

## NMPS - GRAMMAR PROGRESSION KNOWLEDGE AND PURPOSE/SKILL

This document is intended to assist teachers in the teaching of grammar. It is set out to do the following:

- **Build knowledge year on year:** Using the English National Curriculum Appendix 2 as a basis, grammar knowledge/objectives have been set out below with some amendments to be in-line with approaches at NMPS, so that grammar knowledge is built on and reviewed when relevant.
- **Aid explanation:** In line with the NMPS Teaching and Learning policy, the RLT core principle of Giving Clear Instructions and Explanations and our approach to the teaching of the writing process, learning objectives, as set out in the Appendix 2 of the English National Curriculum, are linked to clear rationale as to why writers may choose to use specific grammar. Grammar is explained in terms of purpose of use so that teachers can explain the what and the why (why writers may want to use specific grammar: the impact on the reader). The aim is that children are then empowered to use grammar for their own purpose.
- **Bridge of knowledge to skill:** By the end of year six, we want children to have confidence in their own writing process. We aim for children to go into secondary school with the skill to produce the text types asked of them in the subjects that they will be taught. Part of the journey is learning the knowledge of the grammar curriculum and developing the skill of using this knowledge when writing for purpose.

Nursery	Vocabulary, Sentence, Punctuation & Text structure development.
	<p>Birth to three: Children in our nursery provision for 2-3 year olds develop their ability to listen and respond to instructions. Through modelling, listening to adults, songs, stories and rhymes, children begin to develop their speech patterns, their ability to ask questions, and their understanding of words in context.</p> <p>Three to four: When children progress to the three to four year old room, they continue to develop the outcomes of birth to three but begin to use a wider range vocabulary. They learn to understand a wider range of instructions (with two parts) and develop their ability to use longer sentences (which may have irregular tenses). They then begin to have reciprocal conversations with friend or adult.</p>

Reception	Vocabulary, Sentence, Punctuation & Text structure development.
	<p>Children develop language and communication skills through planned sessions using texts from our core list, alongside learning through play in an environment that promotes reading and encourages quality interactions that use vocabulary to develop learning.</p> <p>Children develop the skill of articulating well formed sentences by connecting ideas (using some conjunctions) and the use of past, present and future tenses; sentence development is supported by the following: modelling by teachers; the use of story, song and rhyme; and supported practice.</p>

Year 1	Word structure	Sentence structure	Text structure	Punctuation structure	Vocabulary structure
	<p>Begin to use and recognise the purpose of <a href="#">prefixes and suffixes</a></p> <p>Regular plural noun <a href="#">suffixes</a> –s or –es [for example, dog, dogs; wish, wishes], including the effects of these suffixes on the meaning of the noun</p> <p><a href="#">Suffixes</a> that can be added to verbs where no change is needed in the spelling of root words (e.g. helping, helped, helper)</p> <p>How the <a href="#">prefix</a> un– changes the meaning of verbs and adjectives [negation, for example, unkind, or undoing: untie the boat]</p>	<p>Be exposed to the language of ‘clause’</p> <p>Basic sentences with very simple <a href="#">clause</a> structure of subject and verb</p> <p>How words can combine to make sentences</p> <p>To learn that clauses can be linked together (basic <a href="#">coordination</a>) Joining words and joining clauses using and</p>	<p>Sequencing sentences to form short narratives</p>	<p>Separation of words with spaces Introduction to capital letters, full stops, <a href="#">question marks</a> and <a href="#">exclamation marks</a> to demarcate sentences</p> <p><a href="#">Capital letters for names and for the personal pronoun I</a></p>	<p>letter, capital letter, word, singular, plural, sentence, punctuation, full stop, <a href="#">question mark</a>, <a href="#">exclamation mark</a></p>

