

Grammar Progression

(See individual Year Group Maps to see where Grammar is taught)

Contents:

1. Noun
2. Verbs
3. Vocabulary
4. Adjectives
5. Adverbs
6. Writer's tricks to create effect
7. Types of sentence
8. Inverted commas

Noun progression	Explanation and examples
<u>Concrete nouns</u> 1. Know regular-count concrete nouns in the singular and plural, including non-count nouns 2. Know concrete nouns that have irregular plurals 3. Use the possessive apostrophe in regular singular and plural concrete nouns 4. Use the possessive apostrophe with irregular plural nouns 5. Use possessive apostrophes for nouns ending in "s" (common and proper nouns)	<u>Concrete nouns</u> 1. Singular/plural regular-count nouns: <i>boy/boys, girl/girls, table/ tables</i> Non-count nouns have no plural, for example: <i>weather, furniture, sheep, deer, rice and water</i> 2. Irregular plurals: <i>bacterium/bacteria, child/children, die/dice</i> 3. Possessive apostrophe in regular singular and plural nouns - <i>the ball owned by one boy = the boy's ball</i> (apostrophe precedes the "s") - <i>the ball owned by a class of boys = the boys' ball</i> (apostrophe follows the "s") 4. Possessive apostrophe for irregular plural nouns - <i>The children own the ball = the children's ball</i> (unlike the regular plural, which places the apostrophe after the "s", with an irregular plural you place the apostrophe before the "s") - <i>The oxen's field</i> - <i>The women's changing rooms</i> 5. There is conflicting information about where and when to place an apostrophe after a word ending in "s". More commonly in newspapers and magazines, they place an apostrophe + "s" after a common noun ending in "s", eg, <i>The boss's wife</i>. With a proper noun, they add an apostrophe after the "s", eg, <i>The Jones' house</i>. There is no right or wrong answer, but find a rule and stick to it.
<u>Pronouns</u> 1. <u>Personal pronouns</u> - knowing the difference between the subject (<i>I, she, we, he, it, they, you</i>) or object (<i>me, you, him, her, it, us, them</i>) personal pronouns 2. <u>Possessive adjectives</u>: <i>my, your, his, hers, its, our, their</i> 3. <u>Possessive pronouns</u> for cohesion: <i>yours, mine, theirs, ours, hers, his, its</i> 4. <u>Reflexive pronouns</u> both singular (<i>myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself</i>) and plural (<i>ourselves, yourselves, themselves</i>) 5. Use <u>indefinite pronouns</u> to conceal the subject – <i>somebody, nobody, anybody, everybody</i> –	<u>Pronouns</u> – some of the pronouns are also specific determiners (see below) 1. Examples of the subject and object personal pronouns: <i>I am on holiday with him. They take me to school in their brand new car. He didn't understand us.</i> In a simple sentence, you often find the subject at the beginning of the sentence and the object at the end. The personal-pronoun subject regularly gets confused by many children in a sentence like: <i>Mary and I walk to school</i>. They tend to write: <i>Mary and me walk to school</i>. Ask the children to remove the words "Mary and" – would this sentence still make sense? 2. The possessive adjective is used for: - Showing possession – <i>It is my car</i>. - Family and relations – <i>His aunt..., Her mother...</i> - Body parts – <i>Our arms..., Their feet...</i> 3. The possessive pronoun is used: - In place of a noun phrase, eg, <i>Whose car is it?</i> For cohesion, we write: <i>It is mine</i>. Not: <i>It is my car</i>.

<i>someone, anyone, everyone, no-one – something, nothing, anything, everything</i> 6. <u>Relative pronouns</u> to add detail to a sentence: subject (<i>who, which, that</i>), object (<i>who, whom, which, that</i>) or possessive (<i>whose</i>)	- After the word “of” – <i>It was one of mine.</i> 4. Reflexive pronouns can: - Follow a transitive verb (this is an action verb) <i>I blame myself.</i> <i>We amused ourselves.</i> - They do not follow a transitive verb where the action is done regularly, such as wash. <i>He washed in hot water</i> rather than <i>He washed himself in hot water.</i> - However, they can be used after a transitive verb where the action is done regularly if we wish to give emphasis <i>He washed himself despite his illness.</i> - After the preposition “by” <i>He worked by himself.</i> 5. The indefinite pronoun can be used in story writing to conceal the subject (eg, <i>Something was there, something that sent shivers down my spine.</i>), to generalise in arguments, to persuade the reader that “everyone” believes their theory and that “no-one” in their right mind would disbelieve it. 6. A relative pronoun is used directly after the person or thing to add further information. <u>Who</u> follows a person, <u>which</u> follows a thing and <u>that</u> can follow either a person or a thing: <i>My aunt, who lives next door, went to America.</i> <i>The bike, which was leaning against the wall, was stolen.</i> <i>The bike that was leaning against the wall was stolen.</i> The difference between <u>who</u> and <u>whose</u> is that a verb follows the word <u>who</u> and a noun follows the word <u>whose</u>, as this shows who possesses the thing: <i>Mary, who dances every Thursday, won a dancing competition.</i> <i>Mary, whose dog barks all day, lives next door.</i> <u>Whom</u> can be used in place of <u>who</u>, but nowadays most people use <u>who</u>. It is also used as the object of the sentence. <u>That</u> can appear at the beginning of a clause: <i>We bought an axe that was used to chop all the wood with.</i>
<u>Proper nouns</u> Use a capital letter for proper nouns and recognise that a	<u>Proper nouns</u> Proper nouns are used for:

