The Federation of West Leigh Infant School and Backwell C of E Junior School

## Spelling, Punctuation and Grammar (SPaG) Information to Support Parents/Carers

## Spelling, Punctuation \& Grammar (SPaG) Explained

As part of the 2014 National Curriculum, the Department for Education raised the profile of spelling, punctuation and grammar for primary school pupils. Now, the expectation is that children know the grammar and are able to use it confidently in their writing. In Year 6 , they sit a test which is marked externally (this test forms part of the Year 6 SATs). This document will explain what they will be taught in each year group and hopefully give you the information you need to support their writing at home.

Please note that pupils will continue to review the grammar terminology and spelling patterns from previous year groups; therefore, you may find it helpful to refer to the information for previous year groups to the one your child is in.

| Terminology and content introduced in Year 1 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Adjective |  | A 'describing' word (this is the term most Year 1 children will use). It is a word used to describe (or tell you more about) a noun. <br> E.g. The burglar was wearing a black jacket. |
| Capital Letter | CL | Used to begin a sentence and for names. Also used for the personal pronoun 'l'. |
| Common exception words |  | Words that are frequently needed in writing but which do not fit in with rules that have been taught so far. <br> Referred to as 'tricky words' by West Leigh children. |
| Compound word |  | When two words are joined together to make a new word that has an entirely new meaning. <br> E.g. whiteboard, blackbird, basketball. <br> In Year 1, many children would not use compound word but would be aware that two words can be 'stuck together' to make a new word. |
| Conjunctions |  | Words that link ideas within sentences. E.g. I went to the park and a dog chased me. Year 1 children will be introduced to the conjunction 'and' |
| Exclamation mark | ! | Used to demarcate sentences which express a strong feeling of emotion. <br> E.g. What a beautiful day! <br> How exciting! |
| Full Stop | - | This is one way to end a sentence. |
| Letter |  | All letters have a name and a sound. There are 26 letters in the alphabet; these can be upper case (ABC) or lower case (abc). <br> Within Year 1, it is hoped that children will be able to name the letters of the alphabet in order. |



|  |  | A word that is a person, place or thing. E.g. boy, table, chair, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

Noun flower, cow.
Proper nouns (specific places, things or people) have a capital letter. E.g. Jack, Wednesday, London, Alton Towers. In Year 1, the children may just know that names of people, places and things have capital letters.

| Plural |  |
| :---: | :---: |

More than one, e.g. rabbits. A plural noun normally has a suffix -s or -es and means 'more than one'. There are a few nouns that don't follow this rule (e.g. sheep).

|  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

Capital letters and the marks - such as a full stop, exclamation mark, question mark - used in writing to separate sentences.
Children in Year 1 will be taught to separate words with spaces and will be introduced to capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences.

| Prefix |  | A group of letters placed before the stem of an existing word, to create a new word with a different meaning. <br> E.g. when the prefix un- is added to the word happy, it creates the word unhappy. <br> In Year 1, children will learn to use the prefix un- |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Question Mark | $?$ | Questions usually begin with who, what, where, when or why. The mark is used at the end of a question. |
| Sentence |  | A set of words that is complete in itself - they create a unit of meaning. All sentences contain a subject and a verb. |
| Speech Bubble | $\Sigma$ | Speech bubbles are a visual means of conveying words spoken by characters. |
| Singular |  | Only one e.g. a rabbit. |
| Suffix |  | A group of letters added to the end of an existing word to create a new word with a different meaning. <br> E.g. shocked, shocking <br> In Year 1, children will learn the rules for adding -s or -es (as the plural marker for nouns and the third person singular marker for verbs), -ing, -ed, -er and -est (where no change is needed in the spelling of root words e.g. helping, helped, helper, eating, quicker, quickest). |
| Verb |  | A verb can describe: <br> - an action or process (e.g. dive, run, eat, throw) <br> - a feeling or state of mind (e.g. worry, think, know, believe) <br> - a state (e.g. to be - am, was, will, won't, is). <br> We teach children that a sentence contains at least one verb. <br> Introduced to and known as 'a doing word' to most Year 1 children. |
| Word |  | A unit of grammatical meaning. |

## Year 1 Possible Activities

1) Read! Read! Read!
2) Say and write sentences about family, friends, pets, toys or anything!
3) Create stories together!

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## Terminology introduced in Year 2

Please note that pupils will continue to review the grammar terminology and spelling patterns from previous year groups; therefore, you may find it helpful to refer to the information given in Year 1.

