

Teaching Grammar

Stage 1

NSW Syllabus, Stage 1, Objective B - July 2018

Sequenced activities covering the listed Teaching Points.



Teachers' Christian Fellowship of NSW

www.tcfofnsw.org.au

Teaching Grammar

- 1) Outline Grammar Objectives and Content for Stage 1, based on NSW Syllabus, July 2018.
- 2) Lesson sequences for explicitly teaching each objective for this stage. Integrated teaching ideas.
- 3) Resources – Definitions & examples of grammar components.

Stage 1

Objective B

Outcome – *A student uses basic grammatical features, punctuation conventions and vocabulary appropriate to the type of text when responding to and composing texts.*

Contextual Knowledge –

- * Understand that ideas in texts can be organised to enhance meaning using sentences and paragraphs.
- * Begin to understand that choice of vocabulary adds to the effectiveness of texts.

Teaching points:

- 1) What is a paragraph? How and why is it used in sentences?
- 2) What are compound sentences and how they are used to connect ideas using two or more clauses linked by a co-ordinating conjunction?
- 3) Explore differences in words that represent people, places and things – nouns and pronouns.
- 4) Explore differences in words that represent happenings and states – verbs.
- 5) Explore differences in words that represent qualities – adjectives.
- 6) Explore differences in words that represent details such as when, where and how – adverbs.
- 7) Definition and use of prepositions placed in front of noun groups to show where or when.eg ‘on the box’ or ‘before my birthday’.
- 8) Recognise that time connectives sequence information in texts.
- 9) Recognise that different types of punctuation including full stops, question marks and exclamation marks signal sentences that make statements, ask questions, express emotions and give commands.
- 10) Recognise that capital letters signal proper nouns and commas are used to separate items in lists.
- 11) Experiment with quoted (direct) and reported (indirect) speech.
- 12) Begin to organise ideas into paragraphs when composing texts.
- 13) Compose sentences effectively using basic grammatical features and punctuation conventions.

14) Use subject-verb and noun-pronoun agreement when composing texts and responding to texts orally and in writing.

15) Understand how texts are made cohesive through resources, for example word associations, synonyms, and antonyms.

16) Recognise, discuss and use creative word play, Eg. alliteration and onomatopoeia.

17) Demonstrate the use of more precise vocabulary to describe emotions and experiences when writing. (These items are not covered in this outline.)

Stage 1

LESSON SEQUENCES.

1) What is a paragraph? How and why is it used in sentences?

A paragraph is a group of sentences that deal with one set of ideas often beginning with a topic sentence.

* Present examples of paragraphs in texts for students to discuss. Compare it with other written passage to identify how it is different and more meaningful.

* As a class workout a definition of a paragraphs and record it on a class banner.

* Have children identify other paragraphs in class reading sessions.

* Identify and correct poor paragraphs written for the class to discuss.

* Discuss with individuals non-paragraph writing in their own work and how they might be corrected.

* Find and display effect paragraphs from children's writing, identifying why they are worthy of notice.

2) What are compound sentences and how they are used to connect ideas using two or more clauses linked by a co-ordinating conjunction?

* Examine and explain the parts of a *simple sentence*. Identify the subject and predicate (the what about it - the subject) found in simple sentences. Record and label the parts of a *simple sentence* on a class chart.

* Show how two *simple sentences* can be joined together with a co-ordinating conjunction to make a *compound sentence*. Discuss why we would do this rather than just have a string of simple sentences. Record and label the parts of a *compound sentence* on a class chart.

- * Have the children identify the *simple sentences* and the co-ordinating conjunctions in *compound sentences*.
- * Have the children select appropriate co-ordinating conjunctions to join pairs of *simple sentences* together.
- * Look at *compound sentences* made up of multiple *simple sentences* and identify why these very long sentences might need to be broken up. Have the children determine where the breaks should be inserted. Stress the need for any writing to be clear in its meaning.
- * Have the children insert the breaks in *compound sentence* chains.

3) Explore differences in words that represent people, places and things – nouns and pronouns.

- * Things are represented by the words we name them with but they can have more than one name and may be known by what they sound like, look like or do. These words are called *Common nouns*.
E.g. *water, gurgle-gurgle, splish-splash, H₂O, glitter, sparkles, sparklers, tramp, teacher, principal.*
- * Record a class definition of a *Common noun* with examples to refer to.
- * People all have names we know them by. These names are written starting with a Capital letter. These words are called *Proper Nouns*. Record a class definition of a *Proper noun* with examples to refer to.
E.g. *Sue Rebecca Jones, Mrs Smith, Prime Minister Malcolm Turnbull.*
- * Place names such as those for towns, states, countries are *proper nouns* and are written starting with a capital letter. Discuss and identify these types of *proper nouns*. Record how to write them. Use them in class writing.
E.g. *Blacktown, Sydney, New South Wales, Australia.*
- * Other *proper nouns* included such things as the names of times of the year, shops and organisations. Discuss and identify these types of *proper nouns*. Record how to write them. Use them in class modelled writing.
E.g. *Christmas, Easter, Summer, Winter, McDonalds, Apple Computers, Oak Flats Cricket Club.*
- * We have use nouns to name groups of people, animals and things – *Collective Nouns*. Identify these types of group nouns. Have the class think of proper nouns to add to listing groups. Discuss why we talk about a *pile* of sand or a *cup* of flour rather than a specific number of pieces of sand or flour.
Eg. *class, school, family, gang, team, squad, band, audience, choir, staff, committee, trio, pack, herd, swarm, shoal, pod, litter, flock, bunch, bundle, pair,*

set, stack, pile, batch, collection, fleet, heap, set, stash, cup, jug, teaspoon, litre.

