

# Teaching Grammar

## Stage 2

NSW Syllabus, Stage 2, Objective B - July 2018

Sequenced activities covering the listed Teaching Points.



Teachers' Christian Fellowship of NSW

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# Teaching Grammar

- 1) Outline Grammar Objectives and Content for Stage 2, 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 2

### **Objective B**

Outcome – *A student uses effective and accurate sentence structure, grammatical features, punctuation conventions and vocabulary relevant to the type of text when responding to and composing texts.*

### Contextual Knowledge –

\* Understand that the effective organisation of ideas in imaginative, informative and persuasive texts enhances meaning.

\* Understand that choice of vocabulary impacts on the effectiveness of texts.

(Not covered in this outline.)

### Teaching points:

- 1) Paragraphs are a key organisational feature of written texts.
- 2) A clause is a unit of grammar containing a subject and a verb that need to be in agreement.
- 3) Elaborate on ideas in texts through the use of prepositional phrases.
- 4) Understand how adverb groups or phrases and prepositional phrases work in different ways to provide circumstantial details about an activity.
- 5) Understand that the meaning of sentences can be enriched through the use of noun groups/phrases and verb groups/phrases and prepositional phrases.
- 6) Identify and use grammatical features, e.g. pronouns, conjunctions and connectives to accurately link ideas and information.
- 7) Understand that verbs represent different processes (doing, thinking, saying and relating) and that these processes are anchored in time through tense.
- 8) Experiment with punctuation to engage the reader and achieve purpose.
- 9) Investigate how quoted (direct) and reported (indirect) speech, work in different types of text.
- 10) Use apostrophes for contractions.
- 11) Identify a variety of connectives in texts to indicate time, to add information and to clarify understanding.
- 12) Learn ways to express opinion using modal verbs and adverbs.

13) Use grammatical features to create complex sentences when composing texts.

14) Learn extended and technical vocabulary.

15) Experiment with vocabulary choices to engage listeners and readers.

16) Incorporate new vocabulary from a range of sources into student's own texts including vocabulary encountered in research. (Not covered in this outline.)

## **LESSON SEQUENCES**

1) Paragraphs are a key organisational feature of written 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 to expand, explain or elaborate on each paragraph topic including examples if relevant to the writing style. 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.

\* As a class, analyse the paragraph structure of different student's writing. Ask these questions-

*Does each paragraph contain a topic sentence some where in the paragraph? (It doesn't necessarily have to come at the beginning.)*

*Are the paragraphs developing and supporting the topic sentence?*

*Is each paragraph unified, addressing one idea? Do you need to start new paragraphs for your other ideas?*

*Do you need to included transitions of individual words, phrases or sentences to link up examples in your paragraphs or the ideas between paragraphs?*

*Does each sentence flow smoothly into the next without obvious shifts or jumps?*

*Does highlights the ties between old information and new information to make the structure of ideas or arguments clear to the reader.*

*Are your paragraphs too long needed to be broken up, or too short needed more development?*

\* Edit own writing to check for three of these items. Explain that writers revisit and refine their writing over time.

\* Edit a partner's writing considering three of the above questions.

From - <https://writingcenter.unc.edu/tips-and-tools/paragraphs/>

\* Build lists of **transition words or phrases** to use between sentences and between paragraphs, to show *addition*, *to give examples*, *to compare*, *to contrast* and *summarize or conclude*. Edit personal writing to include some of these to emphasize the relationships between ideas.

2) A clause is a unit of grammar containing a subject and a verb that need to be in agreement.

\* Look at examples of clauses and identify, label and define their component parts of *subject* and *predicate*.

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”.

\* Look at the difference between *Principal Clauses* and *Subordinate Clauses* i.e. *Principal Clauses* make sense on their own and may be sentences where as *Subordinate Clauses* add meaning to a *Principal Clause* and don’t make sense by themselves.

E.g. *Dogs bark at cats* but *people ‘bark’ at dogs*. (This sentence contains two *Principal Clauses*)

*Dogs bark at cats* *because cats tease them*. (The *subordinate clause* is “because cats tease them.”)

\* Look at plural-form subjects which can either have a singular or plural verb depending on their meaning, such as *news*, *measles*, *mathematics*, *politics*, etc. E.g. *Mumps is a contagious disease*. (“Mumps” is a plural subject but treated as singular. i.e. You never have one “mump” you always get multiple “mumps”.)

*Politics is an interesting subject*. (Single verb as the subject “politics” is treated as singular.)

*The politics of the situation were complicated*. (Here the subject “politics” is referring to more than one “calculated advancement” so the plural verb “were” is used.)

\* Have the class brainstorm other examples of plural-form subjects. In pairs have the students use them both in plural and singular forms in pairs of written sentences.

\* Compare the above, plural-form subjects with those that only have a plural form verb. Have the children in table groups find as many as possible.

E.g. *The scissors **are** on the table*.

*My trousers **are** brown*.

\* Discuss how we could use plural-form subjects that only use a plural form verb, such as *scissors*, with a singular verb.

E.g. *The pair of scissors **is** on the table.* (Here the subject is a single pair of scissors, so the singular verb is used.)

See if the class can think of any more examples.

\* Check that *Indefinite pronouns* used as *subjects* match their verb in regard to number (singular or plural).

E.g. *No one **does** enough work around here.* (Singular verb.)

*Both **do** a good job in class.* (Plural verb.)

Singular indefinite pronouns – *each, either, one, no one, nobody, somewhere, everyone, everybody.*

Plural indefinite pronouns - *several, few, both, many.*

\* Look at *indefinite pronouns* that may be either *singular* or *plural*.

E.g. *some, any, none, all, most.*

Use the singular form of the verb if the object the *indefinite pronoun* is referring to can't be counted and, the plural form, if it can be counted.

E.g. *Most of the coffee **is** gone.* (Singular verb as subject can't be counted.)

*Most of the biscuits **are** gone.* (Plural verb as the subject can be counted.)

\* Look at subject-verb agreement when the subject follows the verb.

E.g. *There **are** many possible candidates.* (Plural verb and plural subject.)

*There **is** only one good candidate.* (Singular verb and singular subject.)

\* Look at *compound subjects* joined by “and” to see that the verb is always plural.

E.g. *A pencil and a rubber **make** writing easier.* (Plural verb)

\* Have the children study sentences with singular and plural subjects joined by words like “or” and “nor” to see if they can describe when the verb is single and when it is plural.

i.e. With *Compound subjects* joined by **or/nor**, the verb agrees with the subject nearer to it.

E.g. *Neither the teacher nor the students **are** listening to the play.*

*Neither the students nor the teacher **is** listening to the play*

### 3) Elaborate on ideas in texts through the use of prepositional phrases.

\* Introduce the children to the function of *prepositions* in sentences by having them suggest different descriptive words that express the relationship a book could have with a wizard.

E.g. *The book **about** the wizard ...*

*The book **by** the wizard ....*



The book **near** the wizard ....  
The book **behind** the wizard ....  
The book **under** the wizard ....

Have the children try using different *prepositions* expressing the relationship the wizard could have to the book.

E.g. The wizard **in** the book ....  
The wizard **of** the book ....  
The wizard **within** the book ....  
The wizard **from** the book ....

\* Determine and record a class definition of a *preposition*. Create a class list of *prepositional* words.

E.g. *above, about, across, against, along, among, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, by, down, during, except, for, from, in, inside, into, like, near, of, off, on, since, to, toward, through, under, until, up, upon, with, within.*

\* Introduce the concept of a *phrase* being a group of words that stand together as a concept. As a class have the children identify the phrases in the following sentences and then how these particular phrases are doing the same job as *prepositions*. Label them as *Prepositional Phrases* (group of words that stand together as a concept, acting as a preposition).

The patty cake **with the sprinkles** is mine.  
We climbed **up the hill**.  
I sat down **on the seat**.  
The rabbits hopped **through the fence**.

Together identify the information added by each phrase and the word it is modifying.

E.g. What the cake looked like. (Acting as an adjective, modifying a noun)  
Where we climbed. (Acting as an adverb, modifying a verb.)  
What we sat down on. (Acting as an adverb, modifying an adverb.)  
Where the rabbits hopped. (Acting as an adverb, modifying a verb).

Discuss how we could make each of the phrases more interesting by making them even more descriptive?

E.g. We climbed up the very steep hill.

Have the students, working in pairs, to add adjectives to the phrases. Share and compare answers with another group. Have each group of four pick their best sentence to write up for the rest of the class to view. Have each class member choose which sentence, with its Prepositional Phrase, is the most effective and then have a few students explain why they made that choice.

\* Have the children identify *Prepositional Phrases* in class reading. Have the students copy down *Prepositional Phrases* they come across in a session of

personal reading. Have each student share their lists with a partner or table group.

\* Have students individually add *Prepositional phrases* to individual sentences and paragraphs.

E.g. *I ate my lunch.*

*John cried.*

*The dog ran.*

*I used my manners.*

*The clown is funny.*

\* Ask the students to individually add *Prepositional Phrases* to a piece of their own writing during editing and composition.

4) Understand how *adverb groups or phrases* and *prepositional phrases* work in different ways to provide circumstantial details about an activity.

E.g. 'At midnight (adverbial and prepositional phrase of time) *he rose* slowly (adverb of manner) from the chair (adverbial phrase of place) *and went upstairs.*' (adverb of place)

From - <http://www.scottle.edu.au/ec/search?accContentId=ACELA1495>

\* Revise with the class what *adverbs*, *adverbial phrases* and *prepositional phrases* are. Have the class add adverbs, groups of adverbs, adverbial phrases and/or prepositional phrases to a sentence to make it more interesting.

E.g. *He rose and went.*

Ask the class what this sentence tells the reader. Then ask what it doesn't tell the reader? List on the board items that it doesn't tell the reader. i.e. When *he rose*. How *he rose*. Where *he rose* from. Where he *went*. State that if our sentence provided this information it would be more engaging and informative for the reader – it would tell us more.

In pairs have the students rewrite the sentence adding-in the information to fill-in the following template.

(When) \_\_\_\_\_ *he rose* (how) \_\_\_\_\_ *from* (where) \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_ *and went* (where) \_\_\_\_\_.

Share and discuss how the pupils have filled in the missing words. Identify the types of phrases we have used and what they have done to the meaning of the sentence.

\* Rewrite other simple sentences adding-in adverbs and adverbial phrases to expand and add meaning to the text.

\* Using the interactive online resources from <http://www.scootle.edu.au/ec/viewing/L1280/index.html>, have the children watch a short cartoon about a dog in a backyard. Select phrases to create sentences and build a basic factual recount. Rearrange the phrases to create the best word order in the sentences. Ask the questions: *Who was involved? What did they do? When, where or how did they do it?* Add adjectives and adverbs to make the story clearer and funnier. Have each child print-off their elaborated recounts.

\* Examine a model newspaper report to learn about structure and use of verbs, adverbial phrases and pronouns. Read and listen to two witness reports of a skateboarding accident. Identify the two different points of view. Arrange paragraphs for the newspaper report. Select suitable *adverb groups, phrases* and *prepositional phrases* for the report. Create a headline and choose a photograph.

\* Help a publishing director create a bestselling horror story. Read a simple horror story. Choose effective *adverb groups, phrases* and *prepositional phrases* to increase the impact of the story by making it scarier. Select illustrations that highlight the horror of the events.

From - <http://www.scootle.edu.au/ec/search?accContentId=ACELA1495>

5) Understand that the meaning of sentences can be enriched through the use of noun groups/phrases and verb groups/phrases and prepositional phrases.

\* Look at various *noun groups* and *noun phrases* used in sentences and identify their function in clarifying the meaning of sentences. Underline and label these word groups.

E.g. *Uncle Peter's dog* ate the slipper.

*The dog on the sofa* ate the slipper.

*The neighbour's dog that chases our cat*, ate the slipper.

*The dog digging in the new flowerbed* is burying the slipper.

Have children develop noun phrases and noun groups to identify an object such as a *cat, hair, car, game, room, team*, etc.

\* Have the children circle lone nouns in their own writing before replacing them with *noun groups* and *noun phrases* to clarify the meaning of their own sentences.

\* Look at different examples of *verb groups* and *verb phrases* used in sentences and identify their function in clarifying the meaning of sentences. Underline and label these word groups.

E.g. He **was happy** to watch.

She **is staying** at home today.

I **have seen** him before.

You **must be** mad.



*She **may like** those shoes.*

*The small dog was reluctant **to learn new things**.*

***When he arrives**, we can try to build a fort.*

Discuss how these phrases or word groups provide important information for the reader about the action in the sentence. Identify how they are essential to clear writing.

\* Working with a partner, have the children rewrite the sentence “*He **was happy** to watch.*” only changing the verb group to express a different meaning. Have the pairs then report back to share their different sentences with the rest of the class.

E.g.

*He **is** happy to watch.*

*He **will be** happy to watch.*

*He **wasn't happy** to watch.*

*He was **upset** to watch.*

*He will **not be** happy to watch.*

*He **won't be** happy to watch.*

*He was **thrilled** to watch.*

*He was **delighted** to watch.*

*He was **disappointed** to watch.*

\* Repeat the above activity for the verb phrase “***When he arrives**, we can try to build a fort.*”

\* Have the children add verb phrases to simple sentences to express when, how and why an action takes place.

\* Indicate to individuals where they could include verb phrases in individual pieces of their own writing to make a text clearer and more engaging.

\* Identify and discuss *Prepositional phrases* used in sentences. See that these phrases contain a *preposition* together with a noun or pronoun and indicate a relationship between various elements within a sentence. Note that they lack either a verb or a subject but they do contain an object and a *preposition*. Prepositional phrases can act as *adverbs* modifying verbs, other adverbs and adjectives or as *adjectives* modifying nouns and pronouns.