| Adverb |  | Tells you more about the verb (it 'adds' to the verb). Most in English end in -ly and come from adjectives. <br> E.g. soft - softly; slow - slowly. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Apostrophe | , | Contractions: used to show where letters are missing <br> E.g. Is not = isn't Could not = couldn't <br> Showing possession: with nouns (singular only) E.g. The girl's jacket was soaked. James' toy is broken. <br> Year 2 children are introduced to apostrophes to mark where letters are missing in spelling and need to know that the apostrophe is always placed where the letter has been removed. They should be able to recognise apostrophes in simple contractions and identify which missing letters they replace. Children also are introduced to possessive apostrophes which mark singular possession in nouns (e.g. the girl's name). |
| Capital Letter | CL | Used to begin a sentence and for names of people, places and titles. Also used for the pronoun ' 1 '. |
| Comma | , | Used between a list of three or more words - you should put a comma between each item, except for the last item where you use 'and'. <br> E.g. The giant had a large head, hairy ears and two big eyes. |
| Homophone |  | Words with the same pronunciation but different meaning. E.g. sea and see. Hair and hare. |
| Noun Phrase |  | Noun phrases are groups of words that function like a noun. <br> E.g. The spotted puppy is up for adoption. <br> (Noun phrase as a subject) <br> E.g. I want a cute puppy for Christmas. <br> (Noun phrase as an object to the verb "want") <br> A noun phrase adds more detail to the noun. <br> In Year 2, children are expected to use expanded noun phrases for description and specification (e.g. the blue butterfly, plain flour, the man on the bus). |
| Conjunction |  | Words that link ideas within sentences. E.g. The boy started to run because he was afraid. <br> In Year 2, children are expected to use conjunctions such and, but, or, because, when, if, that. |
| Question | ? | These sentences usually begin with 'who', 'what', 'where', 'when' or 'why'. They always end in a question mark. E.g. What is for dinner? Other questions start with, 'does', 'do', 'how', 'could', 'would', 'will', 'may', 'must' etc. |
| Sentence type | . ? ! | There are four types of sentence: <br> 1. Statements state facts and are punctuated with a full stop (and sometimes an exclamation mark). <br> E.g. This pizza has cheese and mushrooms on it. <br> 2. Questions ask something and can only be punctuated with a question mark. |




|  |  |  |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |
| Suffix |  |  |
| Synonym |  |  |
| Tense |  |  |
| (past \& present) |  |  |

## E.g. What time is it?

3. Commands tell somebody to do something and are punctuated with a full stop or an exclamation mark. E.g. Chop the carrots.
4. Exclamations begin with 'what' or 'how', include a verb and can only be punctuated with an exclamation mark.
E.g. What a fabulous day!

In Year 2, children taught how the grammatical patterns in a sentence indicate its function as a statement, question, exclamation or command.
A group of letters added to the end of an existing word to create a new word with a different meaning.
E.g. shocked, shocking

In Year 2, children will introduced to the formation of nouns using suffixes such as -ness, -er and by compounding (e.g. whiteboard, basketball) and adjectives using suffixes such as -ful, -less. They will also be introduced to the use of -ly to turn adjectives into adverbs.
These are words that have a similar meaning to another word. We use synonyms to make our writing more interesting and precise.
E.g. Bad - awful, terrible, horrible Happy - content, joyful, pleased
This is the choice between present and past verbs and normally indicates differences in time.
E.g. He studies all day. [present tense - present time] Yesterday, he studied all day. [past tense - past time]
Year 2 children are encouraged to use the correct choice and have consistent use of present tense and past tense throughout writing. They also will be introduced to the progressive form of verbs in the present and past tense to mark actions in progress (e.g. She is drumming. He was shouting).

## Year 2 Possible Activities

READ! READ! READ!
Reading is so important! The more you read the more you will notice new words, spelling patterns and punctuation.

## Spot the apostrophe!

When you are out and about with family, see how many apostrophes you can spot. Are they used correctly? Are they showing contractions or possession?

## Adverb Charades

Choose an adverb e.g. slowly, sleepily, quickly. The rest of your family give you actions (verbs) to perform e.g. eat a meal, walk. Can your family guess the adverb?

## Adjectives

Make your food sound delicious by playing the food game. Name a food and keep adding adjectives! Don't forget to use commas in a list.

## Word Hunter

Choose a book, choose a SPaG pattern/feature and see how many of them you can spot in the story.
E.g. How many speech marks can you find?

## Questions!

When reading, ask lots of questions about the characters, plot, grammar and punctuation.

## *KS1 Spelling

In Key Stage 1, spelling is taught using phonics as the main strategy. All schools follow a programme which sets out the order that sounds are taught in and also which common exception words will be introduced and when. Our programme is called 'Letters and Sounds'. The word lists below are the common exception words taught at West Leigh. It is expected that children should be able to spell the red words by the end of Year 1, the blue words by the end of Year 2.

| tricky words | A 9 a are asked all after again arty | B b be by bath beautifull because: behind both break busy | $C \mathrm{c}$ called come could | child childrem Christmas class climb clothes cold could | Dd do door | Ee even every everybody eye |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ff friend | $G g$ <br> go gold grass great | H h he here house have her half hold hour | $\begin{array}{\|l\|} \hline \text { I i } \\ \text { I } \\ \text { into } \\ \text { improve } \end{array}$ | J J <br> KK <br> kind | L.I laoked love little like: | M m me Mr Mrs my money most move: |
| $\mathrm{N} n$ no | 00 of oh once one our out | old only | $\begin{aligned} & \text { P P } \\ & \text { people } \\ & \text { pull } \\ & \text { push } \\ & \text { put } \end{aligned}$ | pass <br> path <br> plant <br> proor <br> pretty <br> prove | $Q \mathrm{Q}$ | R r |
| $5 s$ said says school | T t <br> the their there | Uu | W w was we were | water who whole | X* | $y_{y}$ |
| she <br> so <br> some: <br> should <br> steak <br> sugar <br> sure | they to today told | V v | where when what | wild would |  | Z |



# The Federation of West Leigh Infant School and Backwell C of E Junior School 



## Terminology introduced in Year 3

Please note that pupils will continue to review the grammar terminology and spelling patterns from previous year groups; therefore, you may find it helpful to refer to the information given in Year 1 and Year 2.

The choice of article is based upon the phonetic (sound) quality of the first letter in a word.