Year 2	Word structure	Sentence structure	Text structure	Punctuation structure	Vocabulary structure
	<p>Build on prior learning of <a href="#">prefixes and suffixes</a> by learning about the formation of nouns using <a href="#">suffixes</a> such as –ness, –er and by <a href="#">compounding</a> [for example, whiteboard, superman]</p> <p>And the formation of <a href="#">adjectives</a> using <a href="#">suffixes</a> such as –ful, –less</p> <p>Be introduced to the idea of <a href="#">comparative and superlative adjectives</a> (without the terminology needed): Use of the suffixes –er, –est in adjectives</p> <p>In standard English turn adjectives into <a href="#">adverbs</a> with the use of –ly</p>	<p>Continue to learn that <a href="#">clauses</a> can be linked through <a href="#">coordination</a> (using or, and, but) building on year one.</p> <p>Begin to learn that <a href="#">subordination</a> (using when, if, that, because) can link clauses in a slightly different way.</p> <p>Learn that nouns can be turned into simple <a href="#">expanded noun phrases</a> for description and specification [for example, the blue butterfly, plain flour, the man in the moon]</p> <p>How the grammatical patterns in a sentence indicate its function as a <a href="#">statement</a>, <a href="#">question</a>, <a href="#">exclamation</a> or <a href="#">command</a></p>	<p>By the end of year two, children should be secure in the correct choice and consistent use of present tense and past tense throughout writing.</p> <p>Use of the <a href="#">progressive</a> form of verbs in the present and past tense to mark actions in progress [for example, she is drumming, he was shouting].</p>	<p>Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and <a href="#">exclamation marks</a> to demarcate sentences. Begin to learn that <a href="#">clauses</a> are the initial building blocks for all sentences and other grammatical elements can be added to the clause to add detail.</p> <p><a href="#">Commas</a> to separate items in a list</p> <p><a href="#">Apostrophes</a> to mark where letters are missing in spelling</p> <p><a href="#">Apostrophes</a> to mark singular possession in nouns [for example, the girl's name]</p>	<p><a href="#">noun</a>, <a href="#">noun phrase</a>, <a href="#">statement</a>, <a href="#">question</a>, <a href="#">exclamation</a>, <a href="#">command</a>, <a href="#">compound</a>, <a href="#">suffix</a>, <a href="#">adjective</a>, <a href="#">adverb</a>, <a href="#">verb</a> tense (past, present) <a href="#">apostrophe</a>, <a href="#">comma</a></p>

Year 3	Word structure	Sentence structure	Text structure	Punctuation structure	Vocabulary structure
	<p>Review year two knowledge of prefixes for noun formation and and progress to formation of nouns using an expanded range of <a href="#">prefixes</a> [for example super-, anti-, auto-]</p> <p>Build on year 2 understanding of <a href="#">noun phrases</a> with the use of the forms <a href="#">a or an</a> according to whether the next word begins with a consonant or a vowel [for example, a rock, an open box]. NB: A, an and the are <a href="#">articles</a> - the most common form of <a href="#">determiner</a>.</p> <p>Be introduced to the concept of <a href="#">etymology</a> and word families based on common words, showing how words are related in form and meaning [for example, solve, solution, solver, dissolve, insoluble]. Link this knowledge to the use of <a href="#">prefixes and suffixes</a>.</p>	<p>To learn to express time, place and cause using <a href="#">conjunctions</a> [for example, when, before, after, while, so, because], <a href="#">adverbs</a> [for example, then, next, soon, therefore], or <a href="#">prepositions</a> [for example, before, after, during, in, because of].</p>	<p>Introduction to <a href="#">paragraphs</a> as a way to group related material.</p> <p>Headings and sub-headings to aid presentation.</p> <p>Use of the <a href="#">present perfect form</a> of verbs instead of the simple past [for example, He has gone out to play contrasted with He went out to play].</p>	<p>Begin to learn to use <a href="#">inverted commas</a> to punctuate <a href="#">direct speech</a> and why we need them to help the reader know the difference between direct speech (dialogue) and narrative/prose.</p>	<p><a href="#">preposition</a>, <a href="#">conjunction</a>, word family, <a href="#">prefix</a>, <a href="#">clause</a>, <a href="#">subordinate clause</a>, <a href="#">direct speech</a>, consonant, vowel, <a href="#">inverted commas</a> (or 'speech marks').</p>