E.g. *The patty cake **with the colourful sprinkles** is mine.* (Adjectival phrase)

*We climbed **up the hill**.* (Adverbial phrase)

*A couple **with two children** were involved in the accident.* (Adjectival phrase)

*The rabbits hopped **through the old wire fence**.* (Adverbial phrase)

Have the children draw all the ways the rabbit could have **hopped** near **the old wire fence** – *beside, along, behind, around, under, over, etc.*

\* Have the children add their own adverbial or adjectival *prepositional phrases* to given sentences.

E.g. *The man ..... sat on my hat.*

*We walked .....*

*A pair of mice ..... ate all the cheese.*

*The baby crawled .....*

Have each child draw the man their partner described in their first sentence.

Have several children take turns to act out how their baby crawled in their sentence.

Revise and see if you can improve your prepositional phrases after seeing them drawn and having acted them out.

#### 6) Identify and use grammatical features, e.g. pronouns, conjunctions and connectives to accurately link ideas and information.

\* Revise the children's knowledge of *Pronouns*.

- What are they?

- When are they used?

- What difficulties are there in understanding the meaning of the text if too many pronouns are used without naming the actual person or thing?

Record a class definition of *Pronouns*.

\* Identify some of the different types of pronouns and record them under appropriate heading types. Identify the different information that each type of pronoun indicates.

E.g. *Male or Female Or Neither (Gender); Singular or Plural (Number); Subject or Object or Ownership/Possessive (Case); First, Second or Third Person, Indefinite or Definite, etc.*

\* Have the children replace the pronouns in given sentences to change nominated items such as *gender, number, case* or *person* before drawing a picture of the new sentence.

E.g. **She** was wearing a beautiful dress. (Change gender)

**We** ate a hundred pies. (Change number)

The student collected **his** lunch. (Change case)

**I** am going to jump on the trampoline. (Change person)

\* Have the children read the following sentence to determine why it is difficult to understand:

*I joined the football team for the winter comp, and you have to go to training on Thursday nights.*

See if they can correct it by changing just one word. Give them a hint that there is a problem with the pronouns in the sentence. *What are each of the pronouns referring to?* The pronouns used in the sentence don't agree with each other; the writer switched from first person (**I**) to second person (**you**).

Working in pairs, have the children correct the pronouns for *person* in other texts before sharing and discussing their answers with the rest of the class.

- \* Use *Personal pronouns* to refer to people and things – *I, you, he, she, it, we, you, they*.
- \* Use *Possessive pronouns* to show ownership. – *mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs*.
- \* Use the *Relative pronouns* **who** and **whom** to relate to nouns or personal pronouns referring to people.
- \* Use the *Relative pronouns* **which** and **that** when referring to animals, places or things.
- \* Use *Interrogative pronouns* to ask questions – *who, whom, whose, which* and *what*.
- \* Use *Indefinite pronouns* when not referring to any particular antecedent, person, place or thing in particular.  
E.g. *one, none, anyone, anybody, everyone, everybody, someone, no-one, somebody, nobody, anything, anybody, etc.*
- \* Identify the correct pronoun in parentheses for each of the following sentences. Then, give its use in the sentence — as a *subject* or *predicate nominative*. (Pronouns used in a *predicate* to identify or refer to the subject of a sentence. They complete a linking verb in a sentence and rename the subject thereby identify or defining the subject.)  
E.g. *If the phone rings, it will probably be (she, her)*. She — *predicate nominative*

Choose the correct form of the pronoun and tell why you chose it.

1. *How did you know the guest speakers were (they, them)?*
2. *(She, Her) and (he, him) will move to San Miguel.*
3. *Open the door! It is (I, me)!*
4. *You and (me, I) are the only candidates left.*
5. *It was wonderful to hear that the winner was (he, him).*
6. *(Us, We) and (them, they) will meet at five o'clock.*
7. *That man looked a little like Harry, but it was not (he, him) after all.*
8. *Believe it or not, (she, her) was on the radio this morning.*
9. *Yes, the one in costume was really (she, her)!*
10. *You and (we, us) were the first visitors.*

From - [Mrbarham.com](http://Mrbarham.com) page 227

- \* Have the children use the correct *Predicate nominatives* in these sentences.

1. *It could have been (them, they).*
2. *Yes, it was (us, we).*
3. *The runaway girl was (her, she).*
4. *This is (him, he).*
5. *The winner was (me, I).*

Answers:

1. they - predicate nominative
2. we - predicate nominative
3. she - predicate nominative
4. he - predicate nominative
5. I - predicate nominative

(Predicate nominatives give us the most trouble; therefore, these may all sound strange to you, but they are correct.)

From - *troy.ed* Troy University Writing Center

\* Look at sentences containing *conjunctions*. Identify the joining words as conjunctions and write a class definition of this part of speech. Brainstorm a list of other conjunctions and orally use them in sentences.

\* Look at sentences joining clauses together containing *Co-ordinating conjunctions* (join and placed between two clauses of equal weight) and others containing *Subordinating conjunctions* (establish the relationship between a dependent clause and the rest of the sentence). Identify the difference in role between the two.

Introduce the acronym FANBOYS as a way to remember the seven most common *co-ordinating conjunctions* - *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*. Have the students use each of these two join together clauses in their own written sentences.

From a general list of *subordinate conjunctions* (such as *if, after, before, though, whenever, although, once, unless, where, as, since, until, wherever, because, than, when*) have the students group them under headings of purpose.

E.g. Conjunctions of Time – *after, as long as, as soon as, before, by the time, now that, once, since, till, until, when, whenever, while*.

Conjunctions of Condition – *if, only if, unless, until, provided that, assuming that, even if, in case (that), lest*.

Conjunctions of Reason – *because, since, so that, in order (that), why*.

Conjunctions of Comparison – *than, rather than, whether, as much as, whereas*.

Conjunctions of Manner – *how, as though, as if*.

Conjunctions of Place – *where, wherever*.

Conjunctions of Concession – *though, although, even though, while*.

- \* Have children identify *subordinate conjunctions* in sentences verbally explain their purpose in the particular sentence.
- \* Look at *Relative pronouns* that can be used as conjunctions joining two clauses together.  
E.g. – *that, what, which, whatever, whichever, who, whoever, whom, whomever, whose.*
- \* Use *Connecting adverbs* (and adverbial phrases and clauses) to maintain the cohesion of texts in several basic ways by: **addition** (*also, furthermore, moreover*);  
**opposition** (*however, nevertheless, on the other hand*); **reinforcing** (*besides, anyway, after all*); **explaining** (*for example, in other words, that is to say*);  
**listing** (*first, firstly, first of all, finally*); **indicating a result** (*therefore, consequently, as a result*); **indicating time** (*just then, meanwhile, later*).
- \* Use Commas to mark off connecting adverbs or adverbial phrases or clauses.

7) Understand that verbs represent different processes (doing, thinking, saying and relating) and that these processes are anchored in time through tense.

- \* Have the children identify the *doing* words in several sentences and label these as **Verbs**. Have the class identify the different types of actions of these verbs to broaden the definition of a verb to include such as aspects as *thinking, saying, relating, being and having*.

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

*My Mum **was** happy.*

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

- \* Identify **Compound verbs** in sentences developing an understanding that verbs may consist of more than one word.

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*



\* Introduce the concept that **Verbs** can refer to the time when an action is done - in the *past*, in *present* or in *future* and that we call this the **Tense** of the verb.

Present Tense	Future Tense	Past Tense
<i>I am <b>walking</b>.</i>	<i>I will <b>walk</b>.</i>	<i>I have <b>walked</b>.</i>
<i>I am <b>staying</b>.</i>	<i>I might <b>stay</b>.</i>	<i>I have <b>stayed</b>.</i>

Have the children identify the tense of verbs in selected sentences. Ask children to orally change the tense of sentences by modifying the verb.

Participles (verbs that must combine with an auxiliary, that is helping verb, to make a complete verb 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 occurred.

Have the children rewrite sentences changing auxiliary verbs to change the tense, the time when an action occurs. Discuss why thinking about the tense in a sentence is important to understanding what is happening and the confusion to the reader if the tense in a passage isn't consistent.

Look at passages where the sentence tense is inconsistent and have the children suggest changes to correct the confusion in meaning.

#### 8) Experiment with punctuation to engage the reader and achieve purpose.

\* Revise the use of full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to signal sentences that make statements, ask questions, express emotions and give commands. *When do we use each of these marks? How do I indicate a written sentence is a question rather than a statement? Is it important to use full stops at the end of sentences? Why? What is the point of using exclamation marks? What feelings and type of feelings are expressed by this mark? How does an exclamation mark change the way a sentence is read? Where are exclamations marks included in direct or reported speech?* Try reading aloud particular sentences with and without using question marks or exclamation marks.

\* Identify when how to use **question marks** after direct or reported speech where a question is asked with a full stop placed at the end of the sentence.

E.g. *Are you hungry?*

*Do you want a cheese or chicken sandwich? asked Mum.*

\* Identify when how to use **question marks** in the middle of a sentence.

E.g. *I will meet you at eight (?) if daylight savings ends this weekend.*

*It is a grate (?) car.*

\* Have the children identify and label what **commas** are and how to write them. Have the children use commas to separate two or more adjectives modifying a noun or two or more adverbs modifying a verb.

E.g. *Ann is a bright, happy, confident child.*

*The snake silently, quickly, purposely slithered towards the door.*

\* Use **commas** to separate two principal clauses joined by a co-ordinate conjunction (*and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet*) to make a compound sentence. (If the two principal clauses are short, a comma may be unnecessary.)

E.g. *I was going to come to cricket, but I had to go out with Mum.*

*I love chocolate so I ate it.*

\* Use **commas** in sentences beginning with a connective such as *so* or *however* to separate the connective with the rest of the sentence.

E.g. *So, I still think I should go.*

\* Use **commas** in sentences beginning with a phrase or a clause to separate the phrase or clause from the rest of the sentence.

E.g. *At the end of the day, we will all sit down together for dinner.*

*Although it was still early, I still decided to get up to watch t.v.*

\* Use **commas** to separate words, phrases and clauses used within sentences to add extra meaning.

E.g. *I let my dog, Gus, out of the house.*

*Mrs Jones, our new neighbour, moved here from Grafton.*

*Neil, who has been away on holidays, is coming around with his bike.*

\* Use **commas** at the end of quotations that are statements and before the quotation mark, when the quotation is directly followed by the words explaining who is speaking (*said, answered, yelled, replied, asked, etc.*).

E.g. *'I'm fine,' said Mum.*

\* Where a quoted statement is interrupted by the words used to explain who is speaking, those words are enclosed by **commas**.

E.g. *'I am ready,' he said, 'to do as you ask.'*

Because the quoted sentence is a statement, it ends with a full stop which is placed before the final quotation mark.

\* **Commas** are not used where the quotation is a question or exclamation. A question mark or exclamation mark is placed at the end of the quotation and before the quotation mark, this is then followed by the words used to explain the direct speech.

E.g. *'Is that you, Tom?' he asked.*

*'Oh no!' he cried.*

\* Use **commas** where a quotation is a question or exclamation interrupted by the words used to explain the direct speech, those words are enclosed by commas. Then the question mark or exclamation mark is used at the end of the quotation before the quotation mark.

E.g. *'Do you think,' I asked, 'that it will rain later today?'*

\* Have the children think of the different times that we use **Apostrophes** in writing, to create an explanation of their use and then practise writing them. (Apostrophes show that letters are missed out or used after nouns and some pronouns, to show ownership.)

E.g. *can't, don't, I'm, he's, etc.*

*It's high time I went home.*

*Sally's cat ate my mouse.*

\* Practise correctly inserting **apostrophes** in sentences to show ownership.

E.g. *Timothy's brother lent me his bike.*

*I finished Ann's sentence.*

*Dad's car broke down on the way to work.*

*The boy's shoe was untied.*

*The seven boys' boots were all over the floor.*

*One needs to watch one's manners.*

*Another's feet belong to those shoes.*

\* Look at examples where two or more people share ownership of an item, then only the last person named has an **apostrophe**.

E.g. *John and Peter's lift was late.*

\* Compare with two or more people owning different things, then both names have an **apostrophe**.

E.g. *John's and Peter's lifts were late.*

\* Add **apostrophes** to names ending in s or z.

E.g. *Bill Williams' car* or *Bill Williams's car*

*Mrs. Sanchez's children*

\* Add **apostrophes** to names ending in s, ch, or z, form the plural first; then immediately use the apostrophe. (N.B. To show the plural of a name that ends with a ch, s, or z sound, add es. If a name ends in ch, but is pronounced with a hard k sound, its plural will require s, rather than es.)

E.g. *the Williamses' car*

*the Birches' house*

*the Sanchezes' children*

\* Possessive pronouns do not have **apostrophes**.

E.g. *his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs, etc.*

Have the child use these possessive pronouns correctly in their own sentences.

\* Add **apostrophes** to show the plurals of numbers and letters.

E.g. *There were eleven e's in the sentence.*

*Four 4's are sixteen.*

*Mind your p's and q's.*

\* Have the children identify **Semicolons** (;) in sentences and discuss how they are used. (They are mostly used between two connected or balanced ideas in a sentence.) Compare their use with a full stop and difference it makes to the meaning. (They are often used to link two independent clauses in a single sentence. Semicolons can often be replaced by a full stop, but doing so does not show the link between the two parts.)

E.g. *I do like swimming; it is such fun.*

*Don't pat the dog; he could bite you.*

*I like cows; however, I hate the way they smell.*

*I hate braggers; nevertheless, he deserves the award.*

*First we had lunch; then we went to the movies.*

*Whatever people choose to eat, they are allowed to make their own decisions; as a result, many people swear by their own choices.*

(Semicolons should not be used to join a principal clause to a clause or phrase.

