



**THE NATIONAL CHURCH OF ENGLAND JUNIOR SCHOOL
A CURRICULUM OVERVIEW FOR GRAMMAR**



Terminology Previously Taught. In approximate order	Year	Terminology Taught	Year	Terminology Taught
Letter Capital letter Phoneme Grapheme Digraph Word Sentence Full stop Punctuation Question mark Exclamation mark Noun Singular and Plural Adjective Compound Suffix Adverb Verb Tense (past, present) Comma Statement Command Question Word Order Simile Alliteration Tri-graph Split digraph Root word	3	Apostrophe Preposition Root Word Conjunction and Connective Word family Prefix Clause vs phrase Subordinate clause Direct speech Consonant Vowel Inverted commas ('speech marks') First, Second and Third person Homograph, Homophone, Homonym Metaphor Personification	5	Modal verb Relative clause Parenthesis Bracket Dash Cohesion Ambiguity Generalising and Précising Relative pronoun Subject and Object Opinion vs Fact Commas (wider use of commas) Expanded noun phrases Colon Semi-colon Me vs I (in lists of people)
	4	Determiner Possessive apostrophe Pronoun Possessive Pronoun Adverbials Direct vs Reported Speech Bullet points Onomatopoeia a and an	6	Article Active vs Passive Synonym Antonym Ellipsis Hyphen Colon Semi-colon Past/Present, perfect/progressive tense Subordination and Co-ordination conjunctions Superlative Hyperbole

Glossary of Terms:

A and An

A and an are articles. As a general rule 'an' would be used for words that begin with a **vowel**, whilst 'a' would be for words that begin with a **consonant**. For example: an egg, an orange, an apple vs a pen, a shoe, a coat.

There are exceptions for when a word is pronounced as if it begins with a vowel because the letter is silent, so 'an hour' would need 'an' because the 'h' is a silent sound. In some cases it doesn't flow well and breaks the rule. For example: 'a European.'

Active and Passive

Most **verbs** can be either active or passive. For example, *wash: Susan washed the dog* (active). *The dog was washed by Susan* (passive).

In the active sentence, the **subject** (*Susan*) performs the action. In the passive sentence, the **object** (*The dog*) is on the receiving end of the action. The two sentences give the same information, but there is a change in focus. The first is about what Susan did (focusing on Susan; the second is about what happened to the dog (focusing on the dog).

Active: Somebody saw you. We must find them. I have repaired it.

Passive: You were seen. They must be found. It has been repaired.

In a passive sentence, the 'doer' (or agent) can sometimes be identified through the use of 'by ...'

Ben was bitten by the dog.

Very often, in passive sentences, the agent is unknown or insignificant and therefore not identified:

The computer has been repaired.

Adjective

An adjective is a descriptive word used to describe somebody or something (**noun**). *Old, white, busy, careful* and *horrible* are all adjectives. Adjectives either come before a noun, or after verbs such as *be, get, seem, look* (linking verbs):

A busy day, I'm busy, nice shoes, those shoes look nice

Adjectives (and adverbs) can have comparative (describing people and things) and superlative (used with the word 'the) forms.

old - older

hot - hotter

easy - easier

dangerous - more dangerous

The corresponding superlative forms are -est or most: -

small - the smallest

big - the biggest

funny - the funniest

important - the most important

Adverb

Adverbs are describing words that give extra meaning to a **verb**, an **adjective**, another **adverb** or a whole **sentence**:

I really enjoyed the party. (adverb + verb)

She's really nice. (adverb + adjective)

He works really slowly. (adverb + adverb)

Really, he should do better. (adverb + sentence)

Many adverbs are formed by adding -ly to an adjective, for example *quickly, dangerously, nicely*, but there are many adverbs which do not end in -ly. Note too that some -ly words are adjectives, not adverbs (eg *lovely, silly, friendly*).