word is a proper noun because it has a capital letter	- people's names (<i>Mary</i>) - places (<i>Germany</i>) - days (<i>Monday, Easter</i>) - months (<i>January</i>) - titles of books/films/songs (<i>Little Red Riding Hood</i>) - languages (<i>Chinese, Italian</i>) Note: seasons do not need capital letters unless they are a part of a name, eg, Winter Hill.																																																									
Use <u>determiners</u> (general and specific) and quantifiers to state whether a noun is general or specific. These are included in a noun phrase, eg, <i>Some of those children...</i> <i>A few of his toys...</i>	<table><tr><th>General determiners</th><th>Specific determiners</th><th>Quantifiers</th></tr><tr><td><i>a</i></td><td><i>the</i></td><td><i>all</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>an</i></td><td><i>my</i></td><td><i>any</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>any</i></td><td><i>your</i></td><td><i>enough</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>another</i></td><td><i>his</i></td><td><i>less</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>other</i></td><td><i>her</i></td><td><i>a lot of</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>what</i></td><td><i>its</i></td><td><i>lots of</i></td></tr><tr><td></td><td><i>our</i></td><td><i>more</i></td></tr><tr><td></td><td><i>their</i></td><td><i>most</i></td></tr><tr><td></td><td><i>whose</i></td><td><i>none of</i></td></tr><tr><td></td><td><i>this</i></td><td><i>some</i></td></tr><tr><td></td><td><i>that</i></td><td><i>both</i></td></tr><tr><td></td><td><i>these</i></td><td><i>each</i></td></tr><tr><td></td><td><i>those</i></td><td><i>every</i></td></tr><tr><td></td><td><i>which</i></td><td><i>a few</i></td></tr><tr><td></td><td></td><td><i>fewer</i></td></tr><tr><td></td><td></td><td><i>neither</i></td></tr><tr><td></td><td></td><td><i>either</i></td></tr><tr><td></td><td></td><td><i>several</i></td></tr></table>	General determiners	Specific determiners	Quantifiers	<i>a</i>	<i>the</i>	<i>all</i>	<i>an</i>	<i>my</i>	<i>any</i>	<i>any</i>	<i>your</i>	<i>enough</i>	<i>another</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>less</i>	<i>other</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>a lot of</i>	<i>what</i>	<i>its</i>	<i>lots of</i>		<i>our</i>	<i>more</i>		<i>their</i>	<i>most</i>		<i>whose</i>	<i>none of</i>		<i>this</i>	<i>some</i>		<i>that</i>	<i>both</i>		<i>these</i>	<i>each</i>		<i>those</i>	<i>every</i>		<i>which</i>	<i>a few</i>			<i>fewer</i>			<i>neither</i>			<i>either</i>			<i>several</i>
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<u>Compound nouns</u>	A compound noun is made up of two or more words that can either be: 1. spaced – <i>washing machine</i> 2. hyphenated – <i>mid-September</i> 3. closed – <i>bedroom</i>																																																									

	The compound noun can be made up of: 1. noun + noun (<i>football</i>) 2. adjective + noun (<i>full moon</i>) 3. verb + noun (<i>swimming pool</i>) 4. noun + verb (<i>haircut</i>) 5. verb + preposition (<i>check-out</i>) 6. noun + prepositional phrase (<i>mother-in-law</i>) 7. preposition + noun (<i>underworld</i>) 8. noun + adjective (<i>roomful</i>)
<u>Abstract nouns</u> Use and recognise abstract nouns to show an emotion (love), attribute (bravery) or idea (belief)	An abstract noun is a noun that cannot be accessed by the five senses; it is intangible. So it can be a characteristic, feeling, idea or emotion. - Emotions: <i>love, hate, anger, pride, peace, sympathy</i> - Characteristics: <i>bravery, loyalty, courage, pain, misery</i> - Ideas: <i>faith, truth, justice, thought, information, dream</i> - Other: <i>progress, education, friendship, leisure</i> Some suffixes can create an abstract noun when they follow a noun: <i>-hood, -tion, -ism, -ity, -ment, -ness, -age, -ance, -ence, -ship, -ability, -acy</i> For example <i>child</i> is a common (concrete) noun and <i>childhood</i> is an abstract noun. <i>Friend</i> is a common (concrete) noun and <i>friendship</i> is an abstract noun.
<u>Collective noun</u> To know collective nouns for groups of things, eg, <i>herd of...</i> <i>staff</i> <i>assembly</i>	<u>Collective noun</u> Collective nouns name a group of people, animals or things. For people, these tend to be based around professions, families, gender and nationality. <u>Animals:</u> <i>A watch of nightingales</i> <i>A murder of crows</i>