E.g. *He gave me the sandwich, which I had brought.)*

\* See that **semicolons** can be used to separate groups of things in a list.

E.g. *I like cows: they give us milk, which tastes good; they give us meat, which also tastes good; and they give us leather, which is used for shoes and bags.*

*I saw the film about wildlife in America; the one with the giant redwood trees in it; and it also showed alligators hiding in the swamps.*

\* Look at the ends of lines of songs and poetry to see how **semicolons** are also used. Discuss why semicolons may be used in this way.

E.g. *One, two,*

*Buckle my shoe;*

*Three, four,*

*Knock at the door;*

*Five, six,*

*Pick up sticks.*

\* Identify and label **Colons** (:) included in text. Discuss the ways we see them used. (Colons are used to introduce more information which can be a list, words, phrase, clauses or a quotation but not when the listed items are incorporated into the flow of a sentence.)

E.g. *The bookshop specialises in three subjects: art, architecture, and graphic design.*

*The bookshop specialises in art, architecture, and graphic design.*

*Buy these things: bread, milk, margarine and chocolate.*

*The sign read: 'Mum is always right.'*

\* **Colons** may be used instead of semicolons between independent clauses when the second sentence explains, illustrates, paraphrases, or expands on the first sentence.

E.g. *He got what he worked for: he really earned that promotion.*

*I have very little time to learn French: my new job starts in just five weeks.*

*All three of their children are teachers: Julie teaches Primary, Peter swimming and Mark is a High School maths teacher.*

*After three weeks of deliberation the jury finally reach a verdict: guilty.*

\* Have the children insert **colons** and **semicolons** at indicated points in sentences and justify their choice between the two. *Is the section of the text after the colon expanding on the part before the colon?*

\* Explain that multiple sentences listed after a **colon** need to each start with a capital letter before having the children insert the capitals in a passage.

E.g. *He made three points: First, the company was losing over a million dollars each month. Second, the stock price was lower than it had ever been. Third, no banks were willing to loan the company more money.*

\* Demonstrate and practise using **colons** to show time separating hours from minutes, with no space before or after the colon; for ratios; in references; and in correspondence.

E.g. *11:48 a.m.*

*1:4 (Read as 1 to 4)*

*Genesis 5:4 (Read as 5, 4 or chapter 5 verse 4.)*

*cc: Tom Smith*

*Attention: Accounts Payable*

*PS: Don't forget your sleeping bag*

\* Identify and label **Brackets** used in sentences. Brackets (parentheses) are used in pairs and enclose extra information in the form of examples, comments or explanations.

\* Use long **Em Dashes** (which are longer than hyphens) to replace parentheses at the end of a sentence or when multiple commas appear in a parenthetical phrase.

E.g. *After a split second of hesitation, the second baseman leaped for the ball (or, rather, limped for it).*

*After a split second of hesitation, the second baseman leaped for the ball—or, rather, limped for it.*

*He is afraid of only two things — spiders and dancing.*

\* Use **em dashes** in pairs to mark off information or ideas that are not essential to an understanding of the rest of the sentence.

E.g. *Thousands of children – like those in this photograph – have been left*



*without a home.*

\* Use **En Dashes** (dashes longer than hyphens but shorter than *em dashes*) to indicate spans of time or ranges of numbers, meaning either “to” or “through”.

E.g. *Read pages 102-103 for homework tonight.*

*The service man will be call between 1-2pm.*

*The 2015-2016 swimming season was our best for years.*

\* Use **Hyphens** (which are shorter than dashes) to sensibly split words at the end of a line that won’t fit on that line.

E.g. *hel-met* not *he-lmet*, *dis-abled* not *disa-bled*.

\* Use **hyphens** to write numbers between *twenty-one* and *ninety-nine*.

\* Use **hyphens** to separate a prefix from a name or date.

E.g. *post-Aristotelian* or *pre-1900*.

\* Use **hyphens** to avoid confusion with another word: for example, to distinguish *re-cover* (provide something with a new cover) from *recover* (get well again). Have the children brainstorm other examples to create a class list. Use theses in individual written sentences.

\* Use **hyphens** to join a prefix to another word, especially if the prefix ends in a vowel and the other word also begins with one such as in *pre-eminent* or *co-own*, although one-word forms are becoming more usual such as *prearrange* or *cooperate*. Use dictionaries to check whether the words are hyphenated or not.

\* Identify the use of three “full stops” in a row as an **Ellipsis**, which is a grammatical symbol to show that some word or words have been left out. Make a distinction between an *Ellipsis* and an *Ellipse*. Discuss where we have seen *Ellipsis* used in writing. Discuss its various uses especially for dramatic effect. *Why would we indicate we are leaving something out in a text? Why is it better sometimes to imagine the next thing to happen rather than have it immediately described?* Look for other examples of the use of *Ellipsis* in stories.

## 9) Investigate how quoted (direct) and reported (indirect) speech work in different types of text.

\* Identify **Direct speech**, the words that someone actually says, and how they are indicated by being written between single or double **quotation marks**.

E.g. *The cat said, ‘Meow.’*

Practise writing single and double quotation marks around samples of direct speech.

\* Have the children identify **Reported speech** in texts and how it is different to **Direct speech**. Compare two sentences one written in direct speech and the other in reported speech to identify the changes between the two. i.e. In reported speech the tenses, word-order and pronouns may be different from those in the original sentence.

E.g. *"I travel a lot in my job," said John.*

*He said that he travelled a lot in his job.*

The present simple tense (*I travel*) usually changes to the past simple tense (*he travelled*) in reported speech.

*"Be quiet. The baby's sleeping."*

*She told me to be quiet because the baby was sleeping.*

The present continuous tense usually changes to the past continuous tense.

\* Have the children identify sentences written as reported speech and those written as direct speech, adding the **quotation marks**.

\* Use **quotation marks** to show breaks in direct speech.

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

\* Use **single quotation marks** to enclose those words already quoted inside double quotation marks in a piece of writing already.

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

\* Enclose the titles of poems, books and other special names in **quotation marks** when they are used in writing.

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

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

#### 10) Use apostrophes for contractions.

Revise how **Apostrophes** are used in to show ownership or that letters are missed out.

E.g. *can't, don't, I'm, he's, etc.*

*It's high time I went home.*

Identify why we use the abbreviated words and the danger of losing the meaning of a sentence if too many are used in the one passage.

\* Have the class brainstorm a list of commonly abbreviated words using **apostrophes**.

E.g. Using *not* – is not, has not, did not, would not, cannot, should not, will not, shall not, must not, have not, could not, was not, were not.

*Isn't, hasn't, hadn't, didn't, wouldn't, can't, shouldn't, won't, shan't, mustn't, haven't, couldn't, wasn't, weren't.*

Using *is* - she is, there is, he is, who is, it is.

*she's, there's, he's, who's, it's.*

Using *am* - I am, I'm.

Using <i>will</i> -	I will, you will, she will, we will, they will. <i>I'll, you'll, she'll, we'll, they'll.</i>
Using <i>would</i> -	I would, you would, he would, we would, they would. <i>I'd, you'd, he'd, we'd, they'd.</i>
Using <i>have</i> -	I have, you have, we have, they have. <i>I've, you've, we've, they've.</i>
Using <i>are</i> -	you are, they are, we are. <i>you're, they're, we're.</i>

Have the children use a number of these words in sentences.

\* Discuss when and why we could use abbreviations in our writing.

E.g. To make your writing seem friendly and accessible, giving the appearance that you are actually "talking" to your reader.

When writing dialogue in a novel or play, it can help reflect how a character actually speaks.

Contractions help to save space when preparing advertisements, slogans, and other written works that must be short and to the point.

\* Look at examples when **apostrophes** shouldn't be used.

E.g. In formal communication such as academic research papers, business presentations, and other types of official correspondence.

For plurals.

In *it's* when it doesn't mean *it is*. (*Its shape was different.*)

*They're* is a contraction for *they are*. (*They're happy to see me.*)

With shortened forms of names *CDs* for *compact disks* not *CD's*.

Indicating decades as in the *1870s* rather than the *1870's*.

For plural forms of acronyms or for decades such as *URLs* or *1950s*.

\* Look at when not to use **contractions** in writing.

Contractions used after nouns, names, *here*, *there* and *now* and question words are **not considered appropriate in formal writing**.

E.g. *My sister's got married.* = *My sister has got married.*

Don't use more than **one contraction at a time**.

E.g. *He's not free.* Not: *he'sn't free.*

We don't use affirmative contractions at the end of clauses.

E.g. A: *I think we're lost.*

B: Yes, *I think we are.* Not: *I think we're*

\* Identify how to use an apostrophe when using names ending in 's', 'z' or 'ch'.

11) Identify a variety of connectives in texts to indicate time, to add information and to clarify understanding.

\* Have the children identify and define the role of **co-ordinating conjunctions** to link one word and another, phrases, clauses or sentences. Note that the individual words, phrases, and *independent clauses* must be of equal importance. Have the class brainstorm the list of seven *co-ordinating conjunctions* - *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*. Have the children in pairs decide their own acronym to remember the list before introduce the acronym FANBOYS - *for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*.

\* Have the children use each of these co-ordinating conjunctions in their own sentences before sharing some of them with the rest of the class.

\* Look at **subordinating conjunctions** – 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.*  
*If the only tool you have is a hammer, you tend to see every problem as a nail.*

See that a dependent clause at the beginning of a sentence is *introductory*, and like most bits of introductory material, it is usually followed by comma. A *dependent clause* following the main (independent) clause is usually not punctuated.

E.g. *The gods thundered in the heavens as mortals below cowered in fear.*  
*The bank robber dodged the bullet while Joey was shot seventeen times in the tibia*

\* Use common *subordinate conjunctions* in sentences. – *if, after, before, though, whenever, although, once, unless, where, as, since, until, wherever, because, than, when*.

\* Extend the students' use connectives by employing text connectives to **indicate time** to recount an incident such as a car accident, a rescue event or a movie story. Use connectives such as: *then, next, afterwards, at the same time, before that, in the end, finally, soon, after a while, at this point, meanwhile, at that moment, later, previously, earlier*.

\* Use text connectives to **add information** to a written request to council or a letter to the editor of a paper employing connectives such as: *too, in addition, indeed, apart from, also, furthermore, on top of which, and besides, above all, along with, what's more, again, let alone, as well as, likewise, moreover, similarly, equally*.

\* Use text connectives to **clarify understanding** when giving examples of how a process such as the water cycle or a machine like a car works. Use connectives such as: *to be precise, for example, therefore, as a result*,

*consequently, due to, because of, namely, in particular, for instance, in other words, that is, in fact.*

## 12) Learn ways to express opinion using modal verbs and adverbs.

\* Look at how verbs can express the urgency or certainty of an action i.e. their *Modality*. As a class group think of verbs that express urgency, intensity, confidence or probability.

E.g. *has to, have to, must, ought to, shall, will, can, need to, should, would, could, may, might.*

\* As a class try to change the verbs in sentence to increase or decrease the urgency of an action. Have students try to change the mode of verbs in sentences.

E.g. *I probably should go to the toilet. I would like to go to the toilet. I must go to the toilet.*

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

\* Present a series of *modal verbs* on individual cards that express opinion and have the children in pairs, rank the modality of these verbs along a sloped line from least powerful to most powerful. As a class compare and discuss the ranking of the *modal verbs*. Have the children justify why they might position one verb above another. *Why would you use that particular verb in a sentence?*

\* Place individual *modal verb* cards in order from most certain to least certain on a thermometer outline.

\* In pairs have students take turns to complete sentence beginnings in creative ways using *modal verbs*, scoring points for each one completed. Share your best sentence with the class.

E.g. *I must .....*

*A car needs to .....*

*An elephant is .....*

\* In two teams write rules for your classroom using *modal verbs* or rules for the school. The team with the longest modal rules, wins.

E.g. *Children **should walk** to lines.*

*Children **must listen** to the teacher.*

*Students **have to sit** to eat food.*

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

\* Use modal adverbs to change the urgency or frequency of actions.



E.g. *I usually/mostly/occasionally clean my teeth after breakfast.*  
*I excessively/willingly/carefully/sparingly spend money on clothes.*  
*Storms devastatingly/lightly/mildly affect us here.*

13) Use grammatical features to create complex sentences when composing texts.

\* Look at anonymous samples of students' writing and compare to extracts of effective illustrative texts of the same genre to look at how different sentences are constructed.

\* In narratives write a description as an action. Put the character in a setting and have them then do something relevant to the story.

E.g. Instead of: *One rainy day I went to the mall.*

Try: *I splashed across the parking lot, yanked open the door and dripping wet, stepped into the hall.*

\* Use action verbs, adverbs and strings of adjectives (usually in the order of *word*→*size*→*age*→*shape*→*colour*→*nationality*→*material*) to build up descriptions.

\* Add adjectival phrases.

E.g. *The boy with the cheeky grin was the culprit.*

\* Use adverbial phrases asking answering questions like *how*, *when*, *where* or *why*.

E.g. *We ran across the playground with great abandon after our soccer win.*

\* Use participle phrases and clauses.

E.g. *wearing a hat*  
*broken by the wind*

\* Use strong verbs.

E.g. *The man kicked open the door.*  
*The cat stalked the bird.*  
*The lion sprang on its prey.*  
*The car sped around the corner.*

\* Use verb phrases in sentences.

E.g. *She was walking quickly to the hall.*  
*As the cat watched, the two puppies fought over a bone.*  
*The small dog was reluctant to learn new things.*  
*When he arrives, we can try to build a fort.*

\* Use similes to build descriptions.