Year 4	Word structure	Sentence structure	Text structure	Punctuation structure	Vocabulary structure
	<p>Review year 2 use of apostrophe for possession and build on it to learn that there is a grammatical difference between plural and possessive –s. Possessives use <a href="#">apostrophes</a> and plurals do not.</p> <p><a href="#">Standard English forms for verb inflections</a> instead of local spoken forms [for example, we were instead of we was, or I did instead of I done]. This will build towards year 6 having an understanding of subject/verb agreement.</p>	<p>To learn to construct expanded <a href="#">noun phrases</a> by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and prepositional phrases (e.g. the teacher expanded to: the strict maths teacher with curly hair) so that description is enhanced.</p> <p>To learn why <a href="#">fronted adverbials</a> (for example, later that day, I heard the bad news.) are used so that a choice can be made about their inclusion into writing.</p>	<p>Build on learning in year 3 to learn to use <a href="#">paragraphs</a> to organise ideas around a theme.</p> <p>To learn that writers can use an appropriate choice of <a href="#">pronoun</a> or noun within and across sentences to aid <a href="#">cohesion</a> and avoid repetition.</p>	<p>Build on year 3's learning that <a href="#">inverted commas</a> is used for speech and is supported by other punctuation (for example, a <a href="#">comma</a> after the reporting clause; end punctuation within inverted commas: The conductor shouted, "Sit down!").</p> <p>Review year 2 learning of <a href="#">apostrophes</a> for possession in the singular form and explore the punctuation difference when there is plural possession (for example, the girl's name, the girls' names).</p> <p>To learn to use <a href="#">commas</a> after <a href="#">fronted adverbials</a>.</p>	<p><a href="#">Determiner</a>, <a href="#">pronoun</a>, <a href="#">possessive pronoun</a>, <a href="#">adverbial</a></p>

Year 5	Word structure	Sentence structure	Text structure	Punctuation structure	Vocabulary structure
	<p>To learn about verbifying - converting nouns or adjectives into verbs using <a href="#">suffixes</a> (for example, -ate; -ise; -ify)</p> <p>To learn that verb meaning can change with verb <a href="#">prefixes</a> (for example, dis-, de-, mis-, over- and re-).</p>	<p>To learn that writers use <a href="#">relative clauses</a> to add information about the subject of a sentence. Know that they can begin with a <a href="#">relative pronoun</a>, who, which, where, when, whose, that, or they can be used with an omitted relative pronoun.</p> <p>To learn that writers can indicate <a href="#">degrees</a> of possibility using adverbs (for example, perhaps, surely) or <a href="#">modal verbs</a> (for example, might, should, will, must).</p>	<p>To build on year 2/3 knowledge of clauses, sentences and paragraphs to learn how <a href="#">clauses</a>, sentences and paragraphs are linked together using devices to build <a href="#">cohesion</a> within a paragraph (for example, then, after that, this, firstly)</p> <p>To learn how coherent pieces of writing are planned with the idea of <a href="#">linking ideas</a> across paragraphs using <a href="#">adverbials</a> of time (for example, later), place (for example, nearby) and number (for example, secondly) or <a href="#">tense</a> choices (for example, he had seen her before).</p>	<p>To learn that writers can use brackets, dashes or commas to indicate <a href="#">parenthesis</a> - the act of adding useful but not necessary information.</p> <p>To use <a href="#">commas</a> to clarify meaning or avoid <a href="#">ambiguity</a>.</p>	<p><a href="#">modal verb</a>, <a href="#">relative pronoun</a>, <a href="#">relative clause</a>, <a href="#">parenthesis</a>, bracket, dash, <a href="#">cohesion</a>, <a href="#">ambiguity</a>.</p>

Year 6	Word structure	Sentence structure	Text structure	Punctuation structure	Vocabulary structure
	<p>To learn about appropriate <a href="#">register</a> and the difference between vocabulary typical of informal speech and vocabulary appropriate for formal speech and writing - including <a href="#">phrasal verbs</a> (for example, find out – discover; ask for – request; go in – enter)</p> <p>To learn how words are related by meaning as synonyms and antonyms [for example, big, large, little]</p>	<p>To learn why authors may use the <a href="#">passive voice</a> to affect the presentation of information in a sentence (for example, I broke the window in the greenhouse versus, The window in the greenhouse was broken) and to include in own composition.</p> <p>To learn explicitly about <a href="#">register</a> and the difference between structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing (for example, the use of question tags: He’s your friend, isn’t he?)</p> <p>To learn that the use of the <a href="#">subjunctive</a> mood such as, ‘<i>If I were</i> you’ or ‘<i>Were they</i> to come in,’ is deployed with a very formal <a href="#">register</a>.</p>	<p>To build on the knowledge of year 5 and to become more proficient in linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of <a href="#">cohesive devices</a>: repetition of a word or phrase, grammatical connections (for example, the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence), and <a href="#">ellipsis</a>.</p> <p>To review knowledge from year 3 and to learn that layout devices (for example, headings, sub-headings, columns, <a href="#">bullets</a>, or tables), help to structure text so that the reader is able to navigate the text.</p>	<p>To learn that writers use the <a href="#">semi-colon</a>, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses to indicate a clear link for the reader and avoid repetition of ‘and’ (for example, It’s raining; I’m fed up). Children should then learn to begin to use them in their own writing.</p> <p>To learn to use of the <a href="#">colon</a> to introduce a list and use of <a href="#">semi-colons</a> within lists</p> <p>Punctuation of bullet points to list information.</p> <p>To learn how <a href="#">hyphens</a> can be used to avoid <a href="#">ambiguity</a> (for example, man eating shark versus man-eating shark, or recover versus re-cover).</p>	<p><a href="#">subject</a>, <a href="#">object</a>, <a href="#">active</a>, <a href="#">passive</a>, <a href="#">synonym</a>, <a href="#">antonym</a>, <a href="#">ellipsis</a>, <a href="#">hyphen</a>, <a href="#">colon</a>, <a href="#">semi-colon</a>, <a href="#">bullet points</a></p>