Have the children draw and label some of the animals for the group names of animals and those for size such as *pair, trio* and *quartet*.

* Introduce the concept that we use nouns as the names for things that just exist in our minds, things we can't necessarily see or touch like emotions and feelings. Label these as *Abstract Nouns*. As a class have the children suggest these words to form a class chart by asking how they feel or respond to particular situations.

E.g. *hope, love, sadness, joy, happy, beauty, surprise, shock, anger, greed, hurt.*

Have individuals and the whole class try and show on their faces some of these feelings. Have the children draw and label situations that might cause these feelings or ideas.

* Introduce the idea that nouns can indicate whether there is just one object or more than one by adding "s", "es", "ies", "ves", a different word (or the same word).

E.g. *boys, cats, potatoes, babies, knives, loaves, men, mice, crises, sheep.*

Build class lists of the most common plurals and see if a rule can be worked out to determine when a particular plural should be used. Record the rules.

E.g. *When a noun ending in "y" has a consonant before the "y", you drop the "y" and add "ies".*

* Introduce the idea that *pronouns* are words used in place of nouns. Identify some common pronouns such as *he, she, I, them, it, ours, theirs, my, that, who, this, us, we* and think about why we might use one of them instead of a noun, in our writing and speech.

E.g. *John and Michael went swimming. / They went swimming.*

Alice washed Alice's hands before Alice had lunch. / Alice washed her hands before she ate lunch.

* Have the children as a class group and individually, replace underlined *nouns* in sentences with *pronouns* from a given list. Look at the difficulty in understanding the meaning of sentence or passage if too many of the *nouns* are replaced by *pronouns*.

E.g. *Dogs like to chase cats but cats chase mice. / They like to chase them but they chase those.*

* Explain that *personal pronouns* are used in place of the names of people and things.

E.g. *she, he, I, we, they, me, him, her, it, us, them, us.*

* *Personal pronouns* may refer to one thing or more than one thing - they may be *singular or plural*.

E.g. Singular - *I, you, she, he, it.*

Plural - *we, you, they.*

(*You* can be singular or plural.)

4) Explore differences in words that represent happenings and states – verbs.

* As a class identify and label verbs in sentences. Look at some sentences missing a *Finite verb* to see that they are incomplete sentences. Discuss the “job” of a verb and record a class definition to be displayed in the room.

Note: Verbs can stand on their own without a helping verb - *Finite Verbs*. Every complete sentence needs a *Finite verb*.

E.g. *The dog **ate** my lunch.*

The verb is *ate*. If you ask the question, *Who or what ate?* and get an answer, here being *the dog*, then the verb is finite having a subject. It is also able to make sense on its own.

* Find and label verbs as a class group and individually in simple written sentences.

* Identify some of the different types of verbs such as *Finite, Non-Finite, Compound, Regular and Irregular Verbs*

* Explore the requirement for *Finite Verbs* to agree with their subject’s person and number for a sentence to make sense and be understood.

E.g. *He* **eats** *ice cream.* (Singular subject, singular verb)

They **eat** *ice cream.* (Plural subject, plural verb)

* Explore how verbs can refer to the time when something is done - in the past, in present or in future. Label this time difference as the *Tense* of the verb.

Present Tense

Future Tense

Past Tense

*I am **walking**.*

*I will **walk**.*

*I have **walked**.*

*I am **staying**.*

*I might **stay**.*

*I have **stayed**.*

a. In two teams have children have take turns to sit on one of three labeled chairs indicating the past, present and future tense after making up a sentence using a given verb. A correct choice of tense earns that team a point. Keep playing until one team or the other reaches a nominated point lead.

As a variation, use a spinner to dominate the tense the verb must express or have the opposite team nominate the tense to be used.

b. Toss a bean bag to different students who must change the tense of the verb and put it in a sentence. Whenever a student makes a mistake, he or she has to leave the circle. The last student left standing gets a reward sticker or other prize.

Variation 1: two teams stand across from each other and throw the bean bag/s. Teacher calls out the sentence and the tense to change to. Team with the most correct and interesting answer wins.

Variation 2: the teacher has a number of singular and plural nouns on the board. Two teams take it in turn to throw the bean bag to the opposition who must use whatever the thrower indicates – either singular or plural noun in a sentence with the matching verb type.

c. Students work with the teacher and the following information to create their own rap or mnemonic for the following:

Most nouns add “s” to show they are plural.

Verbs lose “s” to agree with plurals.

Sources for regular and irregular verbs:

www.englishclub.com/vocabulary/regular-verbs-list.htm or

www.englishclub.com/vocabulary/irregular-verbs-list.htm

E.g. Common *irregular verbs* - *be, can, do, get, go, have, say, see, take, will.*

From - <https://education.nsw.gov.au/teaching-and-learning/student-assessment/smart-teaching-strategies/literacy/language-conventions/stage-1/verbs>

5) Explore differences in words that represent qualities – adjectives.

* In a class lesson identify *adjectives* and their function on describing *nouns*. Make a class chart naming and describe *adjectives*. Find adjectives in class reading and individual writing. Quiz the children how they know a word in a sentence is an adjective. Discuss how using *adjectives* makes your writing more precise and interesting.

* Look at descriptive sentences and underline the adjectives before brainstorming what different types of adjectives there might be – *describing, possessive, numbering and comparing or superlative adjectives.*

* Build class groups of different types of adjectives related to specific writing topics and use them in writing tasks.

E.g. Make groups of adjectives that tell – *which one, how many, what kind how much, etc.*

* Have children in small groups, sort adjectives written on separate cards into groups depending upon what they say about nouns or pronouns.