	<i>A stud of mares</i> <u>People:</u> <i>A troupe of acrobats</i> <i>A coven of witches</i> <i>A quiz of teachers</i> Some other collective nouns include: <i>team, assembly, staff, army, family, cabinet, class, committee, company, audience, department, council, society, school, public, minority, majority, jury, faculty, corporation and cabinet</i>
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Verb progression	
Notes:	The “-ing” form of the verb can be referred to in three different ways. All three mean the same. 1. Continuous 2. Progressive 3. Present participle
Use regular simple past-tense verbs	Verbs that add either “-ed” or “-d” to the infinitive form of the verb to create the past tense. <u>Add an “-ed” if the verb does not end with an “e”:</u> - allow – <i>allowed</i> - walk – <i>walked</i> <u>Add just a “d” if the verb ends with an “e”:</u> - announce – <i>announced</i> - calculate – <i>calculated</i> <u>Change the “y” to an “i” and add “-ed”</u> - carry – <i>carried</i> - marry – <i>married</i> <u>Double the last letter and add “-ed”</u> If the verb ends with a vowel + “l”, then you double the last letter and add “-ed” - equal – <i>equalled</i> - travel – <i>travelled</i> If the verb ends with one vowel + a consonant and the stress is at the end of the word, then you double the final letter and add either “-ed” or “-ing” - admit – <i>admitted</i> - refer – <i>referred</i> If there is only one syllable and the word ends in a vowel + consonant, then you double the final letter before adding “-ed” or “-ing” - stop – <i>stopped</i> - tap – <i>tapped</i> <u>Verbs ending in a “c”</u> If a verb ends in a “c”, then you need to add a “k” before adding “-ed” or “-ing” - picnic – <i>picnicked</i> - mimic – <i>mimicked</i> With regular verbs, the simple past and past participle are the same.

Use irregular simple past-tense verbs	There is no set rule for irregular simple past-tense verbs; they just have to be learnt. To cover them, they could be taught in spelling lessons. A big mistake that many people make is to add “-ed” to create the past tense, eg, <i>blowed</i>. <table><tr><th>Simple present</th><th>Past simple irregular verbs</th></tr><tr><td><i>arise</i></td><td><i>arose</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>awake</i></td><td><i>awoke</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>blow</i></td><td><i>blew</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>burst</i></td><td><i>burst</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>choose</i></td><td><i>chose</i></td></tr></table>	Simple present	Past simple irregular verbs	<i>arise</i>	<i>arose</i>	<i>awake</i>	<i>awoke</i>	<i>blow</i>	<i>blew</i>	<i>burst</i>	<i>burst</i>	<i>choose</i>	<i>chose</i>
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Auxiliary verbs of: <i>to be</i> , <i>to have</i> and <i>to do</i> , including subject-verb agreement and use of the negative	These can be standalone verbs or auxiliary verbs. Auxiliary verbs team up with other verbs to create a verb phrase. They can be conjugated, whereas modal auxiliary verbs cannot. <u>Subject-verb agreement</u> <table><tr><th>Infinitive</th><th>Present tense</th><th>Past tense</th></tr><tr><td><i>to have</i></td><td><i>have, has</i></td><td><i>had</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>to be</i></td><td><i>am, is, are</i></td><td><i>was, were</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>to do</i></td><td><i>do, does</i></td><td><i>did</i></td></tr></table> <i>I <u>have</u> a pen. (NOT: I <u>has</u> a pen.)</i> <i>She <u>is</u> a musician. (NOT: She <u>are</u> a musician.)</i> It is the auxiliary verb that works with the negative “not”, eg, <i>I <u>have not</u> been away</i>. We cannot say: <i>I walk not to school</i>. We say: <i>I <u>do not</u> walk to school</i>.	Infinitive	Present tense	Past tense	<i>to have</i>	<i>have, has</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>to be</i>	<i>am, is, are</i>	<i>was, were</i>	<i>to do</i>	<i>do, does</i>	<i>did</i>
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Use simple present tense: subject-verb agreement	The simple present tense is the infinitive unless talking about the third person, where you add a “s”: <i>I walk to school</i>. <i>She/he walks to school</i>.												

