions

Y4: Fronted adverbials; use of commas after fronted adverbials

- 1 Provide pupils with the noun cards (blue), verb cards (pink) and punctuation cards (white) and ask them to build a simple sentence. Use this to check their understanding of the terminology and secure the punctuation. Use the adverbial cards (green) and ask pupils to add one or more of these to their sentence. What do these phrases do in the sentence? Discuss the positioning and note pupils' understanding of this and any changes in meaning. Ask if they can spot which of the adverbial phrases begin with a preposition. Do they know what these are called? Do they know another way that we can use prepositional phrases in their sentences?
- 2 Make another simple sentence with no adverbial. Use the preposition cards (turquoise) and noun phrases (blue) to create the adverbial (prepositional phrase) in the sentence. Ask pupils to make a phrase to add to their simple sentences. Explore the parts that make up the prepositional phrase and the function of the prepositional phrase in the sentence. Ask them to choose which colour blank card they need to write out the whole phrase (green) and explain their choice.

Verbs

Y3: Use of the present perfect form of verbs instead of the simple past

Provide pupils with the noun cards (blue), verb cards (pink) and punctuation cards (white) and ask them to build a simple sentence. Allow them to add adverbials or to create sentences with more than one clause if you wish. Use the sentences to look at the impact on meaning of changing the verb tense and form. In the verb card set there are examples of verbs in the past simple and present perfect. Explore the effect of changing the form (from the simple to the perfect). You will need blank pink cards so that you/they can write any of the different forms of the verbs to those used in their original sentences. What understanding do pupils have of the difference in meaning between the two tenses? Can they give any examples of when they would use one rather than the other? If they have used simple sentences, do they now need to extend them so that they make sense? What do they need to add? What colour card is needed?

Y3/4: Using verbs in sentences with complements. Although there are no specific requirements to teach this in the National Curriculum, it is important in understanding how verbs work in sentences. Refer to the Subject Knowledge section for further information.

Use the verb cards (pink) with *is, are, was, were*, noun cards (blue) and the adjective cards (purple). Ask pupils to choose cards from each of the piles and make a simple sentence. Discuss which word the verb is and talk to the children to check their understanding that verbs are being, having and doing words. Discuss the fact that the words after the verb are adjectives and could be put before the noun to make expanded noun phrases (e.g. *The lion is fierce; the fierce lion*).

Noun phrases (print or copy on blue card)

the poisonous frog	a long-tailed monkey	a brightly coloured parrot
tropical forests with sky-touching trees	a loud roar	the golden eagle
a lion of enormous strength	my look-out of thick branches	a piercing shriek
several young elephants	the grasslands	its very sharp beak
his tree-house	a nest of twigs and soft leaves	their trunks
two extremely powerful wings	the hunters	their home
fierce birds of prey	the undergrowth	the young boy
her hiding place	the girl with dark hair	this land
their prey	the intrepid explorer	thorny bushes, as sharp as needles
a small canoe	the marshy river	the hot sun

Subject and object pronouns (print or copy on blue card)

I	I	I
he	he	she
she	it	it
we	we	we
you	they	they

me	you	him
her	it	us
the		

Verbs: past simple and present perfect (print or copy on pink card)

was	were	had
hid	lived	ate
made	discovered	flew
spotted	scrambled	soared
squawked	trumpeted	searched (for)
chased	peeped	travelled
gobbled up	pretended	crept
crouched	disappeared	swooped
screeched	chased	hunted
have seen	have followed	have sneaked
have investigated	have protected	have stolen
have trapped	have tricked	have helped
has built	has frightened	has persuaded
has destroyed	has vanished	has been
have been	have had	has had

Verbs: other tenses (print or copy on pink card)

is	are	was holding
is disappearing	was standing	were carrying
am running	was climbing	was hiding
exist	was protecting	were fighting
is hoping	live	was lying down
was flying	perches	takes off
is clambering	was sheltering	leave
were chasing	limps	was devouring