In many cases, adverbs tell us:

how (manner) *slowly, happily, dangerously, carefully*

where (place) *here, there, away, home, outside*

when (time) *now, yesterday, later, soon*

how often (frequency) *often, never, regularly*

Other adverbs show degree of intensity:

very slow(ly), fairly dangerous(ly), really good/well

The attitude of the speaker to what he or she is saying: *perhaps, obviously, fortunately*

Connections in meaning between sentences (see **connective**): *however, furthermore, finally*

Adverbials come in two categories:

1. An **adverbial phrase** is a group of words that function in the same way as a single adverb. For example: *by car, to school, last week, three times a day, first of all, of course.*
They left yesterday (adverb). *She looked at me strangely* (adverb).
They left a few days ago (adverbial phrase).
She looked at me in a strange way. (Adverbial phrase)
2. Similarly, an **adverbial clause** functions in the same way as an adverb. For example:
It was raining yesterday. (Adverb)
It was raining when we went out (Adverbial clause).

Alliteration

The use of the same letter or sound at the beginning of adjacent or closely connected words.

The bouncing baby boy

The sweet sound of songs

Ambiguity

Ambiguity is a phrase or statement with more than one possible interpretation. This sometimes arises from unclear grammatical relationships. For example, in the phrase: '*She rode her horse wearing pyjamas*', it is not specified whether the rider or the horse is wearing pyjamas. Both interpretations are possible, although only one is logical. In poetry, ambiguity may extend meanings beyond literal meaning. Ambiguity can be deliberately used for humour, but is often accidental and needs clarifying.

Antonym

A word with a meaning opposite to another, for example: *hot/cold, light/dark, light/heavy.*

Apostrophe (') - Omissive

An apostrophe is a punctuation mark used to indicate either omitted (missing) letters or possession.

Omitted letters (a contraction)

We use an apostrophe for the omitted letter(s) when a verb is contracted (shortened).

For example:

I'm (I am) who's (who is/has)

They've (they have) he'd (he had/would)

We're (we are) it's (it is/has)

Would've (would have) she'll (she will)

In contracted negative forms, *not* is contracted to *n't* and joined to the verb:

Isn't, didn't, couldn't etc.

Note the difference between *its* ('belonging to it') and *it's* ('it is' or 'it has'). For Example

The company is to close one of its factories (no apostrophe). *The factory employs 800 people. It's*

(it is) the largest factory in the town (apostrophe necessary).

Apostrophe - Possessive

We use an apostrophe + *s* for the possessive form. For example:

My mother's car

Joe and Fiona's house

The cat's tail

James's ambition

A week's holiday.

With a plural 'possessor' already ending in *s* (eg *parents*), an apostrophe is added to the end of the word. For example:

My parents' car

The girls' toilets

Irregular plurals (eg *men*, *children*) have an apostrophe + *s*. For example:

Children's clothes

If a noun ends in *s*, we usually put the apostrophe after the first *s* (*James's*). However this rule is flexible (may also be written *James'*).

The regular plural form (*-s*) is often confused with possessive (*'s*). For example:

I bought some apples (not *apple's*).

Note that the possessive words: *yours*, *his*, *hers*, *ours*, *theirs*, and *its* are not written with an apostrophe.

Article

These are types of **determiners** that are used alongside a **noun** to make it more specific (modify its definiteness). There are indefinite articles 'a/an' and definite articles 'the', in some cases 'some'. Whether 'a' or 'the' is used changes the emphasis on a noun. For example: 'I went to the zoo and saw a gorilla' indicates any gorilla (general) being talked about. Compared to, 'I went to the zoo and saw the gorilla,' this indicates a specific gorilla being talked about.

Bracket()

Brackets are punctuation used to indicate **parenthesis**. Brackets are used to demarcate non-essential, short pieces of information that would benefit the readers' understanding. If the information marked out by brackets were removed from the sentence, then it would still make sense.

For Example: The Second World War (1939-1945) was... or Mount Everest (in the Himalayas) is the highest mountain in the world.

Bullet points(•)

Bullet points are thick dots mid-line that indicates the start of a brief sentence or short phrase; often used in lists. Ordered bullet points may begin with numbers instead (see **adverbials** for an example). It is acceptable to omit full stops at the end of bulleted points if not using full sentences.

Capital letter

Capital letters are used as the first **letter** of a sentence, a proper noun (Canada), or a proper adjective (Canadian). Known as upper case, they are not joined to other letters under the National School's handwriting policy.

Clause

A clause is a group of words that express an event (*The man sat still*) or a situation (*he was tired*).

Clauses contain a subject (*man/he* in the examples) and verb (*tired/was*.)