Use present continuous/progressive tense: subject-verb agreement

The present continuous tense is formed from the present tense of the verb “**be**” + **continuous/present participle or progressive (“-ing”) form of the verb.**

I am walking to school.
She is walking to school.

The subject-verb agreement relies on the “**be**” form of the verb.

The present continuous/progressive is used when:

1. Something is happening at that moment – *I am just leaving town.*
2. Something is temporary – *Tom is studying chemistry at university.*
3. Something is changing – *The children are growing up fast.*
4. Something that is happening repeatedly – *It is always raining in Glasgow.*

Use past perfect tense

To create the past perfect, use: “**had**” + **past participle.**

Simple present	Past participle regular verbs (+ “-ed”)
<i>jump</i>	<i>jumped</i>
<i>walk</i>	<i>walked</i>
<i>laugh</i>	<i>laughed</i>

He had jumped the fence to catch the burglar.
She had laughed loudly at the joke.
Tom had walked home last night.

Simple present	Past participle irregular verbs
<i>arise</i>	<i>arisen</i>
<i>awake</i>	<i>awoken</i>
<i>blow</i>	<i>blown</i>
<i>burst</i>	<i>burst</i>
<i>choose</i>	<i>chosen</i>

He had woken early.
The leaves had blown on to the pond.
They had chosen the best candidate.

It can also be used to show an event that has happened before another event:

	1. Year 6 went out to play after they <u>had completed</u> the test. The first event was the test and then they went out to play. 2. After they <u>had finished</u> the washing up, they started on the cleaning. The first event was the washing up and then they cleaned.																				
Present perfect The present perfect: - To show that something has continued up to the present: <i>Tom has lived in Maidenhead all his life.</i> - Or is important in the present: <i>I can't get into my house as I have lost my keys.</i>	To create the present perfect use "has/have" + past participle. You can also use one or more of a combination of auxiliary verbs with the "to have" verb. For example: "to be" and/or a modal auxiliary verb (<i>can, could, may, might, must, ought to, shall, should, will, would</i>) as long as you have the "have" or "has" form of the verb. The "to do" auxiliary verb is not used with the past participle. <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Simple present</th><th>Past participle irregular verbs</th></tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td><i>walk</i></td><td><i>walked</i></td></tr> <tr> <td><i>help</i></td><td><i>helped</i></td></tr> <tr> <td><i>open</i></td><td><i>opened</i></td></tr> </tbody> </table> <i>He <u>has walked</u> through the Himalayas.</i> <i>They <u>have been helped</u> by the expert.</i> <i>The school <u>could have been opened</u> in September.</i> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Simple present</th><th>Past participle irregular verbs</th></tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td><i>arise</i></td><td><i>arisen</i></td></tr> <tr> <td><i>awake</i></td><td><i>awoken</i></td></tr> <tr> <td><i>blow</i></td><td><i>blown</i></td></tr> <tr> <td><i>burst</i></td><td><i>burst</i></td></tr> <tr> <td><i>choose</i></td><td><i>chosen</i></td></tr> </tbody> </table> <i>He <u>has written</u> a song.</i> <i>She <u>has been chosen</u> to play in the orchestra.</i> <i>Tom <u>would have been caught</u> if he had not kept quiet.</i> The verb tends to end in a "n" with irregular verbs but this is not always the case.	Simple present	Past participle irregular verbs	<i>walk</i>	<i>walked</i>	<i>help</i>	<i>helped</i>	<i>open</i>	<i>opened</i>	Simple present	Past participle irregular verbs	<i>arise</i>	<i>arisen</i>	<i>awake</i>	<i>awoken</i>	<i>blow</i>	<i>blown</i>	<i>burst</i>	<i>burst</i>	<i>choose</i>	<i>chosen</i>
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Present perfect continuous	To use the present perfect continuous “has/have” + “been” + continuous. The present perfect continuous is used to show that something has been continuing up to the present: <i>It has been raining for hours.</i>
Past perfect continuous	The past perfect continuous is “had” + “been” + continuous (“-ing”) Again this is used to show an event that has happened before another event: 1. <i>Tom had been traipsing down the High Street when the army arrived.</i> First event is Tom traipsing down the street, then the army arrive. 2. <i>We had been waiting for a long time by the time Tom arrived.</i> First event is the waiting and then Tom arrives.
To use the future tense	To show the future tense: 1. Use the verb “will” + infinitive – <i>We <u>will</u> visit you.</i> 2. Present tense + <u>time marker</u> – <i>We can meet <u>tomorrow</u>.</i> 3. Modal verbs + infinitive – <i>We <u>could</u> meet if you want.</i> 4. Future continuous – <i>They will be <u>coming</u> next month.</i> 5. “Be” + “going to” – <i>I <u>am going to</u> go away for a week.</i> 6. There can be several of the above to show future tense – <i>Tomorrow we will be going on holiday.</i> (This includes a time marker + “will” + be going to).
Change commonly used verbs to more powerful verbs	Changing words to create an effect is a good exercise to use when improving written work. For example, if the word “walk” is used, it does not give an impression of how or what mood the person was in. If the word “ambled” or “sauntered” was used instead, we could surmise that the person had no purpose or that they were bored. It gives us more information.
Modal auxiliary verbs	Examples: <i>can, could, may, might, must, ought to, shall, should, will, would</i> Modal verbs cannot change form, for example you cannot add “-ed”, “-ing” or “s” to the end. However, you can add the word “not” to indicate the negative. If there are two auxiliary verbs in the verb phrase, you add the word “not” to the modal auxiliary, eg, <i>She should not be driving.</i> (NOT: <i>She should be not driving.</i>) They can be used:

	<table><tr><td>modal + infinitive verb (negative)</td><td><i>He could climb Mount Everest. He could not climb Mount Everest.</i></td></tr><tr><td>modal + “be” + present participle (negative)</td><td><i>She should be travelling today. She should not be travelling today.</i></td></tr><tr><td>modal + “have” + past participle (negative)</td><td><i>Jo could have helped the charity. Jo could not have helped the charity.</i></td></tr></table> The modal auxiliary verbs are used when describing: 1. possibility – <i>could, can, may, might, would, will</i> 2. obligation/necessity – <i>should, shall, must, ought to</i> and <i>had to</i> (this last one is not a modal auxiliary, but it does indicate obligation) 3. questioning (offers, invitation, permission and requests) 4. certainty – <i>will</i> 5. ability – <i>can, could</i>	modal + infinitive verb (negative)	<i>He could climb Mount Everest. He could not climb Mount Everest.</i>	modal + “be” + present participle (negative)	<i>She should be travelling today. She should not be travelling today.</i>	modal + “have” + past participle (negative)	<i>Jo could have helped the charity. Jo could not have helped the charity.</i>				
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modal + “be” + present participle (negative)	<i>She should be travelling today. She should not be travelling today.</i>										
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How to change and when to use the active and passive sentence	The active voice is more commonly used and can sound less clumsy than the passive voice. When using the passive voice you use the auxiliary verb “to be” and then add the past participle: <i>The ball <u>was</u> <u>kicked</u> into the goal by the referee.</i> Rather than: <i>The referee kicked the ball into the goal.</i> <table><tr><th>Active</th><th>Passive</th></tr><tr><td><i>The children climbed the tree.</i></td><td><i>The tree <u>was</u> <u>climbed</u> by the children.</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>The golf ball smashed the television.</i></td><td><i>The television <u>was</u> <u>smashed</u> by the golf ball.</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>The street gang attacked the boys.</i></td><td><i>The boys <u>were</u> <u>attacked</u> by the street gang.</i></td></tr><tr><td><i>Maria is painting the wall.</i></td><td><i>The wall is <u>being</u> <u>painting</u> by Maria.</i></td></tr></table> The object of the sentence is placed at the front of the sentence and the subject at the end. (Note that it is not always necessary to add the subject in the passive, as you might want to conceal who or what carried out the action). For example: - Active – <i>The monster</i> (subject) <i>opened the creaky door</i> (object) <i>slowly</i>.	Active	Passive	<i>The children climbed the tree.</i>	<i>The tree <u>was</u> <u>climbed</u> by the children.</i>	<i>The golf ball smashed the television.</i>	<i>The television <u>was</u> <u>smashed</u> by the golf ball.</i>	<i>The street gang attacked the boys.</i>	<i>The boys <u>were</u> <u>attacked</u> by the street gang.</i>	<i>Maria is painting the wall.</i>	<i>The wall is <u>being</u> <u>painting</u> by Maria.</i>
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	- Passive – <i>The creaky door</i> (object) <i>was opened slowly by the monster</i> (subject). - Passive sentence with the subject being concealed (we don't know who opened the door) – <i>The creaky door</i> (object) <i>was opened slowly</i>. <u>When can I use the passive?</u> 1. In non-chronological reports 2. Writing up scientific experiments 3. To keep the subject hidden in story writing
Subjunctive mood verb	After certain verbs that express a wish, a command, a suggestion, a desire or a condition that is contrary to fact, use the root or infinitive form of the verb (the word that follows “to”) to create the subjunctive. The subjunctive is used after the following verbs: - to advise (that) - to ask (that) - to command (that) - to demand (that) - to desire (that) - to insist (that) - to propose (that) - to recommend (that) - to request (that) - to suggest (that) - to urge (that) Examples: - <i>The coach asked that Tom train every day.</i> (A request “asked” followed by the root verb “train”) - <i>It is recommended that Ali attend all of the course.</i> (A recommendation followed by the root verb “attend”) <u>Negative, continuous and passive</u> <u>Negative</u> <i>The company insisted that employees not use Facebook when at work.</i>