E.g. *roads reached out like amputated tentacles...*

- \* Join short sentences together using different types of conjunctions.  
E.g. A. *The rosella was feeding in the tree. It was attacked by another bird. It flew away.*  
B. *Attacked by another bird as it fed in the tree, the Rosella flew away.*
- \* Join clauses together to make more complex sentences.
- \* Use noun groups in sentences.  
E.g. *The dry, windswept, desert region has an extremely low level of rainfall.*
- \* Replace single nouns with noun phrases.  
E.g. *that dog, Aunt Audrey's dog, the dog on the sofa, the neighbour's dog that chases our cat, the dog digging in the new flower bed.*
- \* Replace predictable transition words and phrases such as *all of a sudden, the next thing I knew, next or then*, with more interesting words. Use transition words to show *addition*, to **summarize or conclude, time, distance, place, direction or relationship**.
- \* Add some direct speech to stories.

From - <https://www.slideshare.net/mungo13/writing-narratives>  
Noun group definition and meaning | Collins English Dictionary

**(The following items are not covered in this outline.)**

- 14) Learn extended and technical vocabulary.
- 15) Experiment with vocabulary choices to engage listeners and readers.
- 16) Incorporate new vocabulary from a range of sources into student's own texts including vocabulary encountered in research.

## DEFINITIONS and EXAMPLES:

**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 of manner are usually formed from **adjectives** by adding **-ly**.

E.g. bad > **badly**; quiet > **quietly**; sudden > **suddenly**

However, there are sometimes changes in spelling.

E.g. easy > **easily**; gentle > **gently**

If an adjective ends in **-ly** we use the phrase **in a .... way** to express manner.

E.g. Silly > He behaved **in a silly way**.

Friendly > She spoke **in a friendly way**.

A few adverbs of manner have the **same** form as the **adjective**:

E.g. *They all worked **hard**.*

*She usually arrives **late**.*

*I hate driving **fast**.*

Note: **hardly** and **lately** have different meanings:

*He could **hardly** walk. = It was **difficult** for him to walk.*

*I haven't seen John **lately**. = I haven't seen John **recently**.*

We often use phrases with **like** as adverbials of *manner*.

E.g. *She slept **like** a baby.*

*He ran **like** a rabbit.*

### **Adverbs of manner and link verbs**

We very often use **adverbials** with **like** after link verbs:

E.g. *Her hands felt **like** ice.*

*It smells **like** fresh bread.*

But we do **not** use other adverbials of manner after link verbs. We use **adjectives** instead.

E.g. *They looked ~~happily~~ **happy**.*

*That bread smells ~~deliciously~~ **delicious**.*

From - <https://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/en/english-grammar/adverbs-manner>

### Adverbs of degree

Adverbs of degree are those which answer to the question, how much? how little? or to the idea of more or less.

**Of excess or abundance:** *as, much, more, most, too, very, greatly, far, besides; chiefly, principally, mainly, mostly, generally; entirely, full, fully, completely, perfectly, wholly, totally, altogether, all, quite, clear, stark; exceedingly, excessively, extravagantly, intolerably; immeasurably, inconceivably, infinitely.*

**Of equality or sufficiency:** *as, enough, sufficiently, competently, adequately, proportionally, equally, so, as, even, just, exactly, precisely.*

**Of deficiency or abatement:** *as, little, less, least, scarcely, hardly, scantily, scantily merely, barely, only, but, partly, partially, nearly, almost, well-nigh, not quite.*

**Of quantity in the abstract:** *as, how, however, howsoever, ever so, something, anything, nothing, a groat, a sixpence, and other nouns of quantity used adverbially.*

From - [https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/English\\_in\\_Use/Adverbs](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/English_in_Use/Adverbs)

### 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.*

*"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/>

**Adverb Groups** – An adverb group or adverbial group is a group of words based on an adverb, such as 'very slowly' or 'fortunately for us'. An adverb group can also consist simply of an adverb.

From - <https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/adverb-group>

**Adverb Phrases** – Most adverbial phrases are *prepositional phrases* functioning as an adverb, modifying a verb, an adverb or an adjective. A *prepositional phrase* starts with a preposition and ends with a pronoun, noun or noun phrase.

From - <https://www.usingenglish.com>

**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*.

Students should be able to choose and identify effective adjectives which add detail to the characters, mood, setting and imagery in what they read and write. They develop these skills by learning about adjectives and learning to use

adjectives in contextual activities. Effective adjectives build imagery in writing and play an important part in descriptive devices.

E.g. *The lonely city was lit by dull grey streetlights dotted randomly along the icy gutters.*

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:

#### **Possessive adjectives**

E.g. *my, his, her my, your, its, our, their*

These adjectives tell you who has, owns, or has experienced something, as in "I admired *her* candour," "Our cat is 14 years old," and "They said *their* trip was wonderful."

#### **Numbering adjectives**

E.g. *two, many, lots of, five, ten, one, first, last, few, some*

#### **Describing adjectives**

E.g. *big, old, yellow, beautiful* (includes factual adjectives such as *colour, size, shape, age, abstract or technical* and *classifying* adjectives;

#### **Comparing/superlative adjectives**

E.g. *more delicate, best, bigger.*

**Predicate adjectives** act as a complement to linking verbs or the verb *to be*. A linking verb is a verb like *to feel, to seem, or to taste* that describes a state of being or a sensory experience. Most adjectives can be used as predicate adjectives, although some are always used before a noun. Similarly, a few adjectives can only be used as predicate adjectives and are never used before a noun.

E.g. *That cow sure is **happy**.*

*It smells **gross** in the locker room.*

*Driving is **faster** than walking.*

#### **Adjectives in noun groups with a relative pronoun.**

This type of noun group is embedded in a sentence.



E.g. *who* (for the subject), *whom* (used for the object), *that*, *whose* and *which*.  
*Her dress, which was old and tattered, has been mended.*  
*The book, that was the most exciting, was read by every child in the class.*  
*The boy, who was tired and dirty, returned to an empty house.*  
*The girl, for whom singing was so difficult and embarrassing, managed to finish the song.*

N.B. Long lists of adjectives, rather than a cluster of words, should be discouraged as they are rarely effective except in specific contexts such as intentional exaggeration for humorous effects.

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

### Degrees of Comparison

Adjectives come in three forms: *absolute*, *comparative*, and *superlative*.

**Absolute adjectives** describe something in its own right.

E.g. **A cool guy**  
**A messy desk**  
**A mischievous cat**  
**Garrulous squirrels**

**Comparative adjectives**, unsurprisingly, make a comparison between two or more things. For most one-syllable adjectives, the comparative is formed by adding the suffix *-er* (or just *-r* if the adjective already ends with an *e*). For two-syllable adjectives ending in *-y*, replace *-y* with *-ier*. For multi-syllable adjectives, add the word *more*.

E.g. **A cooler guy**  
**A messier desk**  
**A more mischievous cat**  
**More garrulous squirrels**

**Superlative adjectives** indicate that something has the highest degree of the quality in question. One-syllable adjectives become superlatives by adding the suffix *-est* (or just *-st* for adjectives that already end in *e*). Two-syllable adjectives ending in *-y* replace *-y* with *-iest*. Multi-syllable adjectives add the word *most*. When you use an article with a superlative adjective, it will almost always be the definite article (*the*) rather than *a* or *an*. Using a superlative inherently indicates that you are talking about a specific item or items.

E.g. **The coolest guy**  
**The messiest desk**

*The **most mischievous** cat*  
*The **most garrulous** squirrels*

**Coordinate adjectives** should be separated by a comma or the word *and*. Adjectives are said to be coordinate if they modify the same noun in a sentence.

E.g. *This is going to be a **long, cold** winter.*  
*Isobel's **dedicated** and **tireless** efforts made all the difference.*

But just the fact that two adjectives appear next to each other doesn't automatically mean they are coordinate. Sometimes, an adjective and a noun form a single semantic unit, which is then modified by another adjective. In this case, the adjectives are not coordinate and should not be separated by a comma.

E.g. *My cat, Goober, loves sleeping on this **tattered woollen** sweater.*  
*No one could open the **old silver** locket.*

In some cases, it's pretty hard to decide whether two adjectives are coordinate or not. But there are a couple of ways you can test them. Try inserting the word *and* between the adjectives to see if the phrase still seems natural. In the first sentence, "this **tattered and woollen** sweater" doesn't sound right because you really aren't talking about a sweater that is both **tattered** and **woollen**. It's a **woollen sweater** that is **tattered**. **Woollen sweater** forms a unit of meaning that is modified by **tattered**.

Another way to test for coordinate adjectives is to try switching the order of the adjectives and seeing if the phrase still works. In the second sentence, you wouldn't say "No one could open the silver old locket." You can't reverse the order of the adjectives because **silver locket** is a unit that is modified by **old**.

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

**Demonstrative adjectives** —*this, that, these, and those*— are used to distinguish the person or thing being described from others of the same category or class. *This* and *these* describe people or things that are nearby, or in the present. *That* and *those* are used to describe people or things that are not here, not nearby, or in the past or future. These adjectives always come before any other adjectives that modify a noun.

**Indefinite adjectives** describe a whole group or class of people or things, or a person or thing that is not identified or familiar. The most common indefinite adjectives are: *all, another, any, both, each, either, enough, every, few, half, least, less, little, many, more, most, much, neither, one* (and *two, three, etc.*), *other, several, some, such, whole*.

**Interrogative adjectives** such as *which*, *what*, and *whose*, are used to begin questions. They can also be used as *interrogative pronouns*.

E.g. *Which* horse did you bet on? = *Which* did you bet on?

*What* songs did they sing? = *What* did they sing?

*Whose* coat is this? = *Whose* is this?

**Attributive nouns** are nouns that function like adjectives.

**Participles** are often used like ordinary adjectives. They may come before a noun or after a *linking verb*. A *present participle* (an -*ing* word) describes the person or thing that causes something; for example, a *boring* conversation is one that bores you. A *past participle* (usually an -*ed* word) describes the person or thing who has been affected by something; for example, a *bored* person is one who has been affected by boredom.

E.g. *They had just watched an exciting soccer game.*

*The instructions were confusing.*

*She's excited about the trip to North Africa.*

*Several confused students were asking questions about the test.*

*The lake was frozen.*

From - <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/adjective>

**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.”

**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 of equal rank. They are used to give equal emphasis to each of the linked items. 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 *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 – *if, after, before, though, whenever, although, once, unless, where, as, since, until, wherever, because, than, when*.

A dependent clause at the beginning of a sentence is *introductory*, and like most bits of introductory material, it is usually followed by comma. A *dependent clause* following the main (independent) clause is usually not punctuated.

Examples Using Introductory Clauses:

E.g. *While the gods thundered in the heavens, the mortals below cowered in fear.*

*As the bank robber dodged the bullet, Joey was shot seventeen times in the tibia.*

*Though Susan appreciated the flowers, a Corvette would be a finer gift.*

No punctuation is necessary for the *dependent clause* following the main clause:

E.g. *The gods thundered in the heavens as mortals below cowered in fear.*

*The bank robber dodged the bullet while Joey was shot seventeen times in the tibia.*

*Susan appreciated the flowers even though a Corvette would be a finer gift.*

**Note 1.** By placing a subordinate conjunction in front of any independent clause, the writer transforms a perfectly good sentence into a fragment! Be careful, and use your conjunctions wisely. In the sentence fragments below, the clauses are dependent. To fix the problem, the grammarian must either connect them to another clause or delete the subordinate conjunction (in bold).



Sentence fragments caused by subordinate conjunctions:

E.g. **As** mortals cowered in fear.

**While** Joey was shot seventeen times in the tibia.

**Although** a Corvette would be a finer gift.

**Note 2.** *Conjunctive adverbs* are sometimes used as simple adverbs. If they do not connect independent clauses, they are not conjunctive adverbs. Then, they are merely adverbs modifying a verb, adjective, or another adverb. For instance, in the sentences below, the words *accordingly*, *still*, and *instead* are adverbs. When functioning this way, the adverb needs no punctuation to separate it from the surrounding material.

E.g. *I knew the test would be hard, so I planned **accordingly** to study for several hours.*

*I was **still** studying at six o'clock in the evening!*

*Joey decided to go to a party **instead**.*

In these examples above, there is no comma needed before the words *accordingly*, *still*, and *instead*. That's because they are acting like adverbs, modifying verbs like *planned* and *was studying*, and *decided*.

The tricky part is that these same adverbs can also transform into *conjunctive adverbs*. *Conjunctive adverbs* can be used with a comma to introduce a new independent clause, or they can help connect two independent clauses together after a semicolon. Typically, each *conjunctive adverb* is followed by a comma.

E.g. *Joey had an upset stomach. Accordingly, he took antacid tablets.*

*Joey had an upset stomach; accordingly, he took antacid tablets.*



*The antacids must not have worked. Otherwise, he would quit complaining.*

*The antacids must not have worked; otherwise, he would quit complaining.*

*The antacids didn't work for Jill either. Instead, they made her feel even sicker.*

*The antacids didn't work for Jill either; instead, they made her feel even sicker.*

Here, the *conjunctive adverb* helps connect the ideas of the two sentences together. Note also that after a semicolon, the word beginning the next independent clauses needs no capitalization.