Clauses are similar to but different from phrases because a clause has a subject doing a verb whereas a phrase does not.

A **phrase** like *a tall giraffe* is a phrase because 'a tall giraffe' has a subject but doesn't say what the giraffe did or what happened to it. To become a clause the writer needs to include a verb. A tall giraffe ate (verb) from a tall tree.

A sentence can be made up from one or more clauses:

It was raining (one clause)

It was raining and we were cold (two main clauses joined by and).

It was raining when we went out (main clause containing a subordinate clause – the subordinate clause is underlined).

Main clause

A Main clause is a part (or whole) sentence that makes sense on its own, it requires no extra information to make sense. For example: 'It is snowing'

Subordinate clause

A subordinate clause is part of a sentence that doesn't make sense on its own and needs a main clause to make sense
For Example: *when we went out*

In the following examples, the subordinate clauses are underlined:

You'll hurt yourself if you're not careful.

Although it was cold, the weather was pleasant enough.

Where are the biscuits (that) I bought this morning?

John, who was very angry, began shouting.

Note that the location of the subordinate clause in the sentence isn't important and may require extra words for **cohesion**. Writers will vary the location of a clause to improve flow of writing.

Although most clauses require a subject and verb, some subordinate clauses do not. In many cases, the verb *be* can be understood. For example:

The weather, although (it was) rather cold, was pleasant enough.

When (you are) in Rome, do as the Romans do.

Cohesion

In writing, grammatical cohesion is the use of **conjunctions**, **pronouns**, **ellipsis**, **adverbs**, **adverbials**, **synonyms** and structure to ensure the writing flows and makes sense to a reader, without being repetitive.

A writer may have ideas such as: James is bored. James went to the park. James went on the swings. James went on the slide. Sarah came to the park. James and Sarah went onto the grass. James and Sarah played Frisbee. To make that flow it needs cohesion.

It becomes: James was bored so (conjunction) he (pronoun) walked to the park. He went on the slide then (adverb) played on the swings. After a while (adverbial) his friend Sarah arrived (ellipsis-*at the park* isn't needed) and asked James to play Frisbee with her (pronoun.) The pair (synonym) went onto the grass and (conjunction) began to play (ellipsis, no need to mention the Frisbee again.)

Colon(:)

A colon is a punctuation mark used to introduce a list or a following example. It may also be used before a second clause in place of a **conjunction** that expands or illustrates the first. For example:

He was very cold: the temperature was below zero.

Comma (,)

Commas have a variety of uses in writing structure, there are 4 main uses taught in the National School's English curriculum.

- 1) To separate **clauses**: In this case the writer wants a pause in the sentence, for the reader to draw breath and to show the change to extra information (clause.) For example: He scored top marks in the test, however he has been copying.
- 2) To separate items in a list: When listing items commas are used to clearly separate the items and avoid the repetition of 'and', the final item uses a **conjunction** usually 'and'. For Example: They packed blankets, sweets, torches and books for the camping trip.
- 3) To demarcate **parentheses**: In sentences that use parentheses commas are the most common way to identify parenthesis. James, a 23-year-old beggar from Hale, left his 4-million-pound mansion to live on the streets. In this case the extra information is clearly marked using a pair of commas.
- 4) In direct speech: When identifying a speaker mid-speech commas are needed. "FAT," shouted Henry, "Who are you calling FAT?"

Compound

Compound words are when two words are joined together to make a new word (firefly, playground, redhead, keyboard, makeup, notebook). They are sometimes **hyphenated** (daughter-in-law, over-the-counter).

Conjunction

A word that is used to connect **clauses** within a sentence or to connect sentences.

There are two kinds of conjunction:

1. Co-ordinating conjunctions (and, but, or, so). These join (and are placed between) two clauses of equal weight. For example:

Do you want to go now or shall we wait a bit longer?

And, but and or are also used to join words or phrases within a clause.

2. Subordinating conjunctions (eg *when, while, before, after, since, until, if, because, although, that*). These go at the beginning of a **subordinate clause**:

We were hungry because we hadn't eaten all day.

Although we'd had plenty to eat, we were still hungry.

We were hungry when we got home.