Adverbials (print or copy on green card)

immediately	at that moment	after breakfast
before sunset	just after midnight	hours afterwards
before time began	long, long ago	at sunrise
the next day	later that afternoon	that night
helpfully	furiously	curiously
in silence	without hesitation	fearfully
in the flash of an eye	like a bolt of lightning	as fast as possible

straight ahead	next to the stream	as far as the eye could see
in front of the hut	beyond the jungle	far away
over the rickety bridge	through the darkness	amongst the branches
into the water	between the river and the sea	at the top of the tree
through the forest	out of nowhere	along a winding path

Conjunctions (print or copy on yellow card)

and	but	or
as	since	when
because	if	as soon as
until	although	even though
after	before	while

Punctuation (print or copy on white card)

.	.	.
.	CL (capital letter)	CL (capital letter)
CL (capital letter)	CL (capital letter)	,
,	,	?
?	!	!

Adjectives (print or copy on purple card)

frightened	peaceful	quiet
calm	noisy	furious
upset	very excited	happy
hungry	exhausted	cool
dark	burning hot	rough

Determiners (print or copy on light blue card)

a	an	the
a	an	the
that	this	these
those	my	your
his	her	our
their	any	some
many	a few	several
one	two	three

Prepositions (print or copy on turquoise card)

of	of	of
with	with	with
behind	in	from
during	for	on top of
into	on	through
over	until	beside
to	under	because of
in front of	out of	before
after	at	by
between	beyond	

Appendix

Additional subject knowledge (alphabetically arranged)

Adjectival phrases

We are familiar with using adjectives or strings of adjectives in front of a noun to create a noun phrase. In this type of phrase, the noun is the head word. For example, *the lazy, luminous, long-tailed lizard* contains the adjectives *lazy*, *luminous* and *long-tailed*, and these are pre-modifying the head word in the phrase which is the noun 'lizard'.

Adjectival phrases are phrases in which the adjective is the head of the phrase, as in the following examples:

- *The princess was **very beautiful**.*
- *The policeman's hunch proved **entirely correct**.*
- *The strong wind made the pupils **quite crazy**.*

Complements

Complements are one of the five clause elements and are probably the least familiar to primary teachers. The words in the complement positions provide information about the subject or object in the sentence, and can be an adjective/adjective phrase, noun/noun phrase, or a clause with a nominal function.

- Adjective: *The painting was **beautiful**.* (SVC)
- Adjectival phrase: *The decorators painted the room **bright pink**.* (SVOC)
- Noun: *My father was **chairman**.* (SVC)
- Noun phrase: *He became **my teacher**.* (SVC)
- Clause: *I believed her **to be telling the truth**.* (SVOC)

Complements need to be used with a particular group of verbs, which are often referred to as 'link' verbs or copulas. The verbs that can most commonly be used as link verbs are *be*, *seem*, *appear (look)*, *feel*, *get*, *keep*, *become*, *turn*. Often the verbs that describe senses (*look*, *smell*, *sound*, *taste*, *feel*) can be used as link verbs.

If pupils know verbs as 'doing words', these link verbs are often the ones they have difficulty with, as it is harder to understand that they 'do' anything. They more commonly express a state of being. Therefore, it is best to use the correct terminology 'verb' with pupils from the start.

Finite and non-finite verbs to create subordinate clauses

English sentences should contain a finite verb. A finite verb shows tense and, if it is in the present tense, shows number and person (also with past tense *be*).

If the present or past participles are used on their own, they are non-finite verbs. For example:

- *Looking, screaming, cooking, singing* – present participles
- *Looked, screamed, woken, sung, bought* – past participles (the last three from irregular verbs).

Past participles are easy to confuse with the simple past tense. Regular verbs have the same spelling, using the *-ed* suffix, but there is a difference with some irregular verbs: *woke/woken*; *sang/sung*. However, when used as a non-finite verb, the subject is rarely included.