From - [https://web.cn.edu/kwheeler/grammar\\_subordinate.html](https://web.cn.edu/kwheeler/grammar_subordinate.html)

**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*

**CONNECTIVES** - are words or phrases that link clauses or sentences.

Connectives can be *conjunctions* (E.g. *but, when, because*) or connecting adverbs (E.g. *however, then, therefore*). Commas are often used to mark off connecting adverbs or adverbial phrases or clauses:

E.g. *First of all, I want to say . . .*

*I didn't think much of the film. Helen, on the other hand, enjoyed it.*

Connecting adverbs and conjunctions function differently. Conjunctions (like *but* and *although*) join clauses within a sentence. Connecting adverbs (like *however*) connect ideas but the clauses remain separate sentences:

E.g. *I was angry but I didn't say anything.* (*but* is a conjunction - one sentence)

*Although I was angry, I didn't say anything.* (*although* is a conjunction -



one sentence)

*I was angry. However, I didn't say anything.* (however is an adverb - two sentences)

From <http://www.primarycurriculum.me.uk/protocol/connectives-conjunctions>

Connecting adverbs (and adverbial phrases and clauses) maintain the cohesion of a text in several basic ways, including:

**addition:** *also, furthermore, moreover*

**opposition:** *however, nevertheless, on the other hand*

**reinforcing:** *besides, anyway, after all*

**explaining:** *for example, in other words, that is to say*

**listing:** *first(ly), first of all, finally*

**indicating result:** *therefore, consequently, as a result*

**indicating time:** *just then, meanwhile, later*

Commas are often used to mark off connecting adverbs or adverbial phrases or clauses:

E.g. *First of all, I want to say ...*

*I didn't think much of the film. Helen, on the other hand, enjoyed it.*

For lists of text connectives see:

<https://hildroadss.eq.edu.au/Supportandresources/Formsanddocuments/Documents/Parent%20Information/What%20are%20text%20connectives.pdf>

**CONTRACTIONS** - a contraction is two words made shorter by placing an apostrophe where letters have been omitted.

Examples of common contractions in the English language include:

*I'm: I am*

*Can't: can not*

*We've: we have*

*Should've: should have*

*Could've: could have*

*She'll: she will*

*He's: he is*

*They'd: they would*

*Won't: will not*

*Weren't: were not*

*Wasn't: was not*

*Wouldn't: would not*

*Shouldn't: should not*

*Isn't: is not*

While contractions can be very useful in written English, many experts caution against the use of contractions in formal communication. Since contractions tend to add a light and informal tone to your writing, they are often inappropriate for academic research papers, business presentations, and other types of official correspondence. However, this rule does have some flexibility.

Contractions aren't technically necessary in written English. Using the full version of a word is always grammatically correct. However, there are a number of reasons why contractions do serve a valuable stylistic purpose.

E.g. Contractions can make your writing seem friendly and accessible. They give the appearance that you are actually "talking" to your reader.

When writing dialogue in a novel or play, contractions help reflect how a character actually speaks.

Contractions help to save space when preparing advertisements, slogans, and other written works that must be short and to the point.

*It's* and *its*, are often confused words. *It's* is a contraction for *it is* or *it has*.

E.g. *I think it's going to snow on Monday.*

*It's been a long time since I last saw Ben.*

*It's a small world after all.*

### **Its and It's**

*Its* is a possessive pronoun. *Its* modifies a noun and is used to show ownership.

E.g. *The bear carried its cub in its mouth.*

*Nothing can take its place.*

*The cat licked with its tongue.*

To determine if you should use *it's* or *its* in your sentence, simply try replacing the word with *it is* or *it has*. If the sentence makes sense, *it's* is appropriate. If not, use *its*.

### **They're, Their and There**

*They're*, *their* and *there* are also quite commonly confused words among students who are learning about contractions.

*They're* is a contraction for *they are*.

E.g. *They're happy to see me.*

*I think they're very nice boys.*

*In my opinion, they're a fine group of athletes.*

*Their* is a possessive pronoun. It is used when you want to show that something belongs to someone:

E.g. *Their new home is in Wollongong.*

*Their address is 51 Stuart Street.*

*What is their phone number?*

*There* is used to mean that something is at or in a particular place.

E.g. *There is a present on the table.*

*There are green beans on my plate, but I asked for broccoli.*

*Look over there to see the ocean.*

## End of Sentence Contractions

Contractions can be used in any position in a sentence; however, homophone contractions such as "it's" and "they're" sound better when followed by another word or phrase. The reason is that the sounds of "its" and "it's" and "they're" and "they are" are so similar that they can be confusing unless they are used with the context of an additional word.

E.g. Incorrect: "It is what it's."

Correct: "It is what it is looking like."

Correct: "It is what it is."

Incorrect: "You said they didn't want to go, well, they're."

Correct: ""You said they didn't want to go, well, they're going."

Correct: "You said they didn't want to go, well, they are."

From – [www.grammar.yourdictionary](http://www.grammar.yourdictionary).

## Contractions with *I, you, he, she, it, we, and they*

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*'m = am (I'm)*

*'re = are (you're, we're, they're)*

*'s = is and has (he's, she's, it's)*

*'ve = have ('ve, you've, we've, they've)*

*'ll = will (I'll, you'll, he'll, she'll, it'll, we'll, they'll)*

*'d = had and would (I'd, you'd, he'd, she'd, it'd, we'd, they'd)*

## Contractions with auxiliary verb and *not*

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The contraction for *not* is *n't*.

E.g. *aren't – are not (we aren't, you aren't, they aren't)*

*can't – cannot*

*couldn't – could not*

*didn't – did not (I didn't, they didn't, we didn't)*

*hasn't – has not*

*haven't – have not*

*isn't – is not (she isn't, it isn't)*

*mustn't – must not*

*shan't – shall not*

*shouldn't – should not*

*wasn't – was not*

*weren't – were not*

*won't – will not*

*wouldn't – would not*

## Contractions with *be + negative* are used in two ways,

*She is not* is contracted to *she isn't* or *she's not*.

*I am not* is only contracted to *I'm not*. Not: *I'm n't* or *I am n't*.

*They are not* is contracted to *they aren't* or *they're not*.

The *isn't* and *aren't* contractions are more common after nouns.

The 's and 're not contractions are more common after pronouns.

E.g. *The cakes **aren't** ready yet.*

*She's **not** a friend of mine.*

### Other contractions

Contractions can occur after nouns, names, *here*, *there* and *now* and question words. These contractions are not considered appropriate in formal writing.

E.g. *My sister's got married.* = *My sister has got married.*

*John'll be very happy.* = *John will be very happy.*

*Here's the coffee.* = *Here is the coffee.*

*There's your watch.* = *There is your watch.*

*Now's your chance.* = *Now is your chance.*

*Where's the milk?* = *Where is the milk?*

*What's happened?* = *What is happened?*

### We don't use more than one contraction.

E.g. *He's not free.* Not: *he'sn't free.*

We don't use affirmative contractions at the end of clauses.

E.g. **A:** *I think we're lost.*

**B:** *Yes, I think we are.* Not: *I think we're*

However, we do use negative contractions at the end of clauses and we do commonly use contractions in tag questions.

E.g. **A:** *You've contacted Jan, haven't you?*

**B:** *No, I haven't.*

In question forms, *am not* is contracted to *aren't*.

E.g. *I'm getting a pay rise, aren't I?* Not: *amn't I?*

From - <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/grammar/british-grammar/writing/contractions>

### To show possession when a name ends in s or z.

To show singular possession of a name ending in s or z, some writers add just an apostrophe. Others also add another s

E.g. *Bill Williams' car* or *Bill Williams's car*

*Susan Sanchez's children*

### To show plural possession of a name ending in s, ch, or z

Form the plural first; then immediately use the apostrophe.

E.g. *the Williamses' car*

*the Birches' house*

*the Sanchezes' children*

From - <https://data.grammarbook.com>

**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*.

**Common Nouns** - are words used to name general items rather than specific ones. Go into your living room. What do you see? *Lamp, chair, couch, TV, windows, paintings, cushion, candles* – all of these items are named using common nouns. Common nouns are general names and unless they are part of a title like *Postmaster General* or begin a sentence, they're not usually capitalized.

From - <http://www.gingersoftware.com/content/grammarrules/nouns/common-noun/>

**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, Apple computer*.

**Collective Nouns** - are words used to represent a group of people, animals, or things.  
E.g. *flock, crowd, committee, team, choir, group, pack, gang, swarm, her, litter*.

From - [http://www.grammar-monster.com/glossary/collective\\_nouns.htm](http://www.grammar-monster.com/glossary/collective_nouns.htm)

**Abstract Nouns** – describe something that you cannot see, hear, touch, taste or smell. They refer to intangible things like actions, feelings, ideals, concepts and qualities.  
E.g. *beauty, bravery, brilliance, fear, evil, generosity, goodness, hatred, grace, love, worry, law, rules, truth*.

From - <http://examples.yourdictionary.com/examples-of-abstract-nouns.html>

**Compound Nouns** – are nouns made up of two or more words, usually formed by nouns modified by other nouns or adjectives. Sometimes the two words are joined together.

E.g. *toothpaste, whiteboard, bedroom, waterfall, undo, keyboard, runway, earring, downstairs, software*.

Sometimes they are joined using a hyphen.

E.g. *check-in, x-ray, take-off, dry-cleaning, passer-by*.

Stress is important in pronunciation, as it distinguishes between a compound noun and an adjective with a noun. In compound nouns, the stress usually falls on the first syllable.

E.g. *The **greenhouse** was built onto the side of the **green house**.*

Compound nouns can be formed by the following combinations of words:

Noun	+	Noun	toothpaste
Adjective	+	Noun	greenhouse
Verb	+	Noun	swimming pool
Preposition	+	Noun	underground
Noun	+	Verb	haircut
Noun	+	Preposition	hanger on
Adjective	+	Verb	dry-cleaning
Preposition	+	Verb	output

From - <https://www.learnenglish.de/grammar/nouncompound.html>  
and <https://www.ef-australia.com.au/english-resources/english-grammar/compound-nouns/>

**Noun Groups** - are a group of words relating to, or building on, a noun or pronoun. Noun groups usually consist of a pointer (*the, a, an, this, that, these, those, my, your, his, her, its, our, mum's, Mr Smith's*) plus one or more adjectives or adverbs. They are important language resources for building up descriptions and should be taught to be seen as a chunk of information rather than a listing of individual words.

In literary texts they develop creative expression, important for building the story world, characterisation and imagery. In factual texts, noun groups contain the 'content' across key learning areas.

E.g. In the sentence, 'He put the bottle of wine on the kitchen table', 'the bottle of wine', and 'the kitchen table' are both *noun groups* building on the pronoun 'He'.

*The dry, windswept, desert region has an extremely low level of rainfall.*

From - *Noun group definition and meaning | Collins English Dictionary*  
<https://education.nsw.gov.au/teaching-and-learning/student-assessment/smart-teaching-strategies/literacy/language-conventions/noun-groups>

**Noun Phrases** – are a word or group of words containing a noun or indefinite pronoun, and a modifier, which distinguishes it. A noun phrase stands in place of a noun. They function in a sentence as *subject, object, or prepositional object*. You can find the noun *dog* in a sentence, for example, but you don't know which canine the writer means until you consider the entire noun phrase: *that dog, Aunt Audrey's dog, the dog on the sofa, the neighbour's dog that chases our cat, the dog digging in the new flower bed*. Noun Phrases may be the most frequently occurring phrase type. They may also be embedded inside each other; for instance, the noun phrase 'some of his constituents' contains the shorter noun phrase 'his constituents'.

E.g. *The regions with low rainfalls are uninhabited.* ('With low rainfalls' is an adjectival phrase part of the noun group 'the regions with low rainfalls'.) the regions which have higher rainfalls are inhabited. ('which have higher rainfalls' is an adjectival clause).



From – <http://www.chompchomp.com/terms/nounphrase.htm>  
[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Noun\\_phrase](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Noun_phrase)

**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. Length and appearance do not determine whether a section in a paper is a paragraph. For instance, in some styles of writing, particularly journalistic styles, a paragraph can be just one sentence long. Ultimately, a paragraph is a sentence or group of sentences that support one main idea.

In writing a “paper” paragraphs need to be unified, related to a theme, coherent and well developed.

E.g. **Unified:** All of the sentences in a single paragraph should be related to a single controlling idea (often expressed in the topic sentence of the paragraph).

**Clearly related to the thesis:** The sentences should all refer to the central idea, or thesis, of the paper.

**Coherent:** The sentences should be arranged in a logical manner and should follow a definite plan for development.

**Well-developed:** Every idea discussed in the paragraph should be adequately explained and supported through evidence and details that work together to explain the paragraph’s controlling idea.

Some possible ways to organise your paragraphs are –

**Narrations:** Tell a story. Go chronologically, from start to finish.

**Descriptions:** Provide specific details about what something looks smells, tastes, sounds, or feels like. Organize spatially, in order of appearance, or by topic.

**Processes:** Explain how something works, step by step. Perhaps follow a sequence—first, second, third.

**Classifications:** Separate into groups or explain the various parts of a topic.

**Illustrations:** Give examples and explain how those examples prove your point.

From - <https://writingcenter.unc.edu/tips-and-tools/paragraphs/>

### Coherence

In a coherent paragraph, each sentence relates clearly to the topic sentence or controlling idea. Each sentence will also flow smoothly into the next without obvious shifts or jumps. A coherent paragraph also highlights the ties between old information and new information to make the structure of ideas or arguments clear to the reader.

If a paragraph is very long you should check to see if it should start a new paragraph where the original paragraph wanders from its controlling idea. Very short paragraphs (only one or two sentences, perhaps) may need to develop their controlling idea more thoroughly, or be combine with another paragraph.

Techniques that you can be used to establish coherence in paragraphs include. **Repeating key words or phrases.** Particularly in paragraphs in which you define or identify an important idea or theory, be consistent in how you refer to it. This consistency and repetition will bind the paragraph together and help your reader understand your definition or description.

**Create parallel structures** by constructing two or more phrases or sentences that have the same grammatical structure and use the same parts of speech. By creating parallel structures you make your sentences clearer and easier to read. In addition, repeating a pattern in a series of consecutive sentences helps your reader see the connections between ideas.