- "A" goes before words that begin with consonants.
E.g. a cat, a bottle, a phone
- "An" goes before words that begin with vowels.
E.g. an egg, an apricot, an umbrella

| ' $A$ ' vs 'An' (Article) |  | Exceptions: <br> - Use "an" before a silent or unsounded " $h$ " (because the " $h$ " does not have any phonetic representation or audible sound, the sound that follows the article is a vowel; consequently, "an" is used). <br> E.g. an honourable man, an honest error, an heir <br> - Use 'a' for words that: <br> - begin with a vowel that make a 'you' sound <br> - begin with 'o' but make a 'w' sound. <br> E.g. a united front, a unicorn, a ewe, a one-legged bird |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Alliteration (an example of figurative language) |  | The occurrence of the same letter or sound at the beginning of adjacent or closely connected words. <br> E.g. Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers |
| Conjunction |  | Words that link ideas within sentences. There are two types: <br> 1. Coordinating <br> e.g. for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so (often referred to as 'FANBOYS') <br> 2. Subordinating <br> e.g. because, since, when, while, until, although, as, if In Year 3, children are expected to use conjunctions such as the following: and, but, or, so, because, when, if, that, before, after, while. They may not distinguish between coordinating and subordinating conjunctions yet but would be expected to use both. |
| Consonant |  | Letters in the alphabet that are not vowels (a, e, i, o, u). E.g. b, c, d, f, g, h... etc. |
| Contraction | , | A contraction is a word made by shortening and combining two words. Words like can't (can + not), don't (do + not), and I've (I + have) are all contractions. An apostrophe replaces the missing letter/letters. |
| Figurative Language |  | Figurative language is when you use a word or phrase that does not have its normal, literal meaning. Writers can use figurative language to make their work more interesting or more dramatic than literal language which simply states facts. E.g. metaphors, similes, personification, hyperbole, alliteration etc. <br> In Year 3, children are introduced to alliteration, metaphors and similes - with some being introduced to personification (see Year 4's section for more information for personification) but they will continue to practise and become more confident in using figurative language in the rest of KS2. |
| Inverted Commas | 66 | Punctuation marks used in pairs ("") to indicate direct speech. These separate the words in a sentence that |



# The Federation of West Leigh Infant School and Backwell C of E Junior School 

| (Speech Marks) |  | someone actually says from the rest of the sentence. <br> E.g. "Pass the football to me," shouted Jack, waving his hand in the air. <br> Ruby asked, "Why can't we go today?" <br> In Year 3, children are introduced to punctuating direct speech and should be able to use inverted commas around the spoken words but they might not be confident with the other speech punctuation yet. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Metaphor (an example of figurative language) |  | A metaphor is a figure of speech that describes an object or action in a way that is not literally true but helps explain an idea or make a comparison. <br> E.g. He is a shining star. <br> The thunder was a mighty lion. |
| Paragraphs |  | Paragraphs are sections of text, used to structure writing to make it clear and easy to read. New paragraphs are either signalled by an indent (where the text starts some way into the line) or by leaving a line blank. <br> In Year 3, children will be introduced to paragraphs as a way to group related material. |
| Possessive <br> Apostrophe <br> (singular nouns) | , | Use an apostrophe +s ('s) to show that one person/thing owns or is a member of something. <br> N.B. If a singular nouns ends in ' $s$ ', it is still correct to add another ' $s$ ' after the apostrophe to create the possessive form but it is also acceptable to add only an apostrophe (e.g. James's and James' are both considered correct but whichever option is chosen should be consistently used in writing). <br> E.g. The girl's ballet class is about to begin. <br> Thomas' shoes are over there. <br> In Year 3, children are expected to use a possessive apostrophe mostly accurately with singular nouns. |
| Preposition |  | Words that show the relationship of one thing to another. <br> - Location: they can tell us where something is e.g. beside, under, on, against, beneath, over <br> - Time: they can tell us when something is happening e.g. until, during, after, before; or more specifically 'on Christmas Day', 'at twelve o'clock', 'in August' <br> E.g. Tom jumped over the cat. <br> The monkey is in the tree. |
| Present Perfect Form of Verbs |  | Composed of two elements: the appropriate form of the auxiliary verb 'to have' (present tense), plus the past participle of the main verb (usually -ed). <br> E.g. I have walked you have walked he/she/it has walked we have walked you have walked they have walked Year 3 children are expected to use the present perfect form of verbs as well as the simple past. <br> E.g. 'He has gone out to play' contrasted with 'He went out to play' |
| Pronoun |  | A word that takes the place of a noun. We use these so that we do not have to repeat the same nouns over and over again. <br> E.g. I, me, he, she, herself, you, it, that, they etc. <br> In the sentence 'Joe saw Sally and he waved at her', the pronouns 'he' and 'her' take the place of Joe and Sally. |