Grammar purpose and explanation:

Words and vocabulary structure	Sentence structure	Text structure	Punctuation structure
<p><u>Nouns</u> give a name to things, which may be concrete (the things which have a physical presence), abstract (emotions, such as happiness, fear),</p>	<p><u>Clauses</u>: A clause is the basic ingredient for all sentences. All sentences are made up of a clause or clauses that have other grammatical features added to them.</p>	<p><u>Subjunctive mood</u>: Adds an element of hypothetical wishful thinking or speculation to an action or feeling in your writing. If I were queen I’d chop your head off! or If I</p>	<p><u>Exclamation marks</u> are placed at the end of a sentence. Their function is to allow the writer to give a sign of strong positive or</p>

or related to actions (the flight, a walk, a run). Because their function is to refer, they enable a reader to focus on the subject-matter of a text.

Proper nouns are important if you wish to refer to people, places or organisations by their particular name. They begin with capital letters to mark them as very specific. You will use a concrete noun or proper noun to introduce something to the reader but in subsequent sentences you will probably be replacing that noun with a pronoun. Beware though, your reader may lose track of what your pronoun is referring to and therefore you may at times need to repeat the noun (especially if there is more than one subject).

Compound nouns are nouns made up of two or more existing words: cat + food = cat food or playgroup.

Writers use determiners with a noun so that you can let your reader know you are writing about something specific/a specific noun. There are several types but they all function to express definiteness:

Articles: The purpose of using a/an is to let your reader know you are talking about something which you have not mentioned before. 'An' is used if the following noun begins with a vowel. This reflects the flow of speech and carries no other function. 'The' refers to something specific.

Demonstratives point out which one/ones you are writing about (this/that/these/those).

Possessives tell the reader who owns what (my/your/his/her/its/our/their).

Quantifiers and numbers (some, any, no, many, much, few, little, both, all,

Subject			Verb		Object	
Determiner	Adjective	Noun	Verb	Verb	Determiner	Noun
The	big	horse	is	jumping	the	fence.

Recognising how individual words are grouped together to produce elements of a sentence is an important advance on simply labelling individual words according to their word-class e.g: (subject- noun - horse, verb - jumping, object - noun - fence).

NB: For your interest 'the big horse' and 'the fence' would be classed as two nominal groups, while 'is jumping' is a verbal group.

Declarative clause: Writers write statements to give information to the reader which may or may not be true. I ate the apple.

A directive clause (or imperative clause/command) is used to tell, urge, persuade or instruct someone to do or not do something. Writers use them in different kinds of text and for different purposes. (See modal verbs)..

- Stop!
- Could you close the door? (Also, of course, 'You've left the door open', implying a need for action.)
- Eat that apple- it will do you good.
- Do not write on this page.

Interrogative clause (questions): Writers often use questions as a way of persuading readers to respond to their writing. They can ask rhetorical questions which don't necessarily require an answer, but which engage readers and make them think or consider their position:

Is that a good reason for leaving the E.U.?

A question can also be used to make an 'offer' to someone.

Do you want to learn how to make money quickly?

were you, I would forget all about the subjective mood. The subjunctive is rarely used nowadays in English.

Modal verbs are used by writers to express possibility (can/could/would/should/may/might/ought) or the necessity or desirability of something happening (will/must/shall). This kind of speculation can be about past, present or future events.