(A command “insisted” followed by the root verb “use” plus the negative “not”)

*I **suggest** that you **not climb** Mount Everest.*

(A suggestion followed by the negative, then the root verb “climb”)

Continuous

*It is **important** that you **be standing** on the corner when they arrive.*

(A suggestion + “to be” + continuous/progressive form)

*I **propose** that we **be waiting** quietly to surprise him.*

(A proposition + “to be” + continuous/progressive form)

Passive

*Tom **suggested** that Ali **be hired** immediately.*

(A suggestion + “to be” + past simple)

*Sarah **insisted** that we **be admitted** to the air raid bunker.*

(A suggestion + “to be” + past simple)

Should as a subjunctive

The word “should” can also be used. It tends to be used after the words: *insist*, *suggest* and *recommend*.

*Ali **recommended** that his neighbour **should mow** his lawn regularly.*

(A recommendation + “should” + infinitive form)

If...were

The subjunctive mood of the verb “to be” in the present tense is “be”. In the past tense it is “were”.

We do not say:

I wish he was here.

We do say:

I wish he were here.

When using the conditional “if” the past tense of “to be” is “were”.

We do not say:

If I was you...

	We say: <i>If I were you...</i>							
Vocabulary								
Prefixes – their meanings and antonyms	dis = negation – <i>disadvantage (advantage)</i> , removal – <i>dismount (mount)</i> or <i>expulsion – disbar (bar)</i> in/im/il = not – <i>infertile (fertile)</i> , <i>impossible (possible)</i> , <i>illegal (legal)</i> un = not – <i>unhappy (happy)</i> , or reversal or cancellation of action or state – <i>unplug (plug)</i> infra = below – <i>infrared (red)</i>							
Suffixes – how they change the word class or verb tense	Suffixes can be used to form a verb, noun, adjective or adverb: 1. <i>dark</i> (adj) + “-ness” = <i>darkness</i> (noun) 2. <i>strength</i> (noun) + “-en” = <i>strengthen</i> (verb) 3. <i>probable</i> (adj) + “-(l)y” = <i>probably</i> (adverb) 4. <i>glory</i> (noun) + “-ous” = <i>glorious</i> (adjective) 5. <i>jump</i> (present tense) + “ed” = <i>jumped</i> (past tense)							
Adding suffixes and prefixes to head words to find word groups supporting meaning and spelling	- Adequate (adj) = <i>adequacy</i> (noun), <i>adequately</i> (adv), <i>inadequacies</i> (noun), <i>inadequacy</i> (noun), <i>inadequate</i> (adj), <i>inadequately</i> (adv) - Rely (verb) = <i>reliability</i> (noun), <i>reliable</i> (adj), <i>reliably</i> (adv), <i>reliance</i> (noun), <i>reliant</i> (adj), <i>relied</i> (verb), <i>relies</i> (verb), <i>relying</i> (verb), <i>unreliable</i> (adj)							
Develop synonyms of words	Walk = <i>stroll, saunter, amble, trudge, plod, hike, tramp, trek, march, stroll, stride, hop, scramble, ramble, wander, tread, prowl, traipse, roam</i> , etc.							
Homonyms – know the different meanings and spellings for homophones/homographs	Homonyms are two or more words that have the same meaning or spelling. Homophones and homographs are included under the heading of homonyms. <u>Homophones</u> are words that sound the same, but are spelt differently and have a different meaning: <i>bear / bare; pair / pear; hair / hare</i> Homographs are words that are spelt the same but have a different meaning. When the meaning changes the word class can also change. <table><tr><td><i>arms</i> (noun) = weapons</td><td><i>arms</i> (noun) = body part</td></tr><tr><td><i>can</i> (verb) = able</td><td><i>can</i> (noun) = tin</td></tr><tr><td><i>left</i> (noun) = direction</td><td><i>left</i> (verb) = action to leave</td></tr></table>		<i>arms</i> (noun) = weapons	<i>arms</i> (noun) = body part	<i>can</i> (verb) = able	<i>can</i> (noun) = tin	<i>left</i> (noun) = direction	<i>left</i> (verb) = action to leave
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	<table> <tr> <td><i>firm</i> (noun) = company</td><td><i>firm</i> (adjective) = hard</td></tr> </table>	<i>firm</i> (noun) = company	<i>firm</i> (adjective) = hard										
<i>firm</i> (noun) = company	<i>firm</i> (adjective) = hard												
Developing technical vocabulary in different genres and subjects	The definition of technical vocabulary will be dependent on the genre or subject. Proper nouns, common nouns and verbs are most likely to be included as technical vocabulary.												
Identify and use informal and formal language	Formal language is used in essays, tests, letters of application, cover letters or communicating with people we don't know. Informal language is used with friends or family <table> <tr> <th>Formal</th><th>Informal</th></tr> <tr> <td><i>apologise</i></td><td><i>sorry</i></td></tr> <tr> <td><i>establish</i></td><td><i>set up</i></td></tr> <tr> <td><i>examine</i></td><td><i>look at</i></td></tr> <tr> <td><i>omit</i></td><td><i>leave out</i></td></tr> <tr> <td><i>contact</i></td><td><i>get in touch</i></td></tr> </table>	Formal	Informal	<i>apologise</i>	<i>sorry</i>	<i>establish</i>	<i>set up</i>	<i>examine</i>	<i>look at</i>	<i>omit</i>	<i>leave out</i>	<i>contact</i>	<i>get in touch</i>
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Choose and decide appropriate vocabulary for its purpose	Give children a sentence with a word missing; they can either choose one word from a selection or use of their own to place in the sentence so that it makes sense. <i>With his hands thrust deep into his pockets, Tom hung his head in shame and felt _____ with the world.</i> Choose one of the following to complete the sentence: A) excited B) cross C) happy D) frightened												
Adjective													
Non-gradable	<i>Wooden, red, metallic, broken, etc.</i>												
Gradable	<i>Cold to hot</i> (and all the words that can go between) <i>Depressed to ecstatic</i> (and all the words that can go between)												
Adjectives ending in "-ed"	<i>Tired, exhausted, confused</i>												