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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Simile (an example of figurative language) | A figure of speech that directly compares two things. Similes differ from other metaphors by highlighting the similarities between two things using comparison words such as "like", "as", "so" or " than". <br> E.g. He was as brave as a lion. <br> Last night, I slept like a baby. |  |  |
| Subordinate Clause | A clause that cannot stand alone as a complete sentence because it does not express a complete thought. It is also known as a dependent clause - it depends on a main clause to make sense. <br> E.g. Molly bought a new dress when she went shopping 'when she went shopping' would not make sense without the main clause (Molly bought a new dress). |  |  |
| Word Families | Word families are groups of words that have a common feature, pattern or meaning. They usually share a common base or root word, to which different prefixes and suffixes are added. <br> E.g. The words happy, unhappy, happiness could be considered to belong to the same word family. <br> Year 3 children learn that common words are related in form and meaning (for example, the words solve, solution, solvent, dissolve and insoluble all belong to the same word family). |  |  |
| Vowel | Any of the following letters: a e iou. |  |  |
| Year 3 Possible Activities |  |  |  |
| READ! READ |  | Adverb Charades | Word Hunte |
| Reading is so impo more you read the will notice new spelling pattern punctuatio |  | Choose an adverb e.g. slowly, sleepily, quickly. The rest of your family give you actions (verbs) to perform e.g. eat a meal, walk. Can your family guess the adverb? | Choose a book, choose a SPaG pattern/feature and see how many of them you can spot in the story. E.g. How many speech marks can you find? |
| Book |  | Re-writing and editing | Questions |
| Create a stor information boo younger member or for fun. They coul pictures or draw |  | Get your child to re-read their own homework for errors and to make improvements. Letting them do this for themselves will help them to become more independent. | When reading, ask lots of questions about the characters, plot, grammar and punctuation. |
| See ** Year 3 and 4 Spelling (below Year 4 terminology) |  |  |  |



## Terminology introduced in Year 4

Please note that pupils will continue to review the grammar terminology and spelling patterns from previous year groups; therefore, you may find it helpful to refer to the information given in Key Stage 1 and Year 3.
\(\left.$$
\begin{array}{|l|l|l|}\hline \text { Adverbial } & \begin{array}{l}\text { An adverbial is a word (an adverb) or a group of words (an } \\
\text { adverbial phrase) that modifies or more closely defines the } \\
\text { sentence or the verb - i.e. it gives extra information about a } \\
\text { verb or clause. }\end{array}
$$ <br>
It usually refers to one of the following: <br>
- When something happens or how often? <br>
E.g. The bus leaves in five minutes. <br>
- Where something happens? <br>

E.g. I can see land in the distance.\end{array}\right\}\)| How something happens? |
| :--- |
| E.g. My friend visited without warning. |


$\left.\left.\begin{array}{|l|l|l|}\hline & & \begin{array}{l}\text { A determiner is a word placed in front of a noun to specify } \\ \text { quantity (e.g. "one dog," "many dogs") or to clarify what the } \\ \text { noun refers to (e.g. "my dog," "that dog," "the dog"). All } \\ \text { determiners can be classified as one of the following: } \\ \text { - an article (a/an, the) } \\ \text { - a demonstrative (this, that, these, those) } \\ \text { - a possessive (my, your, his, her, its, our, their) } \\ \text { - a quantifier (common examples include many, much, } \\ \text { more, most, some) }\end{array} \\ \text { Determiner } & \begin{array}{l}\text { Determiners can also specify whether a noun is known or } \\ \text { unknown. E.g. The school netball team (known) }\end{array} \\ \text { Expandeall team (unknown) }\end{array}\right\} \begin{array}{l}\text { There is sometimes confusion about whether to use 'a' or 'an' - refer to }\end{array}\right\}$

|  | , | nouns include 'women', 'men' and 'mice'. In all such cases, the possessive apostrophe is followed by an 's'. E.g. The children's meal was late. <br> E.g. The mice's tails were very long. <br> Common mistake: writing childrens (no apostrophe) or childrens' (an apostrophe after the ' $s$ '). Both of these are wrong. <br> Year 4 children are expected to use possessive apostrophes mostly accurately with plural nouns. They also should also be able to understand the grammatical difference between plural and possessive -s: <br> plural means more than one, which requires adding only an "s" at the end of most words (e.g. snake becomes snakes [more than one snake] - there is no apostrophe here). possessive means ownership, which requires inserting an apostrophe before the "s." (e.g. snake's tongue). |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Possessive Pronoun |  | Possessive pronouns show that something belongs to someone: mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, yours and theirs. They replace a noun or noun phrase already used, replacing it to avoid repetition: "I said that phone was mine." Generally, you use possessive pronouns to talk about a person, place or thing that has already been explained. They prevent repetition in a sentence. <br> Possessive adjectives (also called "weak" possessive pronouns) are my, your, his, her, its, our, your, and their. They function as determiners in front of a noun to describe who something belongs to. E.g. His foot hurt. |
| Punctuating Direct Speech | $\begin{gathered} 6! \\ , .!? \end{gathered}$ | Inverted commas (speech marks) are placed around direct speech to show what a person says. The reporting clause is the part of the sentence that tells the reader who or what is speaking; this can come before or after direct speech (it can also be placed in the middle of speech but this will be introduced in Year 5). The reporting clauses are in bold in the examples below: <br> 1) Suzie screamed, "Give me my toy back!" <br> 2) "What is for dinner?" asked the boy. <br> Rules for punctuating direct speech: <br> - Inverted commas are placed around direct speech to show what a person says. The first word within inverted commas (i.e. the first spoken word) should be capitalised. <br> - When the reporting clause comes before speech (example 1 above), it should be followed by a comma before the opening speech mark. <br> - When the reporting clause comes after speech (example 2 above), punctuation is needed before the closing speech marks: this will usually be a comma but an exclamation mark or question mark are used when appropriate. A full stop should only be used here if there is no reporting clause (e.g. during a long dialogue between characters, reporting clauses are not always used for |



|  |  | $\begin{array}{c}\text { every bit of direct speech). } \\ \text { Children in Year 4 are expected to master the use of inverted } \\ \text { commas to show direct speech in their writing. They are also } \\ \text { expected to use other punctuation in direct speech such as a } \\ \text { comma to separate the reporting clause and other punctuation } \\ \text { marks within inverted commas. }\end{array}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Year 4 Possible Grammar and Spelling Activities |  |  |$]$

In Key Stage 2, spelling is taught using the North Somerset Learning Exchange Spelling Progression Scheme, which is aligned with the National Curriculum 'English - Appendix 1: Spelling' document (this gives a breakdown of spellings taught in each year group).