- *Winston Churchill should have been more bullish with the Russians.*
- *We must protect our environment now to save our planet.*
- *You shall go to the ball!*

The active voice is when the subject of the clause is obvious and is the noun **doing** or **being** the verb.

She ate the apple.

We know who did the eating.

Using the passive voice in your writing allows you to hide the subject from your reader. It means something is done to an object, but we don't know who did it. This can create a sense of mystery for your reader or can make you sound authoritative. These two reasons are why the passive is so often used in newspaper headlines.

Boris Johnson Attacked At Party

The door was smashed in.

Diners are asked to pay in full.

The car is to be cleaned today.

The removal of the subject from a sentence is useful in a newspaper headline both in terms of economy of writing and also of the motivation given to the reader to read on.

negative feeling, such as surprise, delight, shock, horror, amusement and excitement. Writers can also use an exclamation mark to ask an exclamatory 'question', which does not require a reply: *'Well, isn't that, sad!'*

*NOTE: Exclamation marks are different to exclamation clauses. The function of the exclamation mark is to add some emphasis to a sentence functionally mainly for other purposes. In contrast, an exclamation clause's whole function is to declare or 'burst something out'.*

Questions are often asked by characters in stories if they are seeking the truth, need information, wish to offer a choice to another character or even convey a threat: Who are you looking at?

Question marks signal that a question is being asked, and are placed at the end of a sentence.

Questions sometimes appear in factual writing as a way of involving the reader in the subject. Have you ever wanted to build your own car? Follow this guide and you'll be hitting the road in no time.

Commas are used in lists. The reason for this is to dispense with repetition of 'and', thereby saving both reader and writer time and avoiding tedium.

Commas are sometimes used to separate a subordinate clause from a main clause. (For clauses, see below.) Their function here is to give an extra focus:

'The girl, who was playing in the park, was bitten by a dog,' has a different focus to,



either, neither, each, every, enough, three, fifty etc...).

Numerals can also act as determiners.

Adjectives give more information about a noun. Writers use adjectives: To provide vivid description in story-writing,  
To provide tempting description in advertising,  
To provide technical description in information texts and instruction.

NB: However, linguists would say that adjectives can resemble nouns, verbs or adverbs.

(adjective) This is a **country** road.

(noun) The road is in the **country**.

(adjective) That is an **intriguing** question.

(verb) That question **intrigues** me.

(adjective) I caught an **early** train

(adverb) The train arrived **early**.

Verbs are vital. They explain to a reader what is happening or how someone is being or feeling. Your choice of a verb will have a significant effect on your written text. Often more so than adverbs. There are three main types of verbs: action, linking, and auxiliary.

Action verbs are one of the most common form of verbs that you will think of. They are also known as dynamic verbs and are words that are action-packed to express a physical action performed by the subject, like singing or dancing.

An 'exclamation clause' is functioning as a whole unit of exclamation as opposed to the mark '!' which is being used to add emphasis to an otherwise 'normal' sentence.

An exclamation clause is used by writers to declare something to the reader, to have something 'burst out.' According to the DfE at least, an exclamation clause should begin with either 'how' or 'what'.

What big teeth you have, Grandma!

How beautiful Cinderella looks in her dress!

NB: How beautiful does Cinderella look in her dress? – wouldn't be considered an exclamation clause because it doesn't follow the subject -> verb structure required.

Conjunctions: Writers bring together two clauses in a sentence using conjunctions; they want the reader to know that the clauses are related. This may help the writing to flow more than if the writer wrote two separate simple sentences.

Coordinating conjunctions go between two equally important clauses, and do the following:

Express a reason, (I'm going to the party *so* I can look like I'm being sociable)

Contrast something, (The main course was delicious *but* the pudding was terrible.)

Give a condition (like a promise or a threat), (You'd better leave *or* I'm going to call the police!)

Give an alternative, (Do you want to go now *or* shall we wait a bit longer?)

Give an additional point, (The suspect wore glasses *and* he walked with a limp).

Using subordinating conjunctions allows you to then go on to write a subordinate clause.

NB: A comma is only needed if you start your sentence with a subordinate conjunction and therefore a subordinate clause. Otherwise, no comma is required.

I will stay in school until all these books

We use the progressive tense (being, been, isn't, is) to explain to our reader how long an action lasts or that it may still be going on. The car is being cleaned by my friend,

NB: Progressive tense verbs are commonly associated with a lexical verb ending with -ing.  
It's been raining for days  
It isn't raining anymore.