Some confusion arises over the terminology of conjunctions and connective because they are very similar and they do the same job. Many examples of connectives are also conjunctions. Children need to know the role they play and how to use them, knowing the finer differences between them isn't important.

Connective

A connective is a word or phrase that links clauses or sentences. Connectives can be conjunctions (*but, when, because*) or connecting adverbs (*however, then, therefore*).

Connecting adverbs (and adverbial phrases and clauses) maintain the **cohesion** of a text in several 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, henceforth, hitherto, erstwhile

Consonant

These are letters of the alphabet that are not vowels. The 21 consonant letters in the English alphabet are B, C, D, F, G, H, J, K, L, M, N, P, Q, R, S, T, V, W, X, Y, and Z.

Dash (-)

Like **brackets**, a dash is used to demarcate parenthesis. Whilst brackets are used for short pieces of information the dash will spotlight information for effect on the reader.

For example: Ben – dear sweet Ben the family's beloved dog - was hit by the car... This makes the reader pay closer attention to the parenthesis than they would if it were commas or brackets, in this case giving an improved emotional effect on a reader.

Dashes can also be used in place of a comma or semi colon. For example: Things have changed a lot this year – mainly for the better.

Determiner

Determiners tell us whether the **noun phrase** is specific or general.

The specific determiners are:

The definite article: *the*

Possessives: *my, your, his, her, its; our, their, whose*

Demonstratives: *this, that, these, those*

Interrogatives: *which*

The general determiners are:

A, an, any, other, what

These are for when we are writing about things in general and the reader does not know exactly what we are referring to,

Digraph

Two letters representing one sound. For example: the word church has three digraphs (*ch/ur/ch*)

Split Digraph

When a digraph is split by a consonant it becomes a split digraph. For example: in the word 'wrote' the digraph 'oe' is separated by the letter 't'.

Tri-graph

Three letters representing one sound. For example: the word match the last three letters (tch) make one sound.

Direct Speech vs Reported Speech

There are two ways of reporting what somebody says, direct speech and reported speech (indirect speech.) Direct speech uses the speaker's original words exactly as they were said (quoting). In text, [speech marks](#) ('...' or "...") — also called inverted commas or quotation marks) mark the beginning and end of direct speech:

Helen said, 'I'm going home.'
'What do you want?' I asked.

A change in speaker needs a new line for clarity. The punctuation goes inside the speech marks.

Reported speech reports what was said but does not use the exact words of the original speaker. This may be because the speech was long or not worded exactly as the writer wanted it. Maybe the writer wants to give the highlights of what was said.

Typically we change pronouns and verb tenses, and speech marks are not used:

Helen said (that) she was going home.
I asked them what they wanted.

Ellipsis

Ellipsis is where words are omitted for effect or not needed ([cohesion](#)) and can be demarcated by ...

... is sometimes used to clarify that the omission is intentional the (cliff-hanger or unfinished thought) For example 'He turned the key and looked inside, he couldn't believe what he saw...

... is also used to show an unspecified passage of time. For example "I think . . . I have the winning ticket!" would be a short passage of time or longer passages: "Weeks later ... I finally heard from the competition organisers."

Exclamation mark (!)

An exclamation mark is used at the end of a [sentence](#) (which may be exclamative, imperative – to stress importance - or declarative) or an interjection to indicate strong emotion. For example:

What a pity!
Get out!
It's a goal!
Oh dear!

Figurative language

Use of [metaphor](#), [simile](#) or [personification](#) to create a particular impression or mood. It is where the writer uses non-literal language to create a clear image in the readers mind using references to something the readers will probably already know about.

A writer may develop an idea of a character's military approach to life by using phrases and words which are linked with the army, For example: he was something of loose cannon he rifled through the papers; he marched into the room; he paraded his knowledge (all metaphor); his hand came forward like a shot (simile) The trees were in ranks as far as the eye could see (personification.)

To link a character with a bird, she/he may use:

he flew down the stairs; they twittered to each other; he perched on his chair; his feathers were definitely ruffled.

First, Second and Third person

First person writing is written from the point of view of the writer and will use pronouns like I, me, my and our. Diary entries are written in the first person.

Second person writing is from the point of view of the reader and will use pronouns like you and your. Instruction manuals are written in the second person.