It is expected that children should be able to spell most of the words below by the end of Year 4:

The Federation of West Leigh Infant School and Backwell C of E Junior School

Word list - years 3 and 4

| accident(ally) | early | knowledge | purpose |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| actual(ly) | earth | learn | quarter |
| address | eight/eighth | length | question |
| answer | enough | library | recent |
| appear | exercise | material | regular |
| arrive | experience | medicine | reign |
| believe | experiment | mention | remember |
| bicycle | extreme | minute | sentence |
| breath | famous | natural | separate |
| breathe | favourite | naughty | special |
| build | February | notice | straight |
| busy/business | forward(s) | occasion(ally) | strange |
| calendar | fruit | often | strength |
| caught | grammar | opposite | suppose |
| centre | group | ordinary | surprise |
| century | guard | particular | therefore |
| certain | heard | peculiar | though/although |
| circle | heart | perhaps | thought |
| complete | height | popular | through |
| consider | history | position | various |
| continue | possess(ion) | weight |  |
| decide | increase | possible | woman/women |
| describe | important | potatoes |  |
| different | interest | prossure |  |
| difficult | island | promise |  |
| disappear |  |  |  |

Terminology introduced in Year 5
Please note that pupils will continue to review the grammar terminology and spelling patterns from previous year groups; therefore, you may find it helpful to refer to the information given in Key Stage 1 and Lower Key Stage 2.

| Brackets | $()$ | Used for additional information or explanation. Sometimes called parentheses. <br> - To clarify information: <br> E.g. Jamie's bike was red (bright red) with a yellow stripe. <br> - To give extra details: <br> E.g. His first book (The Colour Of Magic) was written in 1989. <br> - For asides and comments: He stopped (at last!) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cohesive devices |  | Cohesive devices are words or phrases used to connect ideas between different parts of text, to help the flow of writing. <br> In Year 5, children are expected to use adverbials, pronouns, conjunctions and prepositions within and across sentences and paragraphs to show cohesion. <br> Adverbials: <br> Expressing place, time or manner, adverbials can help create cohesion in or across paragraphs. <br> - Without adverbials: <br> Tim left home. He realised he had forgotten his homework. <br> - With adverbials: <br> Tim left home early in the morning. Later that day, he realised he had forgotten his homework. <br> The adverbial of time keeps the sentences in a logical order and makes it easier for the reader to follow the text. <br> Pronouns <br> Using pronouns in a sentence allows you to refer back to a noun without having to repeat it. <br> - Without pronoun: <br> Billy listened to music while sitting in Billy's car. <br> - With pronoun: <br> Billy listened to music while sitting in his car. <br> In this example, using a pronoun helps the sentence flow more smoothly, while still making sense. <br> Conjunctions <br> Words like 'and', 'but', 'if', 'when' and 'or' are used to join sentences and clauses - they link ideas within a sentence and help with the flow of writing. <br> - Without conjunctions: <br> Simon had a warm shower. He ate his breakfast. He brushed his teeth. <br> - With coniunctions: <br> After having a warm shower and eating his breakfast, Simon brushed his teeth. <br> Prepositions <br> For time, direction, place or method, put a preposition in front of a noun or pronoun. This shows a relationship between the noun and the rest of the sentence. <br> - Without prepositions: <br> The girl was hiding. <br> - With pronoun: <br> The girl was hiding under the table. |

Colon

Commas
( ${ }^{1}$ to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity and ${ }^{2}$ to mark clauses)

Comma Splicing

Colons are used to introduce an idea that is an explanation or continuation of the one that comes before the colon. Colons are used to separate two main clauses (you should be able to replace a colon with a full stop and the two sentences will still make sense).

Colon
E.g. There was only one thing the wolf wanted to do now: he wanted to eat that juicy Little Red Riding Hood.
E.g. The flaw in the wolf's plan was clear to see: he looked nothing like Grandma.

Year 5 are introduced to colons in Year 5 but they will consolidate them in Year 6.
In addition to using commas within a list, after fronted adverbials and after fronted subordinate clauses (as mentioned in previous year groups), children in Year 5 should be using them to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity and to mark parenthesis (around embedded clauses).

In some cases, using a comma in a sentence can change the meaning of the sentence all together. That's why it's important to consider whether you need a comma in a sentence and where to place the comma.
E.g. "Let's eat Grandma." vs "Let's eat, Grandma."

When should commas be used in a subordinate clause?
A subordinate clause starts with a subordinating conjunction (e.g. because, although, once, since, until, before, even though, since, after etc.).

- A sentence with a fronted subordinate clause needs a comma after it before the main clause that follows it.
E.g. Although he was exhausted, Tom continued to read.
- A sentence with an embedded subordinate clause - where it is 'embedded' or 'dropped in' the middle of the main clause - needs commas around it, to separate it from the main clause.
E.g. Tom, although he was exhausted, continued to read.
- A sentence with a following subordinate clause (where it comes after the main clause) does not need any commas.
E.g. Tom continued to read although he was exhausted.
N.B. see relative clauses and non-finite clauses (in Year 5 section) for their comma rules.