The three perfect tenses in English are the three verb tenses which show action already completed. (The word perfect literally means "made complete" or "completely done."). They are formed by the appropriate tense of the verb to have plus the past participle of the verb:

Present perfect: I *have seen* it. (Present tense of *to have* plus participle).

Action is completed with respect to the present; we can say that if we want our reader to know that something that began in the past BUT it is still important now, the present perfect may be the correct tense.

I *have taught* for 10 years.

I am still doing it, so it is present BUT began in the past.

Past perfect: I *had seen* it. (Past tense of *to have* plus participle).

Action is completed with respect to the past. Unlike the present perfect, the action is not related to the *now* (present). It is an action that happened over a period of time in the past. I *had been* a teacher for 10 years.

'The girl who was playing in the park was bitten by a dog.'

They can also be used after a reported verb in direct speech:

She said, "Don't forget to include the correct punctuation,"

Inverted commas allow the reader to identify all the people speaking in a text. They enclose the words spoken. Double marks are usually used to contain speech, but some printed texts use the single mark.

Speech can come at the beginning, middle or end of a sentence.

Inverted commas can be used to show a reader you are quoting someone else's exact words. This is usually seen in newspaper reports, adverts and persuasive or discussion essays.

Apostrophes (Possession):

The genitive 's / s' can be used to show possession. This is important because it lets the reader know who owns what.

An apostrophe following an s lets the reader know you are writing about a group.

Owning a feeling 'Alex's love for pizza'

Owning an object or an attribute: the girl's courage; the fans' passion

It can also be used to express a measurement 'A week's pocket money', or 'A pound's worth of sweets.'

*NOTE: yours, his, hers, ours, theirs and its do not follow this rule but still indicate possession.*

Apostrophes (Omission):

We can contract (shorten) some verbs. The apostrophe replaces the omitted letters: (e.g. can't, I'm, she'll, it's).

Linking verbs serve the purpose to link a subject to the information about the subject. Instead of expressing action, linking verbs create a way of connecting the subject of the sentence to a subject complement that describes what it is like or describes its state of being (this could be a noun or an adjective). **The verb 'to be' is the most common linking verb.**

Auxiliary verbs are verbs which form the tense, mood and voice of other verbs. They are also commonly known as "helping verbs" as they are said to "help" the main verb which comes after them, and establish the details of mood, tense and voice in a sentence. In summary, they can change verb meaning of the succeeding verb. It's important to note that auxiliaries never occur alone in a sentence. If we remove the main verb from a sentence, leaving only the auxiliary, the sentence would not make sense.

(more information at: <https://www.twinkl.co.uk/teaching-wiki/verb>)

Writers often use adverbs to intensify a verb, to give it more meaning. This is particularly the case in story writing and advertising.

There are a number of different types of adverb and they all do different things for writing. They tell us: Where (place) I live *in London*. I'm going *up the road*.

When (time) I am *already* there. I arrived home *yesterday*

How (manner) I slammed the door *loudly*.

How often (frequency) I *rarely* read

are marked.  
Although the day began well, it ended in disaster.

Subordinate clauses are a good way to share with your reader some background information. It's a writer's opportunity to add in extra details which a reader may find interesting. The information given in a subordinate clause is not as important as that given in the main clause.  
*After I left the meeting, the chairman resigned.*

Relative clauses are helpful if you wish to write more information about a noun (see 'Pronouns'). They are particularly useful in news reporting, when the writer is writing for effect but as economically as possible.  
The man, who refused to give his name, left the court.

Relative pronouns introduce relative clauses. The most common relative pronouns are who, whom, whose, which, that. The relative pronoun we use depends on what we are referring to.

Fronted adverbials: If we want our reader to give special attention to an adverb, we can place it at the beginning of a sentence. It sets the reader up for the rest of the sentence, and is often used in instructional texts to let the reader know how the action needs to be done.  
Lightly beat the eggs.

Later on, you'll find grammar easier to understand. Using a fronted adverbial is a stylistic choice in writing. Its function is therefore primarily related to meaning, purpose and audience. It can also function to link sentences together to aid cohesion. We demarcate fronted adverbials with a comma.

Noun phrase:  
A noun phrase contains a noun but not a verb. Usually it consists of a determiner and a noun.  
The dog.