Third person writing is written using impersonal pronouns like she, he, they and them and isn't written from the point of view of any particular person but makes the reader feel like a non-participating viewer. As if they are watching unseen like most TV or films are viewed.

Full stop(.)

This punctuation is used to indicate the end of a sentence.

Generalising and Précising

Generalising is identifying the most important information from a text and presenting it in short general terms without giving too much detail. Introductions and conclusions of some text types will generalise information that is given in full during the rest of the text.

Précising is a similar skill but done for different reasons. It is taking longer wordy passages and editing out unnecessary or superfluous words or passages to make the text more concise and effective.

Grapheme

Written representation of a sound; may consist of one or more letters. For example the phoneme *s* can be represented by the graphemes *s*, *se*, *c*, *sc* and *ce* as in *sun*, *mouse*, *city*, *science*.

Homograph

Words which have the same spelling as another, but different meaning: the calf was eating/my calf was aching; the North Pole/totem pole; he is a Pole.

Pronunciation may be different: a lead pencil/the dog's lead; furniture polish/Polish people.

Homonym

Words that have the same spelling or pronunciation as another, but different meaning or origin.

May be a [homograph](#) or [homophone](#).

Homophone

Words which have the same sound as another but different meaning or different spelling. For example: *read/reed*; *pair/pear*; *right/write/rite*.

Hyperbole (pronounced Hi-per-bol-ee)

Statements or opinions that are obvious exaggerations and not meant to be taken literally by the reader as there is it is obviously written/said for effect. For example:

I am so hungry I could eat a horse.

I have a million things to do.

He's got tons of money.

You could have knocked me over with a feather.

Hyphen (-)

A hyphen is sometimes used to join the two parts of a [compound](#) word, where it is much more usual for them to be written as single words

For example:

In compound adjectives and longer phrases used as modifiers before nouns:

A foul-smelling substance

A well-known painter

A German-English dictionary

A one-in-a-million chance

A state-of-the-art computer

A ten-year-old girl

In many compound nouns where the second part is a short word like *in*, *off*, *up* or *by*:

A break-in

A write-off

A mix-up

A passer-by

In many words beginning with the prefixes co-, non- and ex-:

Co-operate

Non-existent

Ex-husband

Inverted commas ('speech marks')

Inverted commas are used to demarcate something said. Either “” sometimes referred to as the more memorable 66’s and 99’s or ‘’, which are more common in the novels they read. Children need to ensure that only what is being said is demarcated and not the ‘said James’ afterwards. For example: “Let’s play football” said James. A new line is required if the speaker changes, but not if the same speaker continues his speech. (See [commas 4](#) for same speaker rule). See [direct speech](#) for more information.

Letter

The English language is made up of 26 Letters (see [Vowel](#) and [Consonant](#)). These letters can be joined to make [graphemes](#) and [phonemes](#), which in turn make words.

Metaphor

Metaphor is an example of [figurative language](#). Metaphor is when a writer compares something to something else directly to help the reader imagine it. It requires the reader to understand the writer is not literal in the comparison. For example ‘She had diamond eyes’ The writer is trying to draw a comparison to bright, sparkling or eyes that have good clarity, depending on the context. The reader can evoke a very clear and distinct image with a good metaphor with very few words from the writer, who can in turn avoid long phrases to get the same point across. It requires the reader to understand that she hasn’t literally got diamonds for eyes.

Note that [simile](#) is a very similar grammar type with the key difference that similes will use ‘like’ or ‘as’ in their comparisons to avoid [ambiguity](#). The same sentence would be, ‘She had eyes like diamonds’ or ‘She had diamond-like eyes.’

Modal verb

Modal verbs are words that indicate possibility willingness, prediction, speculation, deduction and necessity: can/could, will/would, shall/should, may/might, must/ought.

We use the negative can’t or cannot to show that something is impossible:

‘That can’t be true.’

‘You cannot be serious.’

We use the modal ‘must’ to show we are sure something to be true and we have reasons for our belief:

‘It’s getting dark. It must be quite late.’

‘You haven’t eaten all day. You must be hungry.’

We use the modal ‘should’ to suggest that something is true or will be true in the future, and to show you have reasons for your suggestion:

‘Ask Miranda. She should know.’

‘It’s nearly six o’clock. They should arrive soon.’