* Have the students as a class and individually look at the effectiveness of their use of adjectives in their writing to add detail to the characters, mood, setting and imagery. Identify the conventional order adjectives are written in, starting from the general moving to the specific when describing an object.

Play games to most effectively order adjective written on cards and discuss the results.

6) Explore differences in words that represent details such as when, where and how – adverbs.

* In a class lesson identify *adverbs* and their function in describing *verbs*. See that adverbs often answer the question *in what manner is some action done?* i.e. *How* action is performed – *quickly, slowly, always, rapidly*. *When* and action is performed – early, lately. Whether it is completed – *nearly, slightly, almost, completely*. Intensity – *quite, more, incredibly, very*. Make a class chart naming and describe *adverbs*. Find adverbs in class reading and individual writing. *What ending do adverbs often use? Do all adverbs end in “ly”?* Quiz the children how they know a word in a sentence is an adverb. *What do adverbs add to a sentence or story?*

* In teams have children take turns to use particular adverbs effectively.

* Build class lists of different adjectives to describe specified verbs and use them in class and individual writing.

* As a class try using strings of adverbs to describe another adverb in a sentence before having the children work in pairs to write their own adverb descriptive sentences. Share, discuss and record for display the best sentences. Have the children suggest how to prune some descriptions to reduce their complexity.

E.g. *Phillip sings **rather enormously too loudly**.*

7) Definition and use of prepositions placed in front of noun groups to show where or when. E.g. *on the box* or *before my birthday*.

* As a class identify in sentences words placed in front of nouns or pronouns indicating position or time. Label these words as “Prepositions” and discuss how they add meaning to the associated noun or pronoun. Discuss how the meaning of the sentence would suffer if the *prepositions* were removed. Together with the teacher write up a class definition of a *preposition*.

* Have the children look through books and suggest other *prepositions* to make a class list. Discuss the differences in meaning between some of the words. Have the whole class act out the meaning of some position *prepositions*.

* Have the children individually take turns to act out some of the time *prepositions*.

* Have the children draw objects and label their position using given *prepositions*.

* Have the children use nominated *prepositions* in writing tasks such as news reports.

8) Recognise that time connectives sequence information in texts.

- * As a class construct a written recount of an event experienced at school such as an assembly, a sports day, excursion, etc. Stress the time sequence of events and highlight time connective words. Review the recount and check the order of events. Ask if some section should be positioned in a different place. *Did this happen next?* Ask why we have written this recount in this time order.
- * Have the class brainstorm time connective words we have used – *firstly, next, after that, at the same time, long after that*. Have the children use some of these words to write about to cook toast.
- * Cut-up sentence strips and use the time connective words in the sentences to arrange the sentences in correct time order. Check and discuss arrangements as a class before numbering them in the correct order and pasting them down.

9) Recognise that different types of punctuation including full stops, question marks and exclamation marks signal sentences that make statements, ask questions, express emotions and give commands.

- * Have the children identify and label the punctuation used in sentences to indicate
Questions, Commands, Exclamations and Statements.

E.g. Statements – *I am eating ice cream.*

Questions – *Do you like ice cream?*

Commands - *Don't drop that ice cream.*

Exclamations – *Oh no, I did drop my ice cream!*

- * Identify how and where to draw full stops, question marks and exclamation marks on a line. In pairs have the children take turns doing so with their partners watching how the symbols are formed.
- * Identify different types of sentences in class reading. Discuss what the sentence is doing – is it telling you something; asking you something; telling to do you something or “shouting” something out? See if you can identify how you know that. Play a game to change that sentence into one of the other forms. Record and label each change on the board. Copy each to a class wall chart.
- * In several sessions of class writing, have each child write their own sentences for each sentence type, on specified topics. Share and discuss sentences as a group recording some on class charts.
- * Play games to first pick and write a sentence type before reading your sentence out for the rest of the class to identify its type. Is that what you wrote? How do you know?

10) Recognise that capital letters signal proper nouns and commas are used to separate items in lists.

- * Introduce the idea of starting the main words of titles with capital letters in class reading and writing. Look for other times when capital letters are used to begin words especially in people's names, place names and the titles of movies. Discuss the convention and possible reasons for it.
- * Specifically have the children write the titles of their stories and the full date, starting with capital letters.
- * Introduce the concept of breaking up a written list of three or more items using commas rather than multiple 'and's. Have the children cross out multiple 'and's used in sentences and replace them with commas.

11) Experiment with quoted (direct) and reported (indirect) speech.

- * Explain to the class the function of single and double quotation marks to indicate speech. Have the class identify direct speech in sentences and have individuals insert the quotation marks in the correct spaces. Label the quotation marks and record a definition of *direct speech*.
- * Look at text from plays and poems that contain *direct speech*. Take turns to try out different voices when reading out sections of *direct speech*.
- * Have the class rewrite a section of text as *direct speech*. Read out changes discuss how it can add to the effectiveness of the writing. Discuss whether it is harder or easier to write direct speech especially if you have different people speaking.
- * Have the children write their own funny *direct speech* captions to put under pictures of animals doing different things.
- * Write school safety messages in direct speech. Make a class display of these messages.
- * Look at examples of *reported/indirect speech* in texts and determine why it isn't written within quotation marks. Create a class definition for a class 'Grammar Wall'.
- * Run a class team competition to correctly distinguish between *direct* and *indirect speech* in presented sentences. For a bonus point, select individual team members to correctly write the quotation marks in the sentences containing *direct speech*.

12) Begin to organise ideas into paragraphs when composing texts.

* Look at a long written passage broken up into paragraphs. Have the children try and identify the main idea in each paragraph. If there is a theme sentence for each paragraph, underline it. Compare this passage with another piece of writing that hasn't been broken up into paragraphs. Ask the children which passage is easier to read and understand. Try and identify why the passage not in paragraphs is harder to read. Ask the children if they want others to understand their writing, which type of example would be better to use.