An expanded noun phrase needs to have at least one or more descriptives. Simple expanded noun

Paragraphs: Each paragraph should contain a new idea, again making it easier for the reader to follow what is being written about.

We can think of paragraphs being needed when one of the following changes:

Topic  
Setting (place or time)  
Character focus  
Speaker

You can also begin a new paragraph for emphasis or effect - the use of a single line paragraph being an example.

Cohesion: The way in which the different parts of a text are linked, Pronouns often do this job, making the writing easier to follow by referring back to something previously mentioned. A conjunction or adverbial placed at the beginning of a paragraph can make a link with a preceding paragraph. Pronouns can link sentences if the subject remains the same. We can also use repeated phrases or synonyms as well as tense to create cohesion.

Subject/verb agreement: When the subject of a sentence is singular, that means there is only one person or thing doing the action or being something.

You need to choose a singular form of the verb to match the singular subject.

Look at the table below to see how play is used with different subjects. Most verbs follow the same pattern as this verb.

Singular (one person or thing)	Plural (more than one person or thing)
I <b>play</b>	we <b>play</b>
you <b>play</b>	you <b>play</b>
she, he, it <b>plays</b>	they <b>play</b>

It is fairly common for children to make mistakes when using the verb to be in the

Contractions make your writing more informal, and reflect how we usually speak.

A parenthesis is a word/phrase inserted into a sentence to make a comment on or give more information to your reader about something you have just written. It is enclosed in brackets or dashes or commas.

She was (incredible though it seems) not afraid of the tiger.

The room (a tiny space at the best of times) was now full of photographers.

My dad - who has been a printer for years - will retire this year.

**The clause/sentence would make sense if the parenthesis was removed.**

Dashes can be used as an informal version of commas for subordination. They can make your reader feel the writing has a relaxed tone

Everything was very cheap - in fact nothing cost more than twenty francs.

They can help a writer express irony:  
The dog- whose name was Butch - was terrified of cats.

Dashes can also be used in note-taking.

A colon tells your reader that an example or explanation is about to be given: It is dull here, even at night: nothing to do, nowhere to go. (Many children's writers often use a dash instead of a colon). Colons are also used to separate the name of the character from their dialogue in a playscript.

Colons are also used to introduce a list. A semi-colon separates two or more main clauses in a sentence so that the writer can avoid using 'and', or avoid writing two or more shorter sentences:

about grammar  
Degree (the extent to which something is done). I *completely* agree. I *almost* forgot.

NB: Adverbs can affect the meaning not only of verbs but also of adjectives. You would often use this in a persuasive text.  
Deliciously crunchy.  
Wonderfully healthy. An exceptionally good read. It was incredibly sad.

Prepositions: A preposition is a word that tells you where or when something is in relation to something else (**NB: the focus is on the noun, rather than, say the verb which is the case with adverbs but prepositional phrases can act as adverbials**). Prepositions indicate direction, time, location, and spatial relationships, as well as other abstract types of relationships of one thing to another.

Direction: Look *to the left* and you'll see our destination.

Time: We've been working *since this morning*.

Location: We saw a movie *at the theatre*.

Space: The dog hid *under the table*.  
The italic words are the prepositions, but the phrases act as adverbials.

Prefixes and suffixes are used because they are an economical way of changing the meaning of base-words. This allows you to use base-words in a variety of different contexts.

A prefix is a morpheme (the smallest unit of meaning) which is added to the beginning of a base-word and

phrases are typically made up of determiner, 1 or 2 adjectives and a noun but higher quality expanded noun phrases deploy literary devices such as figurative language.  
Writers use expanded noun phrases in description to help the reader see, think or feel.

Prepositional phrases allow writers to describe more about the location, direction, time or means of an event. The first word of a prepositional phrase is a preposition.

Time: I went to the park *after lunch*.

Location: The mouse ran *under the bed*.

Direction: We walked *towards the North star*.

Means: Did you come here *by car*?

Preposition standing alone: The car went by.

Figurative language:

Figurative language is most commonly associated with description. However, writers want to use figurative language to create atmosphere - the art of making your reader think, see or feel specific things.

Alliteration: When most words in a phrase or sentence begin with the same phoneme or cluster of phonemes. Its purpose is to create an effect and probably to amuse: The slithery slimy slug slipped slowly down the slope.

Simile: When one thing is explicitly compared with another. I'm easy like a Sunday morning; Her eyes sparkled like diamonds; My mistress' eyes are nothing like the sun.