We use ‘should have’ to talk about the past.

‘It’s nearly eleven o’clock. They should have arrived by now.’

Me vs I (in lists of people)

I and me are [pronouns](#) referring to the self in [first person](#). They are often well understood by children as they will use these pronouns correctly in speech. Children tend to struggle when it comes to including themselves (as I and me) in lists, as it is often colloquially spoken differently to formal English. There are two main rules to getting it right grammatically.

1. Put other people in the list first and yourself last. Many children in speech will say ‘me, Steven and Jenny went to...’ and put this into their writing. The correct version would be the personal pronoun last – ‘Steven, Jenny and me’ (me or I depending on the rest of the sentence)
2. The next rule is whether to use ‘me’ or ‘I’ at the end of the sentence. The way to work this out is to look at the rest of the sentence. Remove the other people in the list and see what you would have put, me or I if the list of people wasn’t there
For Example:

~~‘Steven, Jenny and I went to the park.’~~ - ‘Me went to the park’ sounds wrong so, ‘Steven, Jenny and I went to the park,’ is the correct version.’

‘Mrs Smith asked ~~Jenny and~~ me to hand out the letters’ So ‘Mrs Smith asked I to hand out the letters’ sounds wrong so in this case ‘Mrs Smith asked Jenny and me to hand out the letters,’ would be the correct usage.

As children learn that they need to put themselves last they tend to stick to saying ‘I’ regardless of the rest of the sentence because it sounds like formal English.

Noun

A noun is a word that denotes person, place or object. In the sentence, ‘My younger sister won some money in a competition,’ ‘sister’, ‘money’ and ‘competition’ are all nouns.

Many nouns (countable nouns) can be singular (only one) or plural (more than one).

E.g. sister/sisters, problem/problems, party/parties. Other nouns (mass nouns) do not normally occur in the plural. For example: butter, cotton, electricity, money, happiness.

Collective nouns are words that refers to a group. For example, crowd, flock, team.

Some animals have specific collective nouns. For example a pod of whales, a parliament of owls, a murder of crows.

Proper nouns are the names of specific people, places, organisations, etc. These normally begin with a **Capital letter**. For example: Amanda, Birmingham, Microsoft, Jesus, November.

Noun phrase is when more than one word (but not a **verb**) combines to give a wider definition of the noun. It can refer to a single noun (money), a pronoun (it) or a group of words that functions in the same way as a noun in a sentence. For example:

A lot of money, My younger sister, A new car

Similarly, a noun clause functions in the same way as a noun phrase but with a verb. For example:

The story was not true. (Noun) - What you said was not true. (Noun clause)

Expanded noun phrases are the same as noun phrases with extra information added usually a ‘with’ afterwards for more detail. For example: ‘A new car with go faster stripes on.’ Or ‘My younger sister with the long pigtails.’

Onomatopoeia

These are words that sound as they are spelt. For example: boom, oink, slap, ting, ping, cuckoo, hoot and sizzle

Opinion vs Fact

An **opinion** is something someone believes but cannot be backed up by evidence. For example ‘green is the best colour’, ‘Toy Story isn’t as good as Up’. These are beliefs held by the speaker based on their own experience but there is no way to prove it.

Some opinions are more reliable depending on the speaker, for example a soldier’s opinion on war is more reliable than someone who knows very little about war, but has an opinion regardless.

Fact on the other hand is something that can be proven. ‘Toy Story is a Disney movie’, ‘green is a colour’ or ‘World War II started in 1939.’ These will remain facts regardless of opinion on the matter. Facts are often used to form or back up opinions.

Parenthesis (Plural: Parentheses)

Parentheses are a word or phrase inserted as an explanation or afterthought into a passage added in to avoid ambiguity or clarify something to the reader. When parentheses are removed from sentences they will still be grammatically complete without it but are nevertheless useful to the readers’ understanding.

They can be demarcated in 3 ways depending on what’s being written:

1. **Brackets** are good for short bits of information when it's detailed or not exciting enough to deserve dashes
The bike (the red one) is fast. For example:
The Second World War (1939-1945) was....
2. **Commas** are good for adding simple and straight forward but important extra information. For example:
Diamonds, which are expensive, aren't something I buy very often.
3. **Dashes** are good for interrupting the sentence to spotlight the extra information. This will focus the reader on it more than the commas; it'll help them feel the right emotions and think the right things.