**Be consistent in point of view, verb tense, and number.** If you shift from the more personal "you" to the impersonal "one," from past to present tense, or from "a man" to "they," for example, you make your paragraph less coherent. Such inconsistencies can also confuse your reader and make your argument more difficult to follow.

### **Transition words and phrases**

**Use transition words or phrases between sentences and between paragraphs.** Transitional expressions emphasize the relationships between ideas, so they help readers follow your train of thought or see connections that they might otherwise miss or misunderstand.

#### **To show addition:**

*again, and, also, besides, equally important, first (second, etc.), further, furthermore, in addition, in the first place, moreover, next, too*

#### **To give examples:**

*for example, for instance, in fact, specifically, that is, to illustrate*

#### **To compare:**

*also, in the same manner, likewise, similarly*

#### **To contrast:**

*although, and yet, at the same time, but, despite, even though, however, in contrast, in spite of, nevertheless, on the contrary, on the other hand, still, though, yet*

#### **To summarize or conclude:**

*all in all, in conclusion, in other words, in short, in summary, on the whole, that is, therefore, to sum up*

#### **To show time:**

*after, afterward, as, as long as, as soon as, at last, before, during, earlier, finally, formerly, immediately, later, meanwhile, next, since, shortly, subsequently, then, thereafter, until, when, while*

**To show place or direction:**

*above, below, beyond, close, elsewhere, farther on, here, nearby, opposite, to the left (north, etc.)*

**To indicate logical relationship:**

*accordingly, as a result, because, consequently, for this reason, hence, if, otherwise, since, so, then, therefore, thus*

From - <https://wts.indiana.edu/writing-guides/paragraphs-and-topic-sentences.html>

**PREPOSITIONS** – *prepositions* are words that express a relationship between two other nearby words. It precedes a *noun* or *pronoun* to show that word's relationship to another word in a sentence.

E.g. *The book **about** the wizard ....*  
*The book **by** the wizard ....*  
*The book **near** the wizard ....*  
*The book **behind** the wizard ....*  
*The book **under** the wizard ....*

Here is a list of common prepositions:

*above, about, across, against, along, among, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, by, down, during, except, for, from, in, inside, into, like, near, of, off, on, since, to, toward, through, under, until, up, upon, with, within.*

From - <http://www.grammar-monster.com/lessons/prepositions.htm>

**Prepositional Phrases** – are groups of words that stand together as a concept, containing a *preposition* together with a noun or pronoun and indicate a relationship between various elements within a sentence. These phrases lack either a verb or a subject. Prepositional phrases as a minimum, always contain an object and a *preposition*. In formal English prepositions are almost always followed by objects, but adjectives can be inserted between them. Prepositional phrases can act as *adverbs* modifying verbs, other adverbs and adjectives or as *adjectives* modifying nouns and pronouns.

E.g. *The patty cake **with the colourful sprinkles** is mine. (adjectival)*  
*We climbed **up the hill**. (Adverbial, saying how we climbed.)*  
*A couple **with two children** were involved in the accident. (adjectival)*  
*The rabbits hopped **through the old wire fence**. (adverbial)*

From - <http://www.gingersoftware.com/content/grammar-rules/preposition/prepositional-phrases/>

The preposition works together with its object to form the prepositional phrase (prepositional phrase = preposition + object of the preposition).

E.g. *Paul walked to the primary school at the end of the block on Monday evening during a very heavy thunderstorm.*

**PRONOUNS** – words that are used in place of a noun. Typically, they allow noun meanings to be repeated without repetition of the noun itself. As a result, pronouns usually do not stand for a constant idea as nouns do, but change their meaning according to the noun they are with.

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

Pronouns have different forms according to how they are used in a sentence. 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*.

**Personal pronouns** - are used in place of the names of people, things, places and ideas. You might use one to refer to yourself or other specific people if you know whom you are talking about, or you might use one to refer to a particular object. Personal pronouns may take on various forms depending on number case, gender, or formality. It is important to note that personal pronouns may refer to objects, animals, or people.

Personal pronouns provide us with the following information:

The **person** – Who is speaking?

The **number** – Is the pronoun plural or singular?

The **gender** – Is the pronoun feminine, masculine, or neuter?

From - <http://www.gingersoftware.com/content/grammar-rules/personal-pronouns/>

There are also two groups of personal pronouns – subject pronouns and object pronouns. Which one you use depends on whether it is the subject or object in the sentence.

E.g. Subject pronouns include: **“I”, “he”, “she”, “we” and “they”**.

Object pronouns include: **“me”, “him”, “her”, “us” and “them”**.

Some pronouns, including **“you” and “it”** stay the same.

**Relative pronouns** - These are used to help relate two different clauses to another. It might be to introduce something, make a connection, or ask and answer a question.

Relative pronouns include: **“who”, “whom”, “whose”, “which” and “that”**.

One point to note is that **“whom”** is often only used in a formal sense – most of the time people will use **“who”** in a spoken or informal context.

E.g. *"This is the girl who I was talking to last night."*  
*"To whom is your question addressed?"*  
*"Whose books are these?"*  
*"I went to the local university, which has the biggest library here."*  
*"The bike that I use is getting old now."*

**Indefinite pronouns** - are used to refer to people or things without saying exactly who or what they are.

E.g. Singular: *another, anybody, anyone, anything, each, either, enough, everybody, everyone, everything, little, much, neither, nobody, no one, nothing, one, other, somebody, someone, something.*

Plural: *both, few, many, others.*

From - [grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/pronouns1.htm](http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/pronouns1.htm)

We use pronouns ending in **-body** or **-one** for people, and pronouns ending in **-thing** for things.

E.g. **Everybody** enjoyed the concert.  
*I opened the door but there was **no one** at home.*  
*It was a very clear day. We could see **everything**.*

A singular verb is used after an indefinite pronoun:

E.g. Everybody **loves** Sally.  
Everything **was** ready for the party.

When we refer back to an indefinite pronoun we normally use a plural pronoun:

E.g. **Everybody** enjoyed the concert.  
*I will tell **somebody** that dinner is ready.*  
***They** have been waiting a long time.*

We use indefinite pronouns with **no-** as the subject in negative clauses rather than pronouns with beginning with **any-**.

E.g. **Nobody** came. (Instead of **Anybody** didn't come.)

We do not use another negative in a clause with **nobody**, **no one** or **nothing**:

E.g. *Nobody came.*  
*Nothing happened.*

We use **else** after indefinite pronouns to refer to people or things **in addition to** the ones we already mentioned.

E.g. *All the family came, but no one **else**.*  
*If Michael can't come, we'll ask somebody **else**.*  
*So that's eggs, peas and chips. Do you want anything **else**?*

From - <https://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/en/english-grammar/indefinite-pronouns>

**Subjective (Nominative) Case Pronouns** – are used when it is the subject of the sentence.

E.g. *I hope to finish my homework tonight.*

*He is a clown.*

	Singular	Plural
	<u>Subjective Case</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>

**Objective Case Personal Pronouns** - The objective case is used when the personal pronoun is (1) the direct object of a verb, (2) an indirect object of a verb, or (3) the object of a preposition.

E.g. *The little boy hit **her** with a rock.* "Her" is the direct object of the verb hit.

*John gave **her** chocolate for Valentine's Day.* "Her" is the indirect object of the verb gave; "chocolate" is its direct object.

	Singular	Plural
	<u>Objective Case</u>	
First Person	<i>me</i>	<i>us</i>
Second Person	<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>
Third Person	<i>him, her, it</i>	<i>them</i>

N.B. When you write in the first person (I, we), don't confuse your reader by switching to the "second person" (you) or the third person (he, she, it, they, etc.). Similarly, when using second or third person, don't shift to a different point of view.

**Possessive Case Personal Pronouns** - show possession but they never use an apostrophe. It must agree with its antecedent.

E.g. *We rode in **her** car.* (The car is hers.)

*The girl washed **her** hands.*

*The girls washed **their** hands.*

*Each boy washed **his** hands.*

	Singular	Plural
	<u>Possessive Case</u>	
First Person	<i>my, mine</i>	<i>our, ours</i>
Second Person	<i>your, yours</i>	<i>your, yours</i>
Third Person	<i>his, hers, its</i>	<i>theirs</i>

"Between You and I" or "Between You and Me"?

The term *between **you** and **I*** is always wrong.

Why is *Between You and I* Wrong?

The word **between** is a preposition. A preposition sits before a noun or a pronoun to show its relationship to something else in the sentence. The noun or pronoun after a preposition is called the *object of the preposition*. The object of a



preposition is always in the objective case. The word "I" is in the subjective case. Therefore, it cannot be the object of a preposition.

**Predicate Nominative Pronouns** - are pronouns used in a *predicate* to identify or refer to the subject of a sentence. They complete a linking verb in a sentence and rename the subject, thereby identify or defining the subject. A pronoun used as a *predicate nominative*, generally follows a form of the verb *be* or a phrase ending in *be* or *been*.

E.g. *This is **he**.*

*Did you know that the painter was **she**?*

### **COMMON PRONOUN ERRORS**

There are five common pronoun errors.

1. Confusing **it** and **this**.
2. Using **this** with unclear meaning.
3. Using **which** with unclear meaning.
4. Using a pronoun for a faraway noun.
5. Breaking agreement rules.

#### **ERROR 1: CONFUSING *it* AND *this***

Sometimes we must repeat the meaning of an earlier noun with the pronoun **it** (or its plural **they/them**) and sometimes we must use **this** (or **these**) instead. The choice is mostly made according to where in the previous sentence the original noun occurs. The rule is basically that **it/they** repeats the subject of the previous sentence, while **this/these** repeats any other noun. Compare:

**(a) Many different factors influence people when they buy commodities. They can each be represented by a letter.**

**(b) People buying commodities are influenced by many different factors. These can each be represented by a letter.**

#### **ERROR 2: USING *this* WITH UNCLEAR MEANING**

Because **this** can stand for any part of a previous sentence except its subject, there is quite often a danger that the reader will see more than one possibility and be confused about which is the right one. Here is an example:

**Clearing forests reduces the total amount of rainfall in an area. This affects agriculture.**

The problem in this example is whether **this** stands for **rainfall** or **area** or all of **reduces the total amount of rainfall in an area**.

The advice when beginning any sentence with **this**, is to consider adding a following noun.

#### **ERROR 3: USING *which* WITH UNCLEAR MEANING**

**Which** (non-questioning) is one type of "relative" pronoun (others are **who**, **whom** and **that**). An unclear meaning is likely to occur when the relative pronoun does not refer to the last previous noun (or the entire statement containing it).

Consider this:

**Alloys are mixtures of elements which have metallic properties.**

Is it the ***mixtures*** or the ***elements*** that have metallic properties? This is an important question because different answers cause the set of possible alloys to be different. If the metallic properties need to belong only to ***mixtures***, then conceivably we could include non-metallic elements in an alloy, provided only that the result was metallic.

Although a reader with good scientific knowledge would extract the correct meaning, that ***which*** does indeed stand for ***mixtures*** rather than ***elements***, ordinary readers could not be expected to know that. For them, the sentence would be unclear. How can it be improved? One way – rather specific to this example – is to change ***alloys*** into the generalizing singular ***an alloy***:

**An alloy is a mixture of elements which has metallic properties.**

Beginning in this way necessitates the singular ***a mixture*** instead of ***mixtures***, leading to the verb after ***which*** becoming ***has*** instead of ***have***. Now the reader will know that the metallic properties belong to the mixture rather than the elements, since the plural word ***elements*** would require the verb ***have***. Another way to make the right meaning clear is to place ***mixtures*** immediately before ***which***, like this:

**Alloys are elements forming mixtures which have metallic properties.**

Changing the word order like this is more often the best strategy when you suspect that the meaning of ***which*** might not be clear.

#### ERROR 4: USING A PRONOUN FOR A FARAWAY NOUN

Sometimes the noun that we want a pronoun to represent is not in the sentence before, but in the one before that, or even further back. In these cases it is better to repeat the noun.

Similar to pronouns representing faraway nouns are pronouns at the start of a paragraph. New paragraphs create as much of a separation of ideas as distance does. The advice, then, is to avoid using pronouns in the first sentence of a paragraph.

#### ERROR 5: BREAKING AGREEMENT RULES

Some pronouns have different forms for different types of noun that they represent. The main pronoun variations are as follows:

##### SINGULAR vs PLURAL FORMS

*I* – *we*

*me* – *us*

*mine* – *ours*

*he/she/it* – *they*

*him/her/it* – *them-self* – *-selves*

*his/hers/its* – *theirs*

*this* – *these*

*that – those*  
*one – ones.*

### MALE vs FEMALE vs NON-HUMAN FORMS

*he – she – it*  
*him – her – it*  
*his – her(s) – its*  
*himself – herself – itself*

### SPEAKER vs NON-SPEAKER FORMS

*I – you/he/she/it/one*  
*we – you/they*  
*me – you/him/her/it*  
*us – you/them*  
*myself – yourself/himself/herself/itself*

It is especially easy to choose the wrong pronoun when the choice is between singular and plural. The commonest errors occur with ***it***, ***they*** and ***them***. Here is a typical error:

**It is important when using pronouns to put it into the correct form.**

The underlined pronoun, singular ***it***, should of course be the plural ***them*** because it stands for a plural noun ***pronouns***. The best advice for avoiding this error is to pause before writing ***it***, ***they*** or ***them***, and to look consciously for the noun it represents in order to check whether a singular or a plural form is needed.

From - <https://guinlist.wordpress.com/2012/06/13/28-pronoun-errors/>

**PUNCTUATION** is marks, such as full stop, comma, and brackets, used in writing to separate sentences and their elements and to clarify meaning.

**Apostrophes** – are the punctuation symbol used to show that a letter or letters are missed out (contractions) or after nouns and some pronouns, to show ownership.