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| Dash | Dashes look like a hyphen but they are longer in size <br> (- rather than -). They separate information and are a type of <br> parenthesis. <br> They are used to emphasise a sudden change of thought or <br> to add additional information into a sentence. They are used <br> in informal writing. <br> E.g. She might come to the party - or maybe she'll be doing <br> her homework. <br> E.g. Mr. Jones - the man who found the wallet - was good <br> enough to hand it into the police. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Hyphen | Used to show interruption (often in dialogue), to show <br> repetition or avoid ambiguity. |
| - | $\frac{\text { To show interruption }}{\text { "The girl is my -" }}$"Sister," interrupted Miles, "She looks just like you." <br> To show repetition |
| "You-you monster!" cried the frightened woman. |  |
| "St-st-stop!" stammered the boy. |  |
| To avoid ambiguity |  |


| Passive voice |  | The passive voice is used to show interest in the person or object that experiences an action rather than the person or object that performs the action. It allows writers to highlight the most important participants or events within sentences by placing them at the beginning of the sentence and making them the subject. <br> Active voice - the subject does the action: <br> The school (subject) arranged a visit (object). The rain (subject) drenched the boy (object). <br> Passive voice - the subject is acted upon: <br> The visit (subject) was arranged by the school (object). The boy (subject) was drenched by the rain (object). The 'by' part can be left off to add suspense and intrigue when appropriate. <br> The passive voice is useful in when the writer wants to remain detached from the event (e.g. in a science report 'the liquid was poured' [passive] sounds better than 'I poured the liquid' [active]. <br> Year 5 are introduced to the passive and active voices in Year 5 but they will consolidate them in Year 6. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Object of a sentence |  | This is usually a noun, pronoun or noun phrase that comes straight after the verb and shows what the verb is acting upon. <br> E.g. He played the drums. |
| Non-finite clause |  | A non-finite clause is a dependent clause (it needs a main clause to make sense) which does not start with a conjunction or pronoun. To make it simple, we often describe non-finite clauses as starting with an '-ing', '-ed' or '-en' word (e.g. running, scared, shaken...) - although, non-finite clauses don't always start with these! <br> The non-finite clause can be 'fronted' <br> E.g. Running after the bus, Tom realised he'd forgotten his lunch. A comma is needed after a fronted non-finite clause. <br> The non-finite clause can be 'embedded' - 'dropped in' the middle of the main clause <br> E.g. The monkey, suffering from the loud noise, hid in the corner of the cage. Commas are usually used around the embedded clause. <br> The non-finite clause can be 'following' <br> E.g. Tom raised his hand, wondering what the time was. A comma is sometimes used after a following non-finite clause - it depends on the sentence. |
| Modal Verb |  | These are verbs that indicate likelihood, ability, permission or obligation. The main modal verbs are: will, would, can, could, may, might, shall, should, must and ought. <br> E.g. She might come to the party. |


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| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Relative Clause and Relative Pronoun |  | A relative clause begins with a relative pronoun (e.g. that, who, whose when, where, which etc...). <br> The relative clause can be 'embedded' - 'dropped in' the middle of the main clause. Commas are needed around the embedded clause. <br> E.g. The cat, who was fat, sat on the mat. <br> The relative clause can be 'following' - after the main clause <br> E.g. I go to school in Backwell, which is in Bristol. <br> N.B. If the information is not essential, and the first part of the sentence would make sense on its own, a comma is needed (see example above). However, if the extra information is essential for the sentence to make sense, no comma is used before a relative clause (e.g. It is best not to stroke a dog that you do not know) - no comma needed. <br> The relative pronoun can be omitted - this is still considered a relative clause. <br> E.g. This is the dress that I bought yesterday." <br> Since 'that' does not change the meaning or structure of the sentence, we can omit it. |
| Semi-colon | ; | To link two closely related independent clauses A semicolon can be used to join two related independent clauses, in place of a coordinating conjunction (FANBOYS). E.g. It's raining; I'm fed up. <br> I have a rugby match next week; I really hope we win. <br> To separate items in a list if any of the items contain commas (to avoid ambiguity) <br> E.g. Last year, we travelled to Dorchester, Dorset; Edinburgh, Scotland; and Whitby, North Yorkshire. <br> Year 5 are introduced to semi-colons in Year 5 but they will consolidate them in Year 6. |
| Subject of a sentence |  | This is usually a noun, pronoun or noun phrase that shows who or what is performing an action in the sentence. <br> E.g. He played the drums. <br> Venus is the only planet that rotates clockwise. <br> The car broke down. |
| Sentence Structures (simple, compound, complex and compoundcomplex sentences) |  | A simple sentence has one independent clause/main clause (one happening) e.g. The girl was dancing. <br> An independent clause (or main clause) makes sense by itself. It expresses a complete thought and has a subject and verb. <br> - A simple sentence may have a compound verb construction (two or more verbs): <br> E.g. The girl was dancing and smiling. |

- A simple sentence may have compound subject construction (two or more subjects):
E.g. The boy and girl were dancing.

A compound sentence is made up of two main clauses (simple sentences) which are joined together by a coordinating conjunction (often referred to as 'FANBOYS' For And Nor But Or Yet So). No comma is needed before or after a coordinating conjunction.
*To check if it's a compound sentence, replace the conjunction with a full stop and the two sentences should be able to stand alone.
E.g. The girl was dancing and she was smiling. The 'and' could be replaced with a full stop.