Adjectives ending in “-ing”	<i>Terrifying, freezing, amazing</i>		
Regular comparative and superlative adjectives	Adjective	Comparative (compares two objects)	Superlative (compares three or more)
	<i>great</i>	<i>greater</i>	<i>greatest</i>
	<i>quick</i>	<i>quicker</i>	<i>quickest</i>
	<i>tall</i>	<i>taller</i>	<i>tallest</i>
Irregular comparative and superlative adjectives	Adjective	Comparative (compares two objects)	Superlative (compares three or more)
	<i>late</i> (time)	<i>later</i>	<i>latest</i>
	<i>late</i> (place)	<i>latter</i>	<i>last</i>
	<i>bad</i>	<i>worse</i>	<i>worst</i>
	<i>many/much/some</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>most</i>
	<i>good</i>	<i>better</i>	<i>best</i>
	<i>big</i>	<i>bigger</i>	<i>biggest</i>
	<i>dry</i>	<i>drier</i>	<i>driest</i>
	<i>beautiful</i>	<i>more beautiful</i>	<i>most beautiful</i>

Adverb	
Manner (how), frequency (how often), place (where), time (when) and how much	Manner (ends in “-ly”) – <i>quickly, lazily, effortlessly</i> Frequency – <i>daily, weekly, hourly, regularly</i> Place – <i>everywhere, here, abroad, out, upstairs</i> Time – <i>after, before</i> How much – <i>very, extremely, rather, quite</i>
Adverbs that modify: - A verb - An adjective - Another adverb	Modifying a verb: <i>Tom soon slept soundly.</i> Modifying an adjective: <i>The film was really frightening.</i> Modifying another adverb: <i>The class don’t get extra play very often.</i>
The difference between prepositions and adverbs	Adverbs of time and place can be the same as prepositions. So how do you know whether they are acting as a preposition or an adverb? If the word following the word denoting time or place is preceded by a noun phrase then it is acting as a preposition. <i>The ball is in the garden.</i> The preposition is “in” and it is followed by a noun phrase “the garden”. <i>We are going outside.</i> The word “outside” is acting as an adverb, as it is not followed by a noun phrase.
Adverbial phrases , which consist of: manner, prepositional phrases, subordinate clauses and noun phrase	There are four different types of adverbial phrase: 1. Manner – <i>quickly</i> 2. Prepositional phrase – <i>In the last hour...</i> 3. Noun phrase – <i>Last night at the Royal Albert Hall...</i> 4. Subordinate conjunction and clause – <i>Until the concert finished...</i> <u>Fronted adverbials</u> – All of the above can be used at the beginning of a sentence; this is known as a fronted adverbial. The fronted adverbial is separated from the rest of the sentence with a comma. <i>Until the music finished, she continued to dance.</i> <i>In the last hour, he completed his homework.</i> <i>Quickly, the children ran from the room.</i> <i>Last night at the Royal Albert Hall, the concert was performed to a packed house.</i>
Writer’s tricks to create effect	
Similes	Can either be:

	1. <i>As... as a...</i> 2. <i>Like a...</i>
Alliteration	Each word starts with the same letter. <i>Cranky crocodiles create ...</i> <i>Daring doves dive...</i>
Onomatopoeia	Onomatopoeia imitates the natural sounds of things. It creates a sound that mimics the thing being described. 1. Animal sounds, such as: <i>meow, moo</i> 2. A group of words can reflect a single word, such as “water”: <i>splish, splash, plop, sprinkle, gush, drizzle, drip</i> 3. Different word classes can be onomatopoeia: <i>The <u>buzzing</u> bee flew away. (adj)</i> <i>The stone fell into the water with a <u>splash</u>. (noun)</i>
Personification	Personification is when you give human characteristics to an object or animal. 1. <i>Lightning danced across the sky.</i> 2. <i>The car’s headlights winked mischievously in the driving rain.</i> 3. <i>The roses begged for water.</i>
Metaphors	A metaphor uses a word or phrase to compare two people, things, animals or places. 1. <i>The snow is a soft white blanket covering the land.</i> 2. <i>He is a night owl.</i> 3. <i>Her blue eyes were a tranquil pool of water.</i> 4. <i>Laughter is music for the soul.</i>

Different types of sentences	
Coordinating conjunctions.	Coordinating conjunctions are:

	<i>For, and, nor, but, or, yet, so</i> Using any of these creates a compound sentence
Subordinate conjunctions	Some examples of subordinate conjunctions: <i>because</i> <i>until</i> <i>even though</i> <i>despite</i> <i>if</i> <i>as if</i> <i>although</i> Using a subordinate conjunction creates a complex sentence. There must be two clauses in the sentence – one subordinate and one main clause. <i>He worked until Christmas.</i> This is not a complex sentence, as there is only one verb. There is no verb after the word “until”. <i>He worked until the job was completed.</i> This is a complex sentence because there is a verb after the word “until”.
Identify the difference between a phrase and a clause.	A clause contains a verb and a phrase does not. To create a complex or compound sentence, each part of the sentence must be a clause.
Identify commands/questions/statements/exclamations and know how to change one to another	<u>Commands</u> start with the infinitive form of the verb: <i>Give me that pen.</i> To change to a question: <i>Can I have that pen?</i> <u>Questions</u> can start with an auxiliary verb or who, what, where, when, why, how, if etc. <i>Can you bake a cake for his birthday?</i> <u>Statements</u>: <i>She is very clever.</i> Can change to a question: <i>Is she clever?</i> <u>Exclamations</u> finish with an exclamation mark: <i>Oh no!</i>
Correlative conjunctions	<i>Both...and...</i> <i>Neither...nor...</i> <i>Either... or...</i>

Not only...but also...

Correlative conjunctions connect two equal grammatical items. If a noun follows the first part, then a noun will also follow the second. However, if a verb follows the first part, then a verb will follow the second.

1. *In the autumn term, Tom will **either** start French classes **or** travel to Australia.*
Both “start” and “travel” are verbs.
2. ***Neither** the antique table **nor** the ceramic pot were in good condition.*
Both “table” and “pot” are nouns.
3. *The teacher requires **not only** legible handwriting **but also** accuracy.*
“Handwriting” and “accuracy” are nouns.

This is also true for main clauses and prepositional phrases.

1. ***Not only** did Tom cook breakfast, **but** he **also** packed the picnic basket for lunch.*
Two main clauses.
2. *Tom painted the house **not only for** Mary **but also for** his neighbour.*
Two prepositional phrases – “for” is the preposition.

When using correlative conjunctions, be careful with the subject-verb agreement. If you connect two subjects (proper nouns), the verb must agree with the second subject.

For example:

1. *Every night, **either** the tawny owl **or** the howling foxes wake Tom.*
2. *Every night, **either** the howling foxes **or** the tawny owl wakes Tom.*

Punctuation	
Using inverted commas accurately	Put inverted commas around the words spoken: <i>"I need to write this down."</i> Start the speech with a capital letter: <i>"The cat has run away."</i> Add punctuation (. ! ?) before the final inverted comma: <i>"The dragon is hiding in the cave."</i> <i>"Where is he?"</i> <i>"Oh no!"</i> Add who said the words: <i>"The dragon is hiding in the cave," whispered Tom.</i> Start a new line for each new speaker: <i>"The dragon is hiding in the cave," whispered Tom.</i> <i>"I know," hissed Ali.</i> If writing what is said after who says it, make sure that you add a comma before you open the inverted commas: <i>Tom whispered, "The dragon is hiding in the cave."</i> Know how to use inverted commas that divide a sentence by who said it: <i>"If you think you can behave like that in public," she said, "you had better think again!"</i> Know how to use inverted commas that show who is speaking and divide two separate sentences: <i>"Don't play with your food," she remarked. "Throw it away if you don't want it."</i> Suggest a maximum of three sentences when using inverted commas; otherwise this slows the story down. As the children become more comfortable with the grammar, encourage them to mix the style of inverted commas. For example, mix where they place who said the words: <i>Tom whispered, "The dragon is hiding in the cave."</i> <i>"I know," hissed Ali.</i> <i>"You always seem to know everything," Tom said, raising his eyes heavenward. "Do you know how irritating that is?"</i>