Clauses that contain non-finite verbs are called non-finite clauses. They cannot be the main clause in a sentence because they do not contain a finite verb. The non-finite clause would not make sense if it were used on its own as a simple sentence. Using this method of creating a complex sentence adds variety to writing. Pupils can also experiment with swapping the clauses around for effect (and investigating the correct punctuation to use):

- **Woken by the thunder**, she got out of bed and shut the window.
- He checked his watch for the fifth time, **worried by the delay**.
- **Shouting at the top of his voice**, he cheered his team on.
- They walked home from the theatre together, **talking all the way**.

The final non-finite form we can use to create complex sentences is the infinitive, i.e. the verb preceded by *to*: *to speak*, *to eat*, *to survive*. These cannot be used on their own in sentences, being non-finite verbs, but they can be used to create the subordinate clause.

- **To become a doctor**, you will need to train for many years. (Correct non-finite form in the subordinate clause and a finite verb required in the main clause.)

These constructions are extremely useful for encouraging pupils to vary their sentence structure. In effect, the non-finite verb is performing the same function as a conjunction – joining two clauses within a sentence.

Prepositions and prepositional phrases

Prepositions can be used to indicate:

- position (place): *in, on, at, above, under, by, beyond, behind, among*
- direction (place): *into, onto, towards, off*
- time: *on, before, after, during, until, since, for*
- manner: *in, by, like, with*
- attributes: *with, without, of*
- accompaniment: *with*
- purpose/reason: *because, due to, as*

These words enable further information to be added, in the form of a noun or noun phrase, which creates a prepositional phrase.

Preposition	+	noun/noun phrase	indicates
under	+	the deep, blue sea	position
into	+	the woods	direction
at	+	midday	time
on	+	Saturdays	time/frequency
between	+	October and December	time/duration
for	+	three days	time/duration
like	+	an angel	manner
with	+	kindness	manner
without	+	hope	attribute
with	+	my friends	accompaniment
as	+	as an example	purpose/reason
because of	+	the snow	purpose/reason

Prepositional phrases can also indicate the agent after the passive – for example, *by the burglar, with a baseball bat*.

Uses of prepositional phrases:

- Post-modify nouns. They occur after the main noun, but are still part of the noun phrase: *The boy **in the bright yellow jumper** waved excitedly.*
- Adverbial phrases, for example of manner, place, time, reason: *He swam **like a fish**. She flew **to the shops**. They arranged to meet **by the post office**. The footballer had to rest **due to a hamstring injury**.*
- Complements to adjectives or adjectival phrases: *The politician was sorry **for his comments**. The girl was delighted **with her shiny, new bike**.*
- Phrases using the preposition *than* can also qualify adjectives and enable a comparison: *The hare was quicker **than the tortoise**.*

Prepositions can also be used with verbs to create phrasal and prepositional verbs (see *Verbs: phrasal, prepositional and phrasal-prepositional* below).

Subordinate clauses

A subordinate clause is a clause that is not the main clause and cannot stand on its own as a sentence. Use of a subordinate clause will create a complex sentence. In some grammar texts, the subordinate clause is referred to as the dependent clause and the main clause as the independent clause. Sometimes subordinate clauses may start a sentence, be positioned at the end of a sentence or they may be embedded within the sentence.

There are different types of subordinate clause: **adverbial, relative** and **nominal**.

An **adverbial clause** is used to express time, conditional, purpose/reason, result, contrast or manner. This type of clause fills the adverbial slot in a sentence.

Finite adverbial clauses (clauses containing a finite form of the verb) will use a conjunction:

- *The road flooded **as it rained**.*
- ***When she laughed**, everyone was surprised.*
- *She looked round **because she heard the noise**.*
- ***If you are attending**, please let us know.*

Non-finite adverbial clauses will use an infinitive form of the verb or present/past participles used without auxiliary verbs:

- ***To bake the perfect cake**, you need excellent ingredients.*
- *The beacon will shine **to warn any travellers**.*
- ***Singing like angels**, the choir sounded heavenly.*
- *The dog trembled, **frightened by the thunder**.*

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.

As can be seen above, adverbial clauses can start a sentence or be placed in final position. They can also be embedded, in which case they should be contained within commas. If this additional information is removed, the sentence will still make sense.