* Model writing stories, reports and recounts, planning paragraph topic sentences and sub-points. Have the students in pairs and individually plan paragraphs for particular writing topics. Share these plans with the class for themselves and others to follow to divide their writing up into three or more paragraphs.

13) Compose sentences effectively using basic grammatical features and punctuation conventions.

* Have the class insert missing punctuation in a written passage. Have individuals identify why they want to use particular punctuation.

* Have the class read and edit together written passages that contain common grammatical errors or are just hard to understand. Have individuals explain the reason for their changes to the text. Record any grammar rules that arise.

* Have children take on individual writing tasks employing capital letters, word spacing, full stops, commas in lists, quotation marks, exclamation marks and question marks. Have the children each use editing guideline cards to self-check their writing for the inclusion of these items.

* Have the children read their writing to a friend to identify if it makes sense and can be understood by others. Have the friend suggest changes if needed.

14) Use subject-verb and noun-pronoun agreement when composing texts and responding to texts orally and in writing.

* Have the children look at sentences where the subject and verb don't agree in number or *person*. Have them orally identify the conflict and suggest a solution before it corrected in writing. Use the terms *subject* and *verb* when identifying the issue.

* Play a class game of "What is the Word". Have children select the correct word card to insert in sentences to have the subject and verb agree in number or *person*.

* Individually have students correctly select words from a few choices to have the subject and verb in agreement in different sentences.

- * Have individuals and the class identify conflicts in agreement of subject and verb in unnamed individuals writing.
- * Have the children look at sentences where the pronoun and noun don't agree in *gender* or *number* (singular or plural). Have them orally identify the conflict and suggest a solution before it corrected in writing. Use the terms *pronoun*, *noun*, *gender* and *number* when identifying the issue.
- * Have the children draw three hairy circle people with two of the figures facing each other and the third a short distance apart from the other two. Draw the first person with an open mouth speaking to the second person, with a speech bubble saying that the third person is "Fred". Label each of the people as "first", "second" or 'third'. Have the children identify what each character is doing and label them as such. i.e. The *First Person* is **speaking**. The *Second Person* is being **spoken to**. The *Third Person* is being **spoken about**. Explain that when we are writing we use particular *pronouns* to show these differences. Record pronouns under each figure which are used to show the correct *person*.
E.g. *First Person* – ***I, my, mine, us, we, us, our, ours.***
 Second Person – ***you, your, yours.***
 Third Person – ***he, she, it, him, her, his, hers, its, they, them, those, their, theirs.***
- * Have the children look at sentences where the pronoun and noun don't agree in *person*. Have them orally identify the conflict and suggest a solution before it corrected in writing. Use the terms *pronoun*, *noun* and *person* when identifying the issue.
- * Individually have students correctly select words from a few choices to have the *noun* and *pronoun* in agreement in different sentences. Discuss their choices and have the children explain the reason for their selections,
- * Look at children's writing and have individuals identify incorrect *pronoun* choices in texts.

15) Understand how texts are made cohesive through resources, for example word associations, synonyms, and antonyms.

16) Recognise, discuss and use creative word play, E.g. alliteration and onomatopoeia.

17) Demonstrate the use of more precise vocabulary to describe emotions and experiences when writing. (These items are not covered in this outline.)

DEFINITIONS and EXAMPLES:

ADJECTIVES – are describing words, adding meaning to *nouns* and *pronouns*. They can describe qualities or states of being and quantity.

E.g. *tiny, sensible, purple, cranky, slow, many, most, thousands, twelve.*

The form of an adjective remains the same, regardless of whether the noun it is modifying is singular or plural. When there is more than one adjective before a noun, there is a conventional order starting from the general moving to the specific. For example: *The big red steam train* rather than *The red big steam train*. The ordering of true adjectives will vary, but the following order is the most common:

word→*size*→*age*→*shape*→*colour*→*nationality*→*material*.

From - <https://education.nsw.gov.au/teaching-and-learning/student-assessment/smart-teaching-strategies/literacy/language-conventions/adjective>
<https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/adjective>

The main types of adjectives are:

Describing adjectives, for example, *big, old, yellow, beautiful* (includes factual adjectives such as *colour, size, shape, age, abstract or technical* and *classifying adjectives*;

Possessive adjectives, for example, *my, his, her* (possessive adjective lists

Numbering adjectives, for example, *two, many, lots of, five, ten, one, first, last, few, some*;

Comparing/superlative adjectives, for example, *more delicate, best, bigger*.

Irregular Adjective list:

Classifying adjectives, for example, *Persian cat, air transport*. These are particularly important in scientific texts where they may classify phenomena.

ADVERBS – modify (describe) a verb (*he sings **loudly***), an adjective (***very tall***), another adverb (*ended **too quickly***), or even a whole sentence (***Fortunately, I had brought an umbrella***). Adverbs often end in -ly, but some, such as *fast*, don't change.

E.g. *Phillip sings **loudly** in the shower.*

*My cat waits **impatiently** for his food.*

*I will **seriously** consider your suggestion.*

The adverbs in each of the sentences modify the verbs by describing the way an action is happening. They answer the question *in what manner?*

However, *Linking verbs*, such as *feel, smell, sound, seem, and appear*, don't mix well with adverbs. Typically these verbs need adjectives to describe them, not adverbs.

E.g. *I feel **badly** about what happened.*

An adverb would describe *how* you perform the action of *feeling* — an adjective describes *what* you feel. “I feel badly” means that you are bad at feeling things, but if you’re trying to say that you are experiencing negative emotions, “I feel bad” is the phrase you want.