E.g. *can't, don't, I'm, he's*, etc.  
*It's high time I went home.*

Apostrophes are often incorrectly used. The most common mistakes are:

- \* used for plurals
- \* its and it's
- \* you're and your
- \* with shortened forms CD's (incorrect) rather than CDs
- \* indicating decades as 1870's (incorrect) rather than 1870s.

Apostrophes are not used in the plural form of acronyms or for decades.  
E.g. *URLs* or *1950s*.

To know where to place the apostrophe to show ownership, place it after the last letter of the owner's name.

E.g. *The seven boys' boots were all over the floor.*

*The boy's boot was untied.*

*One needs to watch one's manners.*

*Another's feet belong to those shoes.*

\* If two or more people share ownership of an item, only the last person named has an apostrophe.

E.g. *John and Peter's lift was late.*

\* If two or more people own different things, then both names have an apostrophe.

E.g. *John's and Peter's lifts were late.*

\* Possessive pronouns do not have apostrophes.

E.g. *his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs, etc.*

\* An apostrophe is added to show the plurals of numbers and letters.

E.g. *There were eleven e's in the sentence.*

*Four 4's are sixteen.*

*Mind your p's and q's.*

\* To show the plural of a name that ends with a *ch*, *s*, or *z* sound, add *es*. If a name ends in *ch*, but is pronounced with a hard *k* sound, its plural will require *s*, rather than *es*.

E.g. *The Sanchezes will be over soon.*

*The Thomases moved away.*

*The Churches have arrived but the Bohmbachs are running late.*

**Rule:** To show singular possession of a name ending in *ch*, add *'s* on the end of the name.

E.g. *Harry Birch's house*

**Rule:** To show singular possession of a name ending in *s* or *z*, some writers add just an apostrophe. Others also add another *s*.

E.g. *Bill Williams' car* or *Bill Williams's car*

*Mrs. Sanchez's children*

**Rule:** To show plural possession of a name ending in *s*, *ch*, or *z*, form the plural first; then immediately use the apostrophe.

E.g. *the Williamses' car*

*the Birches' house*

*the Sanchezes' children*

From - <https://www.grammarbook.com/punctuation/apostro.asp>

**Brackets** (also called *parentheses*) are used in pairs and enclose extra information in the form of examples, comments or explanations. Usually we use square brackets - [ ] - for special purposes such as in technical manuals, and to enclose words added by someone other than the original writer or speaker, typically in order to clarify the situation. Round brackets - ( ) - are used in a similar way to commas when we want to add further explanation, an afterthought, or comment that is to do with our main line of thought but distinct from it. Many grammarians feel that parentheses can be replaced by commas in nearly all cases.

E.g. *Mount Everest (in the Himalayas) is the highest mountain in the world.*  
*There are several books on the subject (see page 120).*  
*He [the police officer] can't prove that they did it.*

If parentheses or brackets are used at the end of a sentence, the full stop should be after the closing bracket, as the final punctuation.

E.g. *They eventually decided to settle in the United States (Debbie's home).*  
*Dante testified that it was the last time he saw them [the missing coins].*

In mathematics round, square and curly brackets each have particular meanings to indicate how mathematical expressions should be read.

From - [www.ef-australia.com.au/english-resources/english-grammar/brackets-and-parentheses](http://www.ef-australia.com.au/english-resources/english-grammar/brackets-and-parentheses)

<https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/punctuation/parentheses-and-brackets>

**Capital Letters** – are used as the first letter of the first word of every sentence, and the first letter of the names of people.

E.g. *Ann, Kiama, Sydney Harbour, Major Smith, Councillor Peters, Doctor Stavert.*

They are also used when writing the personal pronoun *I* as in *I, I'd, I'll, I'm, and I've.*

They are used for the first letter of major words in titles for books, stories, poems, films, magazines, etc.

E.g. *Robinson Crusoe*  
*The Cat on the Mat.*  
*Dr Who*

They are used for the first letter of the first word in direct speech.

E.g. *'Today is my birthday,' said Peter.*  
*Jane asked, 'How many eggs do you want?'*

But not if direct speech is broken up by words used to explain it. Then the second section of direct speech does not begin with a capital letter.

E.g. *'It's wonderful,' said Sally, 'to eat warm bread.'*

**Colons** introduce more information which can be a list, words, phrase, clauses or a quotation but don't use a colon when the listed items are incorporated into the flow of a sentence.

E.g. *The bookshop specialises in three subjects: art, architecture, and graphic design.*

*The bookshop specialises in art, architecture, and graphic design.*

Buy these things: bread, milk, margarine and chocolate.

The sign read: 'Mum is always right.'

A colon should not be used if the material preceding the colon cannot stand on its own to express a complete thought.

E.g. *There are many different types of paper, including: college ruled, wide ruled, and plain copy paper.*

"There are many different types of paper, including" is not a complete sentence and the colon should be removed.

A colon may be used instead of a semicolon between independent clauses when the second sentence explains, illustrates, paraphrases, or expands on the first sentence.

E.g. *He got what he worked for: he really earned that promotion.*

*I have very little time to learn French: my new job starts in just five weeks.*

*All three of their children are teachers: Julie teaches Primary, Peter swimming and Mark is a High School maths teacher.*

*After three weeks of deliberation the jury finally reach a verdict: guilty.*

When two or more sentences follow a colon, capitalise the first word following the colon.

E.g. *He made three points: First, the company was losing over a million dollars each month. Second, the stock price was lower than it had ever been. Third, no banks were willing to loan the company more money.*

Colons are also used to show time separating hours from minutes, with no space before or after the colon; for ratios; in references; and in correspondence.

E.g. 11:48 a.m.

1:4

Genesis 5:4

cc: Tom Smith

Attention: Accounts Payable

PS: Don't forget your sleeping bag.



From - *The Primary Grammar Handbook – traditional and functional grammar, punctuation and usage* by Gordon Winch and Gregory Blaxell. Horwitz Martin, St. Leonards, 1999.

<http://www.thepunctuationguide.com/colon.html>

<https://www.grammarbook.com/punctuation/colons>

<https://writingcenter.unc.edu/tips-and-tools/semi-colons-colons-and-dashes>

**Commas** – a comma indicates a short pause, 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 to make the meaning clearer.

Commas, with few exceptions, a comma should not separate a subject from its verb.

E.g. *My brother Neil, is taller than Dad.* (Incorrect.)

*My brother Neil is taller than Dad.* (Correct.)

*The things that cause me joy, may also cause me pain.* (Incorrect)

*The things that cause me joy may also cause me pain.* (Correct)

*Trudging through wind, water, darkness, and mud, is hard work.*

(Incorrect)

*Trudging through wind, water, darkness, and mud is hard work.* (Correct)

Don't separate two *nouns* that appear together as a compound subject or compound object.

E.g. *My friend, Sue is a wonderful singer.* (Incorrect)

*The things that cause me joy, may also cause me pain.* (Incorrect)

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/>

Commas are used to separate two or more adjectives modifying a noun, or two or more adverbs modifying a verb.

E.g. *Ann is a bright, happy, confident child.*

*The snake silently, quickly, purposely slithered towards the door.*

Commas can be used to separate two principal clauses joined by a co-ordinate conjunction (*and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet*) to make a compound sentence. If the two principal clauses are short, a comma may be unnecessary.

E.g. *I was going to come to cricket, but I had to go out with Mum.*  
*I love chocolate so I ate it.*

Sentences beginning with a connective such as *so* or *however* can use a comma to separate the connective with the rest of the sentence.

E.g. *So, I still think I should go.*

Sentences beginning with a phrase or a clause usually have the phrase or clause separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

E.g. *At the end of the day, we will all sit down together for dinner.*  
*Although it was still early, I still decided to get up to watch t.v.*

Commas are also used to separate words, phrases and clauses used within sentences to add extra meaning.

E.g. *I let my dog, Gus, out of the house.*  
*Mrs Jones, our new neighbour, moved here from Grafton.*  
*Neil, who has been away on holidays, is coming around with his bike.*

Commas are used to at the end of quotations that are statements and before the quotation mark, when the quotation is directly followed by the words explaining who is speaking (*said, answered, yelled, replied, asked, etc.*).

E.g. *'I'm fine,' said Mum.*

Where a quoted statement is interrupted by the words used to explain who is speaking, those words are enclosed by commas.

E.g. *'I am ready,' he said, 'to do as you ask.'*

Because the quoted sentence is a statement, it ends with a full stop which is placed before the final quotation mark.

Where the quotation is a question or exclamation, a question mark or exclamation mark is placed at the end of the quotation and before the quotation mark. This is then followed by the words used to explain the direct speech.

E.g. *'Is that you, Tom?' he asked.*  
*'Oh no!' he cried.*

\* Where a quotation is a question or exclamation interrupted by the words used to explain the direct speech, those words are enclosed by commas. Then the question mark or exclamation mark is used at the end of the quotation before the quotation mark.

E.g. *'Do you think,' I asked, 'that it will rain later today?'*

From – *The Primary Grammar Handbook – traditional and functional grammar, punctuation and usage* by Gordon Winch and Gregory Blaxell. Horwitz Martin, St. Leonards, 1999.

**Dashes (-)** are short horizontal line placed in the middle of a line of text but not on the line, that is an underscore. It is longer than a hyphen and is used to indicate a range or pause. They can enclose or add extra information but don't have to appear in pairs. There are three forms of dashes, the *en*, *em* and the *double hyphen*. An *en dash* is short (-) while an *em dash* is longer (—). An *em dash* can replace parentheses at the end of a sentence or when multiple commas appear in a parenthetical phrase.

E.g. *After a split second of hesitation, the second baseman leaped for the ball (or, rather, limped for it).*

*After a split second of hesitation, the second baseman leaped for the ball—or, rather, limped for it.*

*Em dashes* (long dashes) with spaces left each side, are used in pairs to mark off information or ideas that are not essential to an understanding of the rest of the sentence.

E.g. *Thousands of children – like those in this photograph – have been left without a home.*

*Em dashes* are also used in place of commas, semicolons and colons to suggest strong emotions or create a more casual tone.

E.g. *He is afraid of only two things — spiders and dancing.*

*Em dashes* are especially common in informal writing, such as personal emails or blogs, but should be used sparingly in formal writing.

*En dashes* are used to indicate spans of time or ranges of numbers, meaning either “to” or “through”.

E.g. *Read pages 102-103 for homework tonight.*

*The service man will be call between 1-2pm.*

*The 2015-2016 swimming season was our best for years.*

The *en dash* may also be used to indicate a connection between two words. Use an *en dash* when you need to connect terms that are already hyphenated or when you are using a two-word phrase as a modifier. When the dash is used in this way, it creates a compound adjective. See the following examples:

E.g. *The pro-choice–pro-life argument is always a heated one.*

*The Nobel Prize-winning author will be reading from her book at the library tonight.*

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

<https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/grammar/dash-and-em-dash>

**Ellipsis (...)** mark that something has been left out and appears as a string of three dots in a horizontal row written along the line (plus a full stop if that comes immediately before the omission). The term *ellipsis* comes from the Greek word meaning “omission”. With an ellipsis you can show that a sentence is unfinished, using the omission for dramatic purposes. When you’re quoting someone, you can use an ellipsis to show that you’ve omitted some of the quotation.

E.g. *I don’t know what happened when ...*

*Hamlet asked whether it was “nobler ... to suffer the slings and arrows of outrageous fortune or to take arms against a sea of troubles.”*

*“Call me Jonah.... They call me John.”*

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

<http://www.sussex.ac.uk/informatics/punctuation/misc/ellipsis>

**Exclamation Marks** – are used at the end of sentences to show emotions or feelings about a person or event. That feeling may be excitement, surprise, anger, disappointment but all are strong feelings.

E.g. *I hate peas!*

*Help!*

*Oh no!*

When exclamations marks are included in direct or reported speech, it is placed directly after the exclamation and a full stop is used at the end of the sentence.

E.g. *‘That was great!’ yelled the boy.*

Exclamation marks can be used at the end of questions where no answer is required.

E.g. *Isn’t that stupid!*

**Full Stops** – are used to indicate the end of a sentence and to indicate that part of a word is missing in an abbreviation but not if the first and last letters are used in the abbreviation nor if a name is shortened and made up of more than one word, nor for acronyms.

E.g. Reverend = Rev.      etcetera = etc.      figure = fig.

Mister = Mr      Doctor = Dr      Avenue = Ave (First and last letter)

New South Wales = NSW      Eastern Standard Time = EST

Queensland and Northern Territory Air Service = QANTAS

**Hyphens** link two or more words or word parts that **do the job of one word** or that they are linked in the grammar of a sentence to have a combined meaning (as in *a pick-me-up, rock-forming minerals*), to indicate the division of a word at the end of a line, or to indicate a missing element (as in *short- and long-term*). They connect two things that are intimately related,

usually words that function together as a single concept or work together as a joint modifier. Hyphens are written shorter than dashes. Some compound words, such as *self-restraint* are hyphenated. Numbers between *twenty-one* and *ninety-nine* should also be hyphenated when they're written in words rather than numerals.

E.g. *eye-opener, check-in, free-for-all, rubber-stamp.*

There are *Compound adjectives* made up of a noun + an adjective, a noun + a participle, or an adjective + a participle. Many compound adjectives should be hyphenated. Here are some examples:

<b>noun + adjective</b>	<b>noun + participle</b>	<b>adjective + participle</b>
<i>accident-prone</i>	<i>computer-aided</i>	<i>good-looking</i>
<i>sugar-free</i>	<i>power-driven</i>	<i>quick-thinking</i>
<i>carbon-neutral</i>	<i>user-generated</i>	<i>bad-tempered</i>
<i>sport-mad</i>	<i>custom-built</i>	<i>fair-haired</i>
<i>camera-ready</i>	<i>muddle-headed</i>	<i>open-mouthed</i>

With compound adjectives formed from the adverb *well* and a participle (e.g. *well-known*), or from a phrase (e.g. *up-to-date*), you should use a hyphen when the compound comes before the noun:

E.g. *well-known brands of coffee*  
*an up-to-date account*

Don't use a hyphen when compound comes after the noun.