- *She could, **when she put her mind to it**, do well in most things.*
- *The dog, **frightened by the thunder**, trembled.*

A **relative clause** gives extra information about a person, thing or place, or defines exactly which person or thing is being talked about. It comes immediately after a noun (so forms part of the noun phrase) and needs a main clause to make a complete sentence. When the clause adds information, it is enclosed in commas; when it defines or identifies the main noun, commas should not be used.

- The girl **who is standing in the corner of the playground** is called Sue.
- The man **who was playing the trumpet** stopped for a moment.
- The kitten, **which was black and white**, was stuck in the tree.
- She was married to an Italian **whom she had met on holiday**.
- The idea **that really grabbed** me was to write a poster.

The above examples use finite verbs, but sometimes the relative pronoun and verb can be omitted to make a non-finite relative clause:

- The girl **standing in the corner of the playground** is called Sue.
- The man **playing the trumpet** stopped for a moment.

Relative clauses form part of the noun phrase; if the noun phrase is being substituted by a pronoun, the whole phrase – including the relative clause – needs to be substituted.

- **The girl who is standing in the corner of the playground** is called Sue.
- **She** is called Sue.

Because relative clauses follow a noun and are part of the noun phrase, they are often embedded in a sentence. However, they can also occur in other positions:

- The man **who was playing the trumpet** stopped for a moment. (The noun phrase containing the relative clause is in the subject position in the sentence, so the relative clause is embedded inside the sentence.)
- She was married to an Italian **whom she had met on holiday**. (The noun phrase containing the relative clause is in the object position, so the relative clause is at the end of the sentence.)

A **nominal clause** fills the subject or object slot in a sentence:

- I asked her **why she had come**.
- He felt **that he needed to leave**.
- She told her mother **she would be late home**.
- **That she was angry** was obvious.
- **How the album will do** depends on the fans.

Although nominal clauses are not taught specifically at primary level, it is useful for teachers to be aware of them, since pupils will use these structures in their writing (particularly in reported speech) and will come across them in texts. Many of these start with *that* (a conjunction given in the Year 2 grammar appendix of the National Curriculum). If pupils use *that* in a nominal clause, they will not be able to manipulate the clauses in the same way they do with adverbial clauses. Knowing the difference between adverbial and nominal clauses will help a teacher unpick any confusion.

- He said **that he didn't care**. (SVO with a nominal clause filling the object position.)
- **That he didn't care** he said. (Moving the clause does not leave a structure which makes sense.)

When *that* is used in an adverbial clause it is usually as part of a phrase – for example, *so that*, *in order that*, *providing that*.

Subjunctive

Verbs in the subjunctive mood are used to show expression of a hypothetical situation or one where something is demanded, recommended, wished or expected. The following examples show some of the different structures that can be used for the subjunctive mood.

- 1 *If I **were** to leave, I would miss the final speech.* (subordinate *if* clause expressing a hypothetical situation)
- 2 *The directors recommend that he **attend** the hearing.* (subordinate *that* clause containing base infinitive form of the verb)
- 3 *The directors recommend that he **not attend** the hearing.* (subordinate *that* clause containing negative + base infinitive form of the verb)
- 4 *I would suggest that you **be** ready for the changes.* (subordinate *that* clause containing base infinitive form of the verb *to be*)
- 5 *It is important that staff **be waiting** outside for their arrival.* (subordinate *that* clause containing continuous form)
- 6 *They expect that the work **be completed** by Friday.* (subordinate *that* clause containing passive form)

- 1 *If I **were** to leave, I would miss the final speech.*

The subjunctive mood can be used in subordinate clauses introduced by *if*, which express a hypothetical situation. 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.*

- 2 *The directors recommend that he **attend** the hearing.*

The subjunctive can be used to express obligation, requirement, desire or compulsion when the sentence contains a subordinate (nominal) clause introduced by *that*. To structure the subjunctive in these situations, the third person singular verb does not take the *s* suffix. This is the same form as the base infinitive of the verb, i.e. *to attend* would be the infinitive form; the base infinitive form does not include the word *to*.