Adverbs and Adjectives

Adverbs can also modify adjectives to often add a degree of intensity to the adjective.

E.g. *The woman is **quite** pretty.*

*This book is **more** interesting than the last one.*

*The weather report is **almost always** right.* (The adverb *almost* is modifying the adverb *always*, and they’re both modifying *right*.)

*“Is my singing **too** loud?” asked Phillip.*

*My cat is **incredibly** happy to have his dinner.*

*We will be **slightly** late to the meeting.*

*This bridesmaid dress is a **very** unflattering shade of purple.*

Adverbs and Other Adverbs

You can use one or more adverbs to describe another adverb.

E.g. *Phillip sings **rather enormously too loudly**.*

However such use often produces weak and clunky sentences.

Adverbs and Sentences

Adverbs that can modify entire sentences are called *sentence adverbs*.

Common ones include *generally*, *fortunately*, *interestingly*, and *accordingly*.

Sentence adverbs don’t describe one particular thing in the sentence—instead, they describe a general feeling about all of the information in the sentence.

E.g. ***Fortunately**, we got there in time.*

***Interestingly**, no one at the auction seemed interested in bidding on the antique spoon collection.*

Placement of Adverbs

Place adverbs as close as possible to the words they are supposed to modify. Putting the adverb in the wrong spot can produce an awkward sentence at best and completely change the meaning at worst. Be especially careful about the word *only*, which is one of the most often misplaced modifiers. Consider the difference between these two sentences:

*Phillip **only** fed the cat. Phillip fed **only** the cat.*

The first sentence means that all Phillip did was feed the cat. He didn’t pet the cat or pick it up or anything else. The second sentence means that Phillip fed the cat, but he didn’t feed the dog, the bird, or anyone else who might have been around.

When an adverb is modifying a verb phrase, the most natural place for the adverb is usually the middle of the phrase.

E.g. *We are **quickly** approaching the deadline.*

*Phillip has **always** loved singing.*

I will **happily** assist you.

From - <https://www.grammarly.com/blog/adverb/>

CAPITAL LETTERS – Capital letters are used as the first letter for all proper nouns such as those for the names of people, places, companies, organisations and times.

E.g. *Tom Mills, Queen Elizabeth, Chatswood, Shellharbour, New South Wales, Australia, McDonalds, Smiggle, Royal Life Saving Society, Friday, Christmas.*

Capital letters are also when writing the personal pronoun *I*.

E.g. *I, I'd, I'll, I'm, I've*

Capital letters are used as the first letter of the first words of every sentence.

E.g. *My favourite book is about dogs. The dog's name is Spot.*

Capital letters begin the main words in the titles of books, stories, poems, rhymes, songs, movies and shows.

E.g. *Spot's Birthday, Our Excursion to the Beach, Humpty Dumpty, Happy Birthday, Revenge of the Clones, Little Red Riding Hood meets the Three Bears.*

Capital letters are used at the beginning of words written in quotations marks but not at the second part of a quote if the sentence is broken up by words used to explain the direct speech.

E.g. *'It's old,' said Dad.*

John asked, 'What's for dinner?'

'It's good,' said Mum, 'to not have to pick up all your toys.'

From – *The Primary Grammar Handbook* by Gordon Winch & Gregory Blaxwell
Published by Horwitz Education

CLAUSES – are groups of words that contain a finite verb and its subject. They can act as a sentence, but they are not necessarily a complete sentence on its own. All clauses contain both a *subject* and a *predicate*, which always contains a verb. A *predicate* tells something about what the subject is doing.

E.g. *Dogs bark.*

This is a clause where “Dogs” is the subject and “bark” is the finite verb and predicate.

Dogs bark at cats.

This is also a clause but the predicate contains more words - “bark at cats”.

Principal Clauses – make sense on their own and may be sentences such as the last two examples above. Some sentences may contain two or more *principal clauses* joined by *co-ordinating conjunctions*.

E.g. *Dogs bark at cats but people 'bark' at dogs.*

Subordinate Clause – add meaning to a *principal clause*. It is dependent on a *principal clause* for its meaning and doesn't make sense by itself.

E.g. *Dogs bark at cats because cats tease them.*

The *subordinate clause* is “because cats tease them.”

COMMAS – a comma indicates a smaller break than a full-stop. Some writers think of a comma as a soft pause—a punctuation mark that separates words, clauses, or ideas within a sentence.

When listing three or more items, commas should separate each element of the list. However, the final comma - the one that comes before the *and* - is optional.

E.g. *Mary needs bread, milk, and butter at the grocery store.* (With *serial comma*)

Mary needs bread, milk and butter at the grocery store. (Without *serial comma*)

Whether or not you use the serial comma is a style choice. You can decide for yourself whether to use it or not—just be consistent. However, occasionally the serial comma is necessary for clarity.

E.g. *I dedicate this award to my parents, Jane Austen, and Albert Einstein.*

From - <https://www.grammarly.com/blog/comma/>

CONJUNCTIONS – are joining words forming links between one word and another, phrases, clauses or sentences.

Co-ordinating conjunctions - join individual words, phrases, and *independent clauses* together. When joining two independent clauses they usually come in the middle of a sentence, and a *comma* is used before the conjunction (unless both clauses are very short). *For, and, nor, but, or, yet, so* — are the seven most common *co-ordinating conjunctions*. To remember them, the acronym FANBOYS can be used.

E.g. *We can draw lessons from the past, but we cannot live in it.* [Lyndon B. Johnson]

The purpose of most computer languages is to lengthen your resume by a word and a comma. [Larry Wall]

Subordinating conjunctions – are used to establish the relationship between a dependent clause and the rest of the sentence. These adverbs, that act like conjunctions, are placed at the front of the clause - and a comma is needed at the end of the adverbial phrase when it precedes the main clause.