E.g. *His music was also well known in England.*  
*Their figures are up to date.*

Use hyphens in compound adjectives describing ages and lengths of time to clarify the meaning.

E.g. *250-year-old trees* clearly refers to trees that are 250 years old, while *250 year old trees* could refer to 250 trees that are all one year old.

Use a hyphen when a compound formed from two nouns is made into a verb.

E.g.

<b>noun</b>	<b>verb</b>
<i>an ice skate</i>	<i>to ice-skate</i>
<i>a booby trap</i>	<i>to booby-trap</i>
<i>a spot check</i>	<i>to spot-check</i>
<i>a court martial</i>	<i>to court-martial</i>

You should not put a hyphen within phrasal verbs, those verbs made up of a main verb and an adverb or preposition.

E.g.

Phrasal verb	Example
<i>build up</i>	<i>You should continue to build up your pension.</i>
<i>break in</i>	<i>They broke in by forcing a lock on the door.</i>
<i>stop off</i>	<i>We stopped off in Hawaii on the way home.</i>

If a phrasal verb is made into a noun, though, you should use a hyphen:

Noun	Example
<i>build-up</i>	<i>There was a build-up of traffic on the ring road.</i>
<i>break-in</i>	<i>The house was unoccupied at the time of the break-in.</i>
<i>stop-off</i>	<i>We knew there would be a stop-off in Singapore for refuelling.</i>

A compound noun is one consisting of two component nouns. In principle, such nouns can be written in one of three different ways:

one word	two words	hyphenated
<i>aircrew</i>	<i>air crew</i>	<i>air-crew</i>
<i>playgroup</i>	<i>play group</i>	<i>play-group</i>
<i>chatroom</i>	<i>chat room</i>	<i>chat-room</i>

Today we tend to write them as either one word or two separate words. However, you should choose one style and stick to it within a piece of writing. Don't refer to a *playgroup* in one paragraph and a *play-group* in another.

Hyphens can be used to join a prefix to another word, especially if the prefix ends in a vowel and the other word also begins with one such as in *pre-eminent* or *co-own*. This use is less common than it used to be, though, and one-word forms are becoming more usual such as *prearrange* or *cooperate*.

Use a hyphen to separate a prefix from a name or date, e.g. *post-Aristotelian* or *pre-1900*.

Use a hyphen to avoid confusion with another word: for example, to distinguish *re-cover* (provide something with a new cover) from *recover* (get well again).

Hyphens can also be used to divide words that are not usually hyphenated.



They show where a word is to be divided at the end of a line of writing. Always try to split the word in a sensible place, so that the first part does not mislead the reader: for example, *hel-met* not *he-lmet*; *dis-abled* not *disa-bled*.

Hyphens are also used to stand for a common second element in all but the last word of a list.

E.g. *You may see a yield that is two-, three-, or fourfold.*

From - <https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/punctuation/hyphen>

**Question Marks** – are used at the end of sentences which are questions and immediately after direct or reported speech where a question is asked with a full stop placed at the end of the sentence.

E.g. *Are you hungry?*

*Do you want a cheese or chicken sandwich? asked Mum.*

A question mark can also be used in the middle of a sentence to show that the writer is uncertain of the information or spelling in the sentence.

E.g. *I will meet you at eight (?) if daylight savings ends this weekend.*

*It is a grate (?) car.*

**Quotation Marks** – 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.*

From – *The Primary Grammar Handbook – traditional and functional grammar, punctuation and usage* by Gordon Winch and Gregory Blaxell. Horwitz Martin, St. Leonards, 1999.

**Semicolons** are mostly used between two connected or balanced ideas in a sentence. They are often used to link two independent clauses in a single sentence. Semicolons can often be replaced by a full stop, but doing so does not show the link between the two parts.

E.g. *I do like swimming; it is such fun.  
Don't pat the dog; he could bite you.  
I like cows; however, I hate the way they smell.  
I hate braggers; nevertheless, he deserves the award.  
First we had lunch; then we went to the movies.  
Whatever people choose to eat, they are allowed to make their own decisions; as a result, many people swear by their own choices.*

Semicolons should not be used to join a principal clause to a clause or phrase.  
E.g. *He gave me the sandwich, which I had brought.*

\* Semicolons can be used to separate groups of things in a list.

E.g. *I like cows: they give us milk, which tastes good; they give us meat, which also tastes good; and they give us leather, which is used for shoes and bags.  
I saw the film about wildlife in America; the one with the giant redwood trees in it; and it also showed alligators hiding in the swamps.*

\* Semicolons are also used at the ends of lines of poetry.

E.g. *One, two,  
Buckle my shoe;  
Three, four,  
Knock at the door;  
Five, six,  
Pick up sticks.*

**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 for a sentence to make sense and be understood.

E.g. *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.)

**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. They are often preceded by the word 'to'.

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

**Participles** – are verbs ending in – “ing” or “ed” that must combine with an auxiliary (helping) verb to make a complete verb. They play a role similar to an adjective or adverb and are used in a sentence to modify a noun, noun phrase, verb, or verb phrase. Like other parts of the verb, participles can be either active (e.g. *breaking*) or passive (e.g. *broken*). There are two types associated with certain verbal aspects or tenses: 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 infinitive (to) 'walk'.

Participles have various uses in a sentence. One use of a participle is simply as an adjective.

E.g. A **broken** window. A **fallen** tree. An **interesting** book.

Another use is in a phrase, which serves as a shortened form of a relative clause.

E.g. A woman **wearing** a red hat. A window **broken** by the wind.

Here the first phrase is equivalent to "a woman who was wearing a red hat".

Such participle phrases generally follow the noun they describe, just as relative clauses do.

Often a participle replaces an adverbial clause.

E.g. *With **drawn** sword, he came to the **sleeping** Lucretia.*

In the above sentence, the participles can be interpreted as equivalent to an adverbial clause of time, namely "after he had drawn his sword", and "when she was sleeping".

A fourth use of participles in some languages is in combination with an auxiliary verb such as "has" or "is" to make a compound or *periphrastic* verb tense (the usage of multiple separate words to carry the meaning of prefixes, suffixes or verbs, among other things, where either would be possible) which in other languages can often be expressed by a single word.

E.g. He **had drawn** his sword. She **was sleeping**.

A verb phrase based on a participle is called a **participle phrase** or **participial phrase** (*participial* is an adjective derived from *participle*).

E.g. *Wearing a hat* and *broken by the wind* are participial phrases based respectively on an English present participle and past participle. Since these phrases are equivalent to a clause, they may also be called a **participle clause** or **participial clause**.

Participial clauses generally do not have an expressed grammatical subject; but occasionally a participial clause does include a subject, as in the English nominative absolute construction *The king having died, ...*

From: <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Participle>

**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	Future Tense	Past Tense
<i>I am <b>walking</b>.</i>	<i>I will <b>walk</b>.</i>	<i>I have <b>walked</b>.</i>
<i>I am <b>staying</b>.</i>	<i>I might <b>stay</b>.</i>	<i>I have <b>stayed</b>.</i>

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 occurred.

**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*

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 particle 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 particle 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.

The 10 most commonly used verbs in the English language are actually *irregular* (*be, can, do, get, go, have, say, see, take and will*). In most cases, new words are simply given the regular form, such as *fax* (*faxed*), *photocopy* (*photocopied*) and *email* (*emailed*) i.e. they are regularised. However, the word “text” creates an interesting dilemma in determining whether the verb is regular (*text, texted, texted*) or irregular (*text, text, text*). In many online dictionaries, you are likely to find the past tense listed as “texted.” However, the hard “t” ending paired with the “x” in the word creates a pronunciation with a hard sound formed by the consonant cluster; one that when spoken within a sentence can sound better read as “text.” *I **texted** my friends yesterday.* This just doesn't sound correct.

From - <http://www.write.com/writing-guides/general-writing/grammar/what-is-the-difference-between-regular-and-irregular-verbs/>

**Modal verbs** - express the urgency or certainty of an action. *Low modality* expresses less certainty, probability, intensity or confidence while *high modality* expresses the opposite.

E.g. *has to, have to, must, ought to, shall, will, can, need to, should, would, could, may, might.*

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

**Verbs can express the Mood** of a sentence.

The *Indicative Mood* where the verb just expresses facts.

E.g. *The dog **chased** the postman.*

The *Imperative Mood* where the verb expresses a command.

E.g. **Stop** barking, you silly dog.

The *Subjunctive Mood* which expresses some action as a doubt, possibility or wish.

E.g. *If I feel **full**, may I stop eating?*

*If I were **older**, I would play that game.*

**Active or Passive Voice** - Verbs can say whether the subject they refer to does the action or if something is done to the subject. This is called the *Voice* of the verb, and it is either *Active* or *Passive*.

E.g. Sue **rode** her bike. (Active Voice)

*The bike **knocked over** Peter.* (Passive Voice)

### **Subject – Verb Agreement**

With *Indefinite pronouns* as *subjects*, singular indefinite pronoun subjects take singular verbs and plural indefinite pronouns plural verbs.

E.g. Singular indefinite pronouns – *each, either, one, no one, nobody, somewhere, everyone, everybody.*

No one **does** enough work around here. (Singular verb.)

Plural indefinite pronouns - *several, few, both, many.*

Both **do** a good job in class. (Plural verb.)

With *indefinite pronouns* that may be either *singular* or *plural* (Eg. *some, any, none, all, most*) use the singular form of the verb if the object the *indefinite pronoun* is referring to can't be counted and, the plural if it can.

E.g. Most of the coffee **is** gone.

Most of the biscuits **are** gone.



Compound subjects joined by **and** are always plural.

E.g. A pencil and a rubber **make** writing easier.

With Compound subjects joined by **or/nor**, the verb agrees with the subject nearer to it.

E.g. Neither the teacher nor the students **are** listening to the play.

Neither the students nor the teacher **is** listening to the play.

From - <https://webapps.towson.edu/ows/sub-verb.htm>

Watch the subject-verb agreement in your sentences when:

a. The subject follows the verb, especially in sentences beginning with the words "there is" or "there are". Special care is needed to determine the subject and to make certain that the verb agrees with it.

E.g. *There are many possible candidates.*

*There is only one good candidate.*

b. Words like "each" are the subject these words take singular verbs.

E.g. *such as*

*each, either, neither*

*another*

*anyone, anybody, anything*

*someone, somebody, something*

*one, everyone*

*everybody, everything*

*no one, nobody, nothing*

Do not be confused by *prepositional phrases* (a phrase containing a preposition as *in, above, at, of, before, inside*), which comes between a subject and its verb. They do not change the number of the subject.

E.g. *Everyone in class **has** his own set of likes.*

(Singular subject and verb.)

*Boys in class **have** their own sets of likes.*

(Plural subject and plural verb.)

c. Words like *none any, all, more, most* or *some* are the subject they may take either singular or plural verbs, depending on the context.

E.g. *Some of the dollar was spent.*

*Some of the dollars were spent.*

[Here the prepositional phrase does affect the subject. It tells you whether you are talking about a part of one thing (singular) or about a number of things (plural).]

d. The subjects are joined by "and" they take plural verbs.

E.g. *Both Tom and Jane have homework due on Tuesday.*

e. Singular subjects are joined by words like "or," "nor," "either . . . or," or "neither. . . nor", they take a singular verb.

E.g. *Neither the man nor his wife know the truth of what happened.*

f. If one subject is singular and one plural, the verb agrees with the nearer subject.

E.g. *Neither the television nor the radios work.*

*Neither the television nor the radio works.*

g. A linking verb is used such as *is, are, was, were, seem* and others, it agrees with its subject, not its complement.

E.g. *Joe's favourite dessert is blueberry muffins.*

*Blueberry muffins are Joe's favourite dessert.*

h. Regarded as a unit, collective nouns as well as noun phrases denoting quantity, all take singular verbs.

E.g. *The whole family is active.* (*Family* is a collective noun and is regarded as a single unit.)

*The family have met their various obligations.* (The individuals of the family are regarded separately – plural verb.)

*A thousand tonnes is a good yield.* (The subject is a quantity or unit – singular verb.)

*A thousand cars were imported.* (The subject refers to individual items – plural verb.)

**Verb Groups** – consist of a main verb, alone or preceded by one or more auxiliary or modal verbs as modifiers. They can be used to create tense, as in *He **was** happy, She **is** working at home, I **have** seen him before.*

They can express modality using modal verbs such as 'can', 'may', 'must', 'will', 'shall' and so on, as in 'You **must** be mad', 'He **will** have arrived by now', 'She **may** know them'.

From - <https://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/f-10curriculum/english/Glossary/?term=verb+groups>

**Verb Phrases** – are the portion of a sentence that contains both the verb and either a direct or indirect object (the verb's dependents). They comprise the verb, plus the complement, object, or adverb. Verb phrases, such as "*She was walking quickly to the mall.*" comprise the verb (walking) and the complement (to the mall). These phrases demonstrate how the dependents of the verb provide important useful information for the reader about the action in the sentence. Verb phrases help to make your text more informative and meaningful and they are essential to clear writing.

Some verb phrases have a single function which means they can act like an adverb or an adjective. The phrase would include the verb and any modifiers, complements, or objects.

E.g. As the cat watched, the two puppies fought over a bone.

The small dog was reluctant to learn new things.

When he arrives, we can try to build a fort.

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