- *The headmaster requested that the boy **change** his attitude.*
- *The H&S Officer recommended that the manager **reconsider** the advice he gives.*

- 3 *The directors recommend that he **not attend** the hearing.*

The structures explained in example 2 can also be formed in the negative.

- 4 *I would suggest that you **be** ready for the changes.*

Again, this is a subordinate *that* clause that uses the base infinitive form of the verb. Pupils will probably only have come across *be* used on its own in a verb position when they are forming a command (*Be ready at three!*). They may not even recognise that *be* is related to *was* and *were*, so using this verb in subjunctive mood may require some explanation.

- 5 *It is important that staff **be waiting** outside for their arrival.*

The continuous form can also be used in the subjunctive, but it is constructed by using the base infinitive *be* with the present participle, rather than the *is/was/are/were* auxiliaries that we normally use with continuous forms.

6 They expect that the work **be completed** by Friday.

In this type of subjunctive construction, when the verb is required in the passive voice, the bare infinitive *be* is again used as the auxiliary verb rather than the more familiar auxiliaries *is/was/are/were*. This sentence could also be written without using the subjunctive:

- They expect that the work **should be completed** by Friday. (modal verb phrase)
- They expect that the work **will be completed** by Friday. (modal verb phrase)
- They expect the work **to be completed** by Friday. (verb phrase formed by infinitive + past participle)

Other examples of passive use of the subjunctive are:

- The team managers agreed that the match **be postponed**.
- The judge demanded that the prisoner **be removed** from court.

All these examples can be written in ways that do not use the subjunctive. Modern English has a wide range of modal auxiliary verbs that can be used to express hypothetical situations, obligations, desires and recommendations, so use of the subjunctive mood is optional and may sound strange to some people.

We often come across the subjunctive in fixed expressions. The fact that these are fixed shows the length of time they have existed in our language and reinforces the view that the subjunctive mood is slightly archaic. However, it is worth recognising these for what they are, so a few are listed below. Note the use of *that* clauses and bare infinitives, as in the more modern examples above.

- God **save** the Queen!
- **Be** that as it may...
- Heaven **forbid** that...
- **Come** what may, I will persevere.

Verbs: phrasal, prepositional and phrasal-prepositional

Prepositions can be added to verbs to create phrasal, prepositional and phrasal-prepositional verb phrases. These create a different meaning to the one the main verb would have on its own.

- 1 The eagle **took off** into the wind.
- 2 The eagle **stretched out** his talons towards the water.
- 3 Hungrily, the eagle **looked for** a meal.
- 4 The eagle **put up with** the wind patiently.

Each of these verbs (highlighted in red) includes a verb and a preposition. In the last example, there are two prepositions forming part of the verb. However, there are differences in the way these verbs can be used and how they interact with other sentence elements.

The verb in the first sentence is a phrasal verb, which is used intransitively, i.e. it does not take a direct object. We can see that the sentence has the elements:

The eagle **took off** into the wind.
 subject (S) verb (V) adverbial (A)

You cannot usually place an adverbial between the verb and the preposition in phrasal verbs. So we could not say *The eagle took into the wind off*.

The second sentence has a transitive phrasal verb. It takes the direct object (Od) *his talons*. We can analyse the elements of this sentence:

The eagle stretched out his talons towards the water.
 S V Od A

As with intransitive phrasal verbs, the adverbial phrase cannot be placed between the verb and the preposition: *The eagle stretched towards the water out his talons.*

However, transitive phrasal verbs can be separated by the direct object. So we can manipulate in the following ways, even when a pronoun replaces the noun phrase filling the direct object slot.

- *The eagle stretched his talons out towards the water.*
- *The eagle stretched them out towards the water.*

The third sentence uses a prepositional verb. We can analyse the elements of this sentence:

Hungrily, the eagle looked for a meal.
 A S V Od

The direct object in a sentence with a prepositional verb must follow the preposition, so it cannot act in the same way as a phrasal verb, splitting the verb and particle.