A complex sentence contains an independent (main) clause and at least one dependent clause. A dependent clause could come in the form of a:

- subordinate clause:
E.g. The girl was dancing because she liked the song.
- relative clause


## E.g. That is the woman who stole my purse!

- non-finite clause:
E.g. Spoiled by the warm temperature, the sandwiches were covered in mould.

A compound-complex sentence contains compound and complex elements.
E.g. Jenny, who lost her favourite toy last night, woke up in a bad mood so she decided to go to the shops to buy herself a new one.
E.g. Sophie's mum gave me a lift home but I forgot my key even though Mum reminded me to put it in my bag this morning.

## Year 5 Possible Activities

## READ! READ! READ!

Encourage your child to read from all sources: emails, internet, games instructions, daily newspapers, magazines, flyers, books...!

## Letter of Persuasion

Get writing! Write a persuasive letter about something important to them e.g. Why they should have the new computer game.

## Word Hunter

Choose a book, choose a SPaG pattern/feature and see how many of them you can spot in the story.
E.g. How many speech marks can you find?

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## Booklets

Create a story or an information booklet for a younger member of the family or for fun. They could cut out pictures or draw illustrations.

Re-writing and editing
Get your child to re-read their own homework for errors and
to make improvements.
Letting them do this for themselves will help them to become more independent.

Letters and e-mails of information

Write a letter or an e-mail to a relation telling them about something they are proud of or something funny.

## Homophone Snap

Create a set of snap cards where pairs are made from homophones (e.g. sea/see or which/witch). The person who says snap first can only keep the cards if they can use each word within a sentence correctly.

## Scrap booking

Keeping a holiday diary or making a scrap book to record holidays and interesting days is a great way to practise writing.

## Word games

Play word and spelling games e.g. Junior scrabble, Boggle, computer versions of word games such as BBC

Schools, hangman, countdown, spelling ladders etc.

## See *** Year 5 and 6 Spelling (below Year 6 terminology)

## Terminology introduced in Year 6

Please note that pupils will continue to review the grammar terminology and spelling patterns from previous year groups; therefore, you may find it helpful to refer to the information given in other year groups.
Note that children in Year 6 will consolidate many things that have been introduced in Year 5, especially the following: parenthesis; hyphens; semi-colons; colons; passive and active voice; and object/subject of a sentence.

A word opposite in meaning to another.
E.g. bad is an antonym of good.
off is an antonym of on.
Antonyms are often linked to synonyms (words with the same or similar meaning - see Year 2 for further information).
Bullet points are little markers at the start of a line which are used to separate items in a list. Bullet points, like numbered lists, help to break down a set of key ideas or items so that the reader can see them all easily; we use bullets instead of numbers when the items in the list don't need to go in any particular order.

## Punctuating Bullet Points

The information on some bullet point lists needs to follow

## Bullet Points

Listing facts: facts are usually given as statements in a sentence and need a capital letter and full stop. E.g.

Fascinating Space Facts

- Because of Mars's lower gravity, you would weigh less there than you do on Earth.
- Venus spins in the opposite direction to the other planets.
- Uranus takes 84 Earth years to orbit the sun.

Listing questions: typically in sentences so they need a capital letter and question mark. E.g.

Questions for Queen Victoria


|  |  | - How many children do you have? <br> - Which is your favourite palace? <br> - Have you got any pets? <br> Listing things or items: usually just words or phrases so they don't need sentence punctuation. If your list has a stem followed by a colon, each item needs a semi-colon except the last, which has a full stop. Please note that a colon can only be used after a main clause (a full sentence) - e.g. you could use it after 'You will need several items' but not after 'You will need'). See below for example: |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Colon | : | In addition to using a colon to separate two main clauses (see Year 5), they can be used to introduce a list. Note, the first part of the sentence (before the colon) should make sense as a complete sentence - i.e. you should be able to put a full stop after it. <br> E.g. Little Red Riding Hood carried a selection of provisions for Grandma: a loaf of bread, some apples and a freshly-wrapped pat of butter. |
| Ellipsis | - - | An ellipsis is a punctuation mark made up of three dots (...) and it is used to: <br> - show an omission of a word or words (including whole sentences) from a text - this can help keep writing succinct by removing redundant words: <br> E.g. [...] The Eagle has landed. Astronaut Neil Armstrong). Original: "Houston, Tranquillity Base here. The Eagle has landed." <br> - create a pause for effect or to cause tension: <br> E.g. And the winner is ... James Dean! <br> - show an unfinished (but obvious) thought: E.g. "I never thought...." <br> - trail off into silence: <br> E.g. With the Lord's Prayer mumbling across our lips, we climbed the ladders.... <br> Note that when an ellipsis ends a sentence, you need the three dots for the ellipsis and one for the full stop). |
| Homonyms |  | Homonyms are words that have the same spelling and/or pronunciation but have different meanings. <br> E.g. I am sure I am right. (right as in correct) <br> Take a right turn at the traffic lights. (right as in the direction) |