E.g. *Some people make headlines while others make history.* [Philip Elmer-DeWitt]

“Some people make headlines” is the main part of the sentence, and “while others make history” tells us about an alternative achievement. For the sentence to make sense the phrase “while others make history” must be there. It depends upon the initial statement “some people make headlines” so it is subordinate to it. These two parts of the sentence are joined by a *subordinate conjunction*, the word *while*.

E.g. *If the only tool you have is a hammer, you tend to see every problem as a nail.* [Abraham Maslow]

Other common *subordinate conjunctions* include – *after, before, though, whenever, although, once, unless, where, as, since, until, wherever, because, than, when.*

Correlative conjunctions – exist in pairs and are used to join together various sentence elements which are grammatically equal. They are always used in pairs and denote *equality*. They show the relationship between ideas expressed in different parts of a sentence - and thus make the joining tighter and more emphatic. When joining singular and plural subjects, the subject closest to the verb determines whether the verb is singular or plural.

E.g.

as . . . as - Sue cried as soon as Peter arrived.

just as . . . so - Just as the wind blew in August so it continued into September.

both . . . and - Both Mum and Dad love Christmas.

hardly . . . when – I had hardly opened the door when the dog rushed in.

scarcely . . . when – Scarcely anybody came to school when it was snowing.

either . . . or

neither . . . nor

if . . . then

not . . . but

what with . . . and

whether . . . or

not only . . . but also

no sooner . . . than

rather . . . than

NOUNS – are words that name people, places or things. There are *Common, Proper, Collective, Abstract and Compound nouns*.

E.g. *boy, Sue, team, anger, minefield.*

Proper Nouns – start with a capital letter and are the special names of a person, place or thing.

E.g. *Fred, George, Cynthia, Captain Smith, Oak Flats, Friday, Christmas.*

PARAGRAPHS – are distinct sections of a piece of writing, usually dealing with a single theme and indicated by a new line, indentation, or numbering. They contain all the sentences that deal with one set of ideas. You divide your text into paragraphs to show the reader when one set of ideas has ended and another has begun. A paragraph gives one main idea and all the examples or the smaller ideas that explain it. The main idea is sometimes called the theme.

PREPOSITIONS – a *preposition* is a word usually positioned in front of *nouns* or *pronouns* showing the relationship between the *noun* or *pronoun* and other words in a sentence.

E.g. *after, in, to, on, with, near, before, over, up, of, past, around, during, between.*

They describe for example, the position, time or the way something is done.

E.g. *The bag was **under** the chair.* (Position)

*The boy crawled **between** the two cupboards.* (Position)

*They arrived **on** weekend.* (Time)

*We went **by** train.* (Way)

*We sat **next to** the baby.* (Two prepositions for Position)

*The flag was **on top** of the building.* (Two prepositions for Position)

From - <https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/grammar/prepositions>

PRONOUNS– words that are used in place of a noun.

E.g. *she, her, them, us, we, mine, ours, their, your, who, which, these, herself.*

Personal Pronouns - are used in place of the names of people and things. They may be the subject or part of the subject in a sentence. A *personal pronoun* must agree with its antecedent (the word it renames) in (1) gender, (2) number (singular or plural), and (3) person. Their function or use determines which form or case will be used in a sentence. The three cases of personal pronouns are nominative, objective, and possessive.