- *Hungrily, the eagle looked a meal for.*
- *Hungrily, the eagle looked it for.*

Another difference between prepositional verbs and phrasal verbs is that an adverbial can split the verb and preposition in a preposition verb, even though the direct object cannot do this.

- *The eagle looked hungrily for a meal.*

The fourth sentence is different in that the verb is followed by two prepositions. This is a phrasal-prepositional verb and it is always used transitively as a direct object must follow the prepositional part of this verb.

The eagle put up with the wind patiently.
 S V Od A

In a phrasal-prepositional verb, the first preposition is the phrasal part and the second preposition is the prepositional part. The rules stated above about adverbials apply to each part of these verbs. Adverbials cannot usually split the verb from the phrasal preposition, so we can't have *The eagle put patiently up with the wind.*

However, the adverbial can split the phrasal and prepositional elements: *The eagle put up patiently with the wind.*

Likewise, the direct object cannot split the verb; it has to follow the final preposition: *The eagle put up the wind with patiently.*

There is no doubt that the flexibility of English, in enabling prepositions to be used in these types of structures, adds tremendously to the creativity of our language.

English irregular verbs

Modern English retains many irregular (strong) verb forms from earlier usage. This is a list of many of the irregular verbs currently in use. Some irregular verbs have two forms accepted, e.g. *burned/burnt*.

Base infinitive	Simple past form	Past participle
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke	awoken
be	was, were	been
bear	bore	borne
beat	beat	beaten
become	became	become
begin	began	begun
bend	bent	bent
bet	bet	bet
bid	bid	bid
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	bled	bled
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
broadcast	broadcast	broadcast
build	built	built
burn	burned/burnt	burned/burnt
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
choose	chose	chosen
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost

creep	crept	crept
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamed/dreamt	dreamed/dreamt
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbid	forbade	forbidden
forget	forgot	forgotten
forgive	forgave	forgiven
forsake	forsook	forsaken
forswear	forsook	forsook
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung	hung
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard

hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
learn	learned/learnt	learned/learnt
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie	lay	lain
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
pay	paid	paid
put	put	put
quit	quit	quit
read	read	read
rend	rent	rent
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
saw	sawed	sawn
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent

set	set	set
sew	sewed	sewn
shake	shook	shaken
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone	shone
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown
shrink	shrank	shrunk
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
sow	sowed	sown
speak	spoke	spoken
spend	spent	spent
spin	spun	spun
spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank	stunk
strew	strewed	strewn
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	struck

string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
sweep	swept	swept
swim	swam	swum
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	trodden
understand	understood	understood
wake	woke	woken
wear	wore	worn
weep	wept	wept
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

-ly adverbs		
angrily	anxiously	awkwardly
badly	boldly	bravely
brightly	carefully	cheerfully
crazily	daily	defiantly
devotedly	dramatically	eagerly
enormously	evenly	eventually
exactly	faithfully	finally
foolishly	fortunately	freely
frequently	gleefully	gracefully
happily	hastily	honestly
hopelessly	hourly	hungrily
innocently	inquisitively	irritably
jealously	kindly	lazily
loosely	madly	merrily
mysteriously	nervously	obediently
occasionally	only	perfectly
politely	poorly	powerfully
promptly	quickly	rapidly
rarely	regularly	rudely
safely	selfishly	seriously
shakily	sharply	silently
slowly	solemnly	speedily
sternly	tightly	unexpectedly
usually	warmly	weakly
wearily	weekly	wildly

Some adverbs that can be used to pre-modify adjectives		
absolutely	almost	awfully
badly	completely	considerably
dearly	deeply	drastically
dreadfully	enormously	entirely
especially	exceedingly	extraordinarily
extremely	fairly	fully
greatly	hard	hugely
immensely	incredibly	just
largely	massively	moderately
nearly	noticeably	partly
perfectly	poorly	positively
powerfully	practically	pretty
purely	quite	rather
really	reasonably	remarkably
significantly	simply	slightly
strongly	sufficiently	surprisingly
terribly	totally	tremendously
truly	unbelievably	understandably
utterly	very	wonderfully

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