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| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Past progressive form |  | Indicates a continuing action or state that was happening at some point in the past. This tense is formed with the helping "to be" verb (i.e. was/were), in the past tense, plus the present participle of the verb (with an -ing ending): <br> E.g. I was riding my bike all day yesterday. <br> Joel was being a terrible role model for his younger brother. <br> The past progressive indicates a limited duration of time and is thus a convenient way to indicate that something took place (in the simple past) while something else was happening: Carlos lost his watch while he was running. <br> The past progressive can express incomplete action: I was sleeping on the sofa when Bertie smashed through the door. |
| Perfect form |  | Used to indicate a completed, or "perfected," action or condition. Perfect verb forms connect an event or activity in the past to another point in time (past, present or future). Verbs in the perfect form use a form of "have" or "had" + the past participle (it is the form of the helping verb that indicates the tense). <br> Verbs can appear in any one of three perfect tenses: present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect: <br> Present Perfect: I have finished my homework already. Past Perfect: He had watched TV for an hour before dinner. Future Perfect: We will have finished our project by Friday. |
| Present progressive tense |  | The present progressive tense (sometimes called the present continuous) is a tense which describes an action which began in the past and is still going on now. It requires a present form of the verb 'to be' and the '-ing' form of the main verb. <br> Any sentence that uses 'is' or 'are' and then a verb with the 'ing' suffix is present progressive tense. E.g. <br> Ali is swimming in the pool. <br> I am buying my Christmas gifts early this year. <br> The car is going very fast. <br> The team are winning the game. |
| Question tags |  | A question we can add to the end of a statement. The basic rules for forming the two-word tag questions are as follows: <br> - the subject in the statement matches the subject in the tag <br> - the auxiliary verb or verb 'to be' in the statement matches the verb used in the tag <br> - if the statement is positive, the tag is usually negative and vice versa <br> E.g. You've posted my letters, haven't you? <br> You aren't going to cry when I leave, are you? <br> Jack plays with you, doesn't he? <br> There's nothing wrong, is there? |
| Semi-colon | ; | In addition to using semi-colons to link two closely related independent clauses and to separate items in a list (see Year 5), they can also be used to link one sentence to another closely related sentence that uses a conjunctive adverb. |

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|  |  | E.g. <br> The wolf liked Little Red Riding Hood; nevertheless, he was <br> looking forward to eating her. <br> Little Red Riding Hood didn't like the forest much; however, she <br> did like visiting Grandma. <br> Other examples of conjunctive adverbs which could be <br> preceded by a semi-colon: otherwise, therefore, moreover, <br> nevertheless, thus, besides, accordingly, consequently, instead, <br> hence. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Subjunctive |  |  |
| forms | The subjunctive form (or subjunctive mood) is a verb form which <br> shows things that could or should happen. You use it to show <br> things like hopes, dreams, demands and suggestions. <br> E.g. If I were you, I would put that back. <br> If that were the case, I would leave. |  |
| Beyonce's song 'If I Were A Boy' is a perfect example of the <br> subjunctive form. You use this when you're talking about <br> something you wish or something that isn't true. This is why <br> Beyonce says' If I WERE a boy' instead of 'was' - because <br> she's referring to something that isn't true. |  |  |

## Year 6 Possible Activities

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newspapers, magazines, flyers, books...!

Booklets
Create a story or an information booklet for a younger member of the family or for fun. They could cut out pictures or draw illustrations.
Re-writing and editing
Get your child to re-read their own homework for errors and to make improvements. Letting them do this for themselves will help them to become more independent.

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Get writing! Write a persuasive letter about something important to them e.g. Why they should have the new computer game.

## Letters and e-mails of

 informationWrite a letter or an e-mail to a relation telling them about something they are proud of or something funny.

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Keeping a holiday diary or making a scrap book to record holidays and interesting days is a great way to practise writing.

## Word games

Play word and spelling games e.g. Junior scrabble, Boggle, computer versions of word games such as BBC Schools, hangman, countdown, spelling ladders etc.

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***Year 5 and 6 Spelling
In Key Stage 2, spelling is taught using the North Somerset Learning Exchange Spelling Progression Scheme, which is aligned with the National Curriculum 'English - Appendix 1: Spelling' document (this gives a breakdown of spellings taught in each year group).

It is expected that children should be able to spell most of the words below by the end of Year 5:

Word list - years 5 and 6

| accommodate | embarrass | persuade |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| accompany | environment | physical |
| according | equip (-ped, -ment) | prejudice |
| achieve | especially | privilege |
| aggressive | exaggerate | profession |
| amateur | excellent | programme |
| ancient | existence | pronunciation |
| apparent | explanation | queue |
| appreciate | familiar | recognise |
| attached | foreign | recommend |
| available | forty | relevant |
| average | frequently | restaurant |
| awkward | government | rhyme |
| bargain | guarantee | rhythm |
| bruise | harass | sacrifice |
| category | hindrance | secretary |
| cemetery | identity | shoulder |
| committee | immediate(ly) | signature |
| communicate | individual | sincere(ly) |
| community | interfere | soldier |
| competition | interrupt | stomach |
| conscience* | language | sufficient |
| conscious* | leisure | suggest |
| controversy | lightning | symbol |
| convenience | marvellous | system |
| correspond | mischievous | temperature |
| criticise (critic + ise) | muscle | thorough |
| curiosity | necessary | twelfth |
| definite | neighbour | variety |
| desperate | nuisance | vegetable |
| determined | occupy | vehicle |
| develop | occur | yacht |
| dictionary | opportunity |  |
| disastrous | parliament |  |


[^0]:    * A word about comma splicing *
    "Comma splicing" is where a comma is used incorrectly in place of a full stop.
    E.g. The man walked slowly to the station, he was early for the train.
    This is incorrect because the comma is placed between two main clauses - a full stop or conjunction is needed instead of a comma: The man walked slowly to the station. He was early for the train or The man walked slowly to the station because he was early for the train.