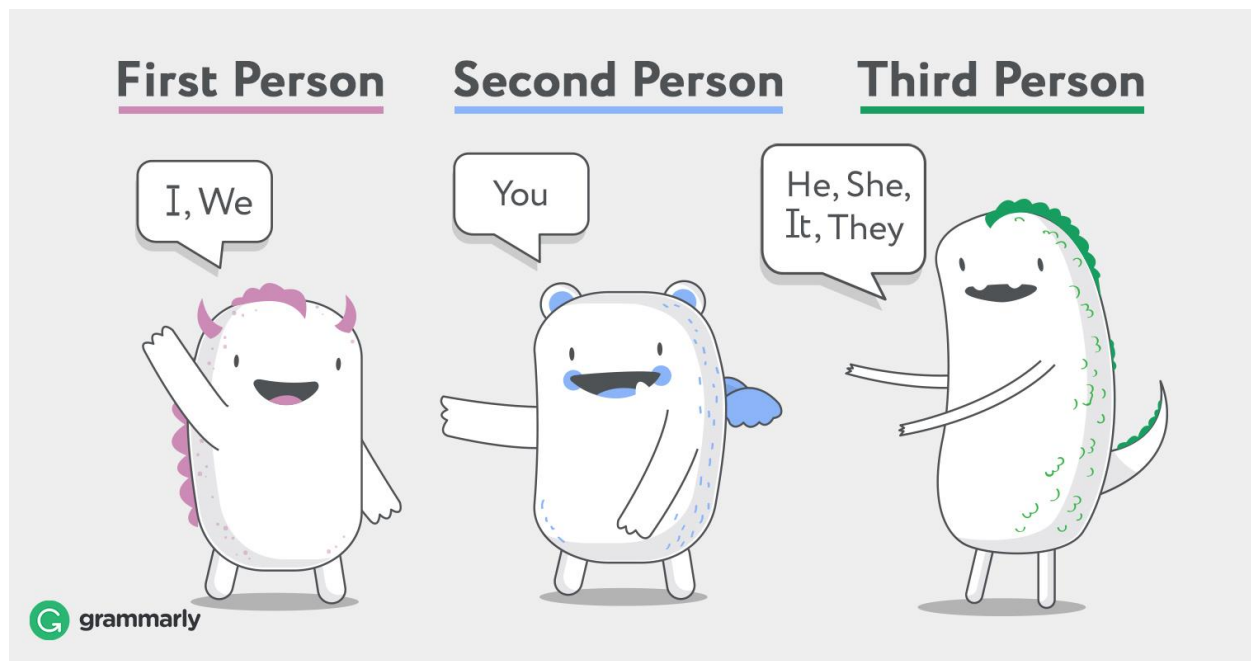
E.g. *he, she, I, them, we.*

Nominative Case Personal Pronouns - The nominative case is needed when a personal pronoun is used as (1) the subject of a verb or as a (2) predicate nominative. (A *predicate nominative* is a word or words that identify the subject or refer to it. It is connected to its subject by a linking verb. They generally follow the form of the verb *be* or a phrase ending in *be* or *been*.)
E.g. *I like football.* “I” is in the nominative case and is the subject of the verb “like”.

*The captains of the team are **he and I**.* “He” and “I” are predicate nominatives, renaming captains.

	Singular	Plural
	<u>Nominative</u>	
First Person	<i>I</i>	<i>we</i>
Second Person	<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>
Third Person	<i>he, she, it</i>	<i>they</i>

(*First Person* - the person or persons speaking.
Second Person - the person spoken to.
Third Person - the person spoken about.)



“I” and “me” Choices -

To determine which pronoun to use, leave out the other person in the sentence, and imagine yourself alone in the context of the sentence.

E.g. *Andrew and (I/me) are going to the playground.*

Remove the other person:

I am going to the playground. (Correct)

Me am going to the playground. (Incorrect)

From this, you know “***I***” is the correct pronoun: *Andrew and I are going to the playground.*

From - <http://www.write.com/writing-guides/general-writing/grammar/first-person-pronouns/> (**This link is no longer available**)

QUOTED and REPORTED SPEECH – Direct speech, the words that someone actually says, is indicated by being written between single or double quotation marks.

E.g. *The cat said, ‘Meow.’*

No quotation marks are needed around *Indirect (Reported) Speech*.

E.g. *Sue said that she wanted to come as well.*

Dad told us to turn the t.v.

Quotation marks aren't used in speech bubbles because speech bubbles act as quotation marks, telling what is actually said.

Quotation marks are needed to show breaks in direct speech.

E.g. *'I like Ford cars, said John, 'but I don't like Holdens.'*

If there are quoted words inside a piece of writing already enclosed in double quotation marks, then use single quotation marks to enclose those words.

E.g. *"I think he said, 'I hate chocolate ice cream!'," said Mum.*

On the other hand, if you have been using single quotation marks, then single double quotation marks are needed around any quoted words within that direct speech.

E.g. *'I think I heard him say, "I hate chocolate ice cream!"', said Mum.*

Titles of poems, books and other special names need to be enclosed in quotation marks when used in writing.

E.g. *Dad read 'Common Sense Cookery'.*

We all saw the space shuttle 'Atlantis' at the air museum.

SENTENCES – are groups of words that have a complete meaning and contain a finite verb (a verb that has a subject and can stand on its own without a helping verb). All sentences begin with a capital letter. The four basic forms of sentences are statements, questions, commands and exclamations. Statements and commands usually end with a full stop. Questions concluded with a question mark exclamations with an exclamation mark.

Simple Sentences - have a subject and a predicate with the finite verb being the predicate or part of the predicate. (The word or words in a sentence that says something about the subject.)

E.g. *They cried.* Here the word "cried" is both the predicate and a finite verb. "They" is the subject.

We like eating oranges. "We" is the subject, "like" is the finite verb and "like eating oranges" is the predicate.

Simple sentences have one main clause called a *principal clause*.

Compound sentences – are made from two or more *principal clauses* joined by a co-ordinate conjunction.

E.g. *The boy walked home* and *the stray dog followed him*.

Here the two underlined principal clauses are joined the co-ordinating conjunction "and".

Common co-ordinate conjunctions include: *and, but, for, or, so yet.*

Complex Sentences – are sentences containing a *principal clause* and at least one *subordinate clause* beginning with a *subordinate conjunction* or a *relative pronoun*. A *subordinate clause* is dependent on that *principal clause* and doesn't make sense on its own.

E.g. *The dog knew when it was time to be fed.*

Here the *principal clause* is "The dog knew" and the *subordinate clause* is "when it was time to be fed". The *subordinate clause* begins with the *subordinate conjunction* "when".

The *subordinated clauses* are underlined in the following sentences.

My car was dirty, so I washed it.

When I have had lunch, I will get back to work.

The man, who wasn't feeling very well, fainted.

TIME CONNECTIVES - are words or phrases which are used to tell a reader *when* something is happening. They are sometimes called *temporal connectives*.

E.g. ***This morning,*** I ate fried bananas for breakfast.

Connectives can be conjunctions, prepositions or adverbs.

Other time connectives include: ***first, last, next, then, finally, eventually, this evening, last week, after a while, soon afterwards, meanwhile.***

These connectives often appear at the beginning of a sentence, which may also be the beginning of a paragraph. We are used to seeing connectives in the middle of a sentence, connecting two parts of the sentence, but in the case of time connectives, they may be connecting one section of text to another. For example: in this passage, the word 'Finally' would not make sense without the information that came before it: ***This morning,*** I ate fried bananas for breakfast, ***then*** I had some blueberry pancakes. ***While*** taking the bus to school, I read my comic. ***Finally,*** we reached the school gates.

From - <https://www.theschoolrun.com/what-are-time-connectives>

VERBS – are *doing, being* or *having* words. Verbs are central to a clause.

E.g. *The dog **ate** his food.*

*My Mum **was** happy.*

*I **have** a new bike.*

Finite Verbs – have a subject and can stand on their own without a helping verb.