As with metaphors, writers use similes to create a vivid image in the reader's mind.

Metaphor: When one thing is portrayed as being something else:

Life's but a walking shadow, a poor player  
That struts and frets his time upon the stage.....  
Writers use metaphor to create a strong image in the reader's mind, and to offer the reader a new way of seeing, thinking or feeling.

Personification: When a human attribute is given to something non-human: Busie old foole, unruly sun...

past tense. (I was he was you were etc) as spoken dialect can influence the written form; 'We was late,' is one such example.

Register: Register often refers to the degree of formality of language, but in a more general sense it means the language used by a group of people who share similar work or interests, such as doctors or lawyers.

Example

For formal and informal register; 'Would you mind passing the salt?' is appropriate for a formal situation with strangers, whereas 'Pass me the salt' would be used for a situation where friends are talking, or possibly when being rude.

Register is a scale and not a switch.

**NB: It is determined by the audience and purpose of our writing.**

There were white gulls circling the cliffs; their calls came faint to our ears.  
It may be helpful to think of a semi-colon as replacing the word and.  
Semi-colons can also be deployed in lists when the listed items are not singular words.

Hyphens are sometimes used to show your reader that you are combining two or more words to mean one word:

I live in a house-share.

I used 4 digit numbers vs I used 4-digit-numbers.

Are you a short story writer? Or a short-story writer?

Without a hyphen for some words, your reader can get confused about what you mean.

Bullet points are very useful in lists or possibly in the stages of an instructional text, although a numbered list is probably more useful for instructions.

Ellipsis is the term for three dots (...), used by writers to show that something is not finished, that something has been omitted, or to generate a feeling of suspense.

<p>changes the meaning (un/like; im/patient; dis/connect).</p> <p><u>A suffix</u> is also a morpheme; when added to the end of a base-word it changes the tense (jump/ed), or the word class (teach/er; help/ful).</p> <p><u>Homophones</u>: Words which have the same sound but a different meaning and spelling (bear/bare, for/four, wood/would). The only function is that these different spellings allow your reader to tell which word-meaning you want to express.</p> <p><u>Comparative and superlative adjectives</u>: A comparative adjective is a word that describes a noun by comparing it to another noun. Comparative adjectives typically end in 'er' and are followed by the word 'than'. For example: He is <u>older</u> than I am. A superlative adjective is a word that describes a noun by comparing it to two or more nouns to the highest or lowest degree using -est. He is the <u>oldest</u> in the class. We use more and most to make comparatives and superlatives for most two syllable adjectives and for all adjectives with three or more syllables: Smart becomes Smarter. Intelligent becomes more intelligent. There are exceptions (clever is still cleverer for example).</p> <p><u>Etymology</u>: the origin of a word and the historical development of its meaning.</p> <p><u>Ambiguity</u>: An ambiguous sentence is a sentence that a reader can interpret</p>	<p>Writers use personification to add interest, create atmosphere and to make something memorable.</p> <p><u>Direct speech</u>: Direct speech, relays the exact words spoken. One way to tell when direct speech is used is to look for inverted commas. It is used for dialogue in narratives or quotes in other forms of writing - such as newspapers.</p> <p><u>Indirect speech (reported speech)</u>: When indirect speech is used, the writer will share the main points of what someone has said without writing exactly what they said in full. No speech punctuation (like inverted commas) is used for indirect speech. Example: Direct: "I was tired after all that walking," explained Captain Tom.</p> <p>Could be written as:</p> <p>Indirect: Captain Tom admitted he was very tired by the end of his challenge.</p>		
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in two or more ways. [Commas](#) and [hyphens](#) are used to help avoid misunderstanding.

For example:

'Call me a taxi please.'

'You're a taxi'

'Call me a taxi, please'

'One is on the way'

Phrasal verbs:

Phrasal verbs are very common in English, especially in more informal contexts. They are made up of a [verb](#) and another word or words (normally a preposition or adverb).

The verb: turn = to move

The phrasal verb: to turn down = to reject.

To turn in = to submit something for marking or to accuse someone of responsibility.

Both of the above phrasal verbs change the meaning of the verb to turn. They are very common (idiomatic in fact) in spoken English and are used in an informal [register](#)

Synonym:

Two words of similar meaning. For example, small and little. Writers may consider synonyms for [cohesion](#) and to avoid repetition in their writing.

Antonym:

Two words with opposite meaning. For example, little and large.