E.g. *The elephant **sat** on the stool.*

Finite Verbs need to agree with their subject's *person* and *number* (singular or plural), for a sentence to make sense and be understood.

E.g. *I **love** chocolate.* (First Person - the person speaking.)

*You **love** chocolate.* (Second Person - the person spoken to.)

*She **loves** chocolate.* (Third Person - the person spoken about.)

*Mum, there **is** a fly in my soup.* (Singular subject, singular verb)

*Mum, there **are** flies in my soup.* (Plural subject, plural verb)

*Most of the coffee **is** gone.* (Subject is singular if its components can't be counted.)

*Most of the biscuits **are** gone.* (Subject is plural if it refers to more than one part that can be counted.)

*A pencil and a rubber **make** writing easier.* (Subjects linked by **and** have a plural verb.)

*Pencils and rubbers **make** writing easier.* (Subjects linked by **and** have a plural verb.)

*Neither the teacher nor the students **are** listening to the play.* (Subjects linked by **nor** have a plural verb if the last subject is plural.)

*Neither the students nor the teacher **is** listening to the play.* (Subjects linked by **nor** have a singular verb if the last subject is singular.)

*The team **has** been awarded a medal.* (A singular group subject i.e. Collective nouns, have a singular verb.)

*The teams **have** been awarded medals.* (A plural group subject has a plural verb.)

With present tenses, nouns and verbs form plurals in opposite ways: **nouns** add an **s** to the singular form, but **verbs** remove an **s** from the singular form.

E.g. *The **dog** **chases** the cat.*

*The **dogs** **chase** the cat.*

Non-Finite Verbs – cannot stand on their own and there are two types, *infinitives* and *participles*.

Infinitives – are verbs that can't stand on their own and don't refer to a subject.

E.g. *seen, do, ring, take.*

They are often preceded by the word 'to'.

E.g. *To **swim**, I must first find my cossies.*

Participles – are verbs that must combine with an auxiliary (helping) verb to make a complete verb. There are two types: present participles and past participles.

E.g. *I am **walking** quickly.*

The complete verb is 'am walking', 'am' is the auxiliary verb and 'walking' is the present participle. The present participle is made by adding 'ing' to the infinitive (to) "walk".

*I had **walked** quickly.*

The complete verb is 'had walked', 'had' is the auxiliary verb and 'walked' is the past participle. The past participle is made by adding 'ed' to the infinite (to) 'walk'.

Compound verbs are verbs made up of multiple words.

E.g. *believe in*
ask for
tear up
work on
was swimming
will be driving
are running
rely on

Mary **will take off** her makeup before bed.

The town **was destroyed** by the tornado.

Everything **will work out** eventually.

I had **water-proofed** the boat, but not well enough.

We **opted for** the cheaper room without a view.

From <http://examples.yourdictionary.com/compound-verb-examples.html>

Tense of Verbs - Verbs can refer to the time when you've done something - in the past, in present or in future. We call this the *Tense* of the verb.

Present Tense

*I am **walking**.*

*I am **staying**.*

Future Tense

*I will **walk**.*

*I might **stay**.*

Past Tense

*I have **walked**.*

*I have **stayed**.*

Participles (verbs ending in – “ing” or “ed”) do not locate a verb in time and need a finite component to indicate when the event happens. For example, the participle *running* needs the finite auxiliaries *was running* (past), *is running* (present), *will be running* (future) to indicate when the running occurs.

Regular and Irregular verbs – for *regular verbs*, the past tense simply adds an “ed” to the end of the word, with both *simple past* and *past particles* taking the same form. *Irregular verbs* do not conform to the traditional rules. With these verbs, adding the “ed” is not only incorrect, but it often sounds awkward.

E.g. *hurt* doesn't become *hurted*

The 10 most commonly used verbs in the English language are actually *irregular* (*be, can, do, get, go, have, say, see, take* and *will*).

Different types of irregular verbs:

Some irregular verbs all take the same form, such as *put* (*put, put, put*). Others take different forms but have similar sounds, such as *blow* (*blow, blew, blown*). Yet another type has simple past and past participle forms that are identical yet differ from the present tense, such as *sleep* (*sleep, slept, slept*). Then there are

those that do not fall into any of the previous three categories, such as *go* (*go*, *went*, *gone*). There are no specific rules that dictate how the simple past and past participle verbs are formed. To learn irregular verbs you must either memorize a rather exhaustive list of them if they are not part of your everyday vocabulary, or you can learn them as you go.

From - <http://www.write.com/writing-guides/general-writing/grammar/what-is-the-difference-between-regular-and-irregular-verbs/> (**No longer available**)

Common Irregular Verbs

<u>Infinite</u>	<u>Past Tense</u>	<u>Past Participle</u>
<i>do</i>	<i>did</i>	<i>done</i>
<i>fly</i>	<i>flew</i>	<i>flown</i>
<i>give</i>	<i>gave</i>	<i>given</i>
<i>go</i>	<i>went</i>	<i>gone</i>
<i>eat</i>	<i>ate</i>	<i>eaten</i>
<i>know</i>	<i>knew</i>	<i>known</i>
<i>take</i>	<i>took</i>	<i>taken</i>
<i>wear</i>	<i>wore</i>	<i>worn</i>
<i>lie</i>	<i>lay</i>	<i>lain</i>
<i>write</i>	<i>wrote</i>	<i>written</i>
<i>choose</i>	<i>chose</i>	<i>chosen</i>
<i>speak</i>	<i>spoke</i>	<i>spoken</i>

E.g. *I **do** like your shoes. I **did** like your shoes. I am **done** liking your shoes.*