For Example: They carelessly ran out into the road when George - dear sweet George the family's beloved dog - was hit by a car...

Personification

Personification is an example of **figurative language** where human characteristics are used to describe something non-human. For example: The flowers waltzed in the gentle breeze.

Phoneme

A phoneme is the smallest contrastive unit of sound in a word. There are approximately 44 **phonemes** in English (the number varies depending on the accent). A phoneme may have variant pronunciations in different positions; for example, the first and last sounds in the word 'little' are variants of the phoneme /l/. A phoneme may be represented by one (p), two (ch), three (tch) or four letters (ough).

Prefix

A prefix can be added to the beginning of a **root word** to change its meaning.

For example:

<i>In</i> edible	'In' is the prefix and 'edible' is the root word
<i>Dis</i> appear	'Dis' is the prefix and 'appear' is the root word
<i>Super</i> market	'Super' is the prefix and 'market' is the root word
<i>Un</i> intentional	'Un' is the prefix and 'intentional' is the root word

Preposition

Prepositions words often used to indicate time, position or direction.

A preposition is a word like at, over, by and with. It is usually followed by a **noun /noun phrase**.

In the examples, the prepositions are bold and the following nouns are underlined:

We got home **at** midnight.

Did you come here **by** car?

Are you coming **with** me?

They jumped **over** a fence.

I fell asleep **during** the film.

Pronoun

A pronoun is used to replace a **noun** to avoid repetition. For example: I, me, he, she, herself, you, it, that, they, each, few, many, who, whoever, whose, someone, everybody. These can be further categorised

Personal pronouns:

I/me, you, he/him, she/her, we/us, they/them, it

I like him. They don't want it.

Possessive pronouns

Mine, yours, his, hers, ours, theirs, its

Is this book yours or mine?

Reflexive pronouns

Myself, herself, themselves etc.

I hurt myself. Enjoy yourselves!

Indefinite pronouns

Someone, anything, nobody, everything etc.

Someone wants to see you about something.

Interrogative pronouns

Who/whom, whose, which, what

Who did that? What happened?

Relative pronouns

Who/whom, whose, which, that

The person who did that ... The thing that annoyed me was ...

Punctuation

Punctuation is a way of marking text to help readers' understanding. The ones taught in the National School:

[apostrophe](#), [colon](#), [comma](#), [dash](#), [ellipsis](#), [exclamation mark](#), [full stop](#), [hyphen](#), [semi-colon](#) and [speech marks \(inverted commas\)](#).

Question Mark (?)

A question mark is found at the end of a [sentence](#) which is asking a [question](#). A question asks someone for information, or to do something. It often includes a question word (what, when, where, who, why, how). For example:

What time do we have to meet you?

Where is the nearest train station?

How are you today?

Why are you not listening to the instructions?

Relative Clause

A relative clause gives extra information about something or someone. Relative clauses often begin with relative pronouns (who, whom, whose, which, that). For example:

An architect is a person who designs buildings.

Grace works for a company that makes furniture.

Relative Pronoun

A relative pronoun is used to connect a **clause** or **phrase** to a **noun** or **pronoun**. You see them used every day with the most common relative pronouns being: who, whom, which, whoever, whomever, whichever and that.

Semi-colon

A semi-colon is a punctuation mark that separates major sentence elements. A semi-colon can be used between two closely related independent clauses, provided they are not already joined by a **coordinating conjunction**. For example:

Ross did not want to go swimming; he was afraid to go in the water.

A semi-colon can also separate extra detail in a list. For example: I've been to London, England; Tokyo, Japan and Stockholm, Sweden.

Sentence

A sentence can be simple, compound or complex.

A simple sentence consists of one [clause](#). For example:

It was late.

A **compound sentence** has two or more clauses joined by and, or, but or so.

The clauses are of equal weight (they are both main clauses):

It was late but I wasn't tired.

A **complex sentence** consists of a main clause which itself includes one or more subordinate clauses:

Although it was late, I wasn't tired. (Subordinate clause)

Simple sentences can also be grouped as follows according to their structure:

Declarative (for statements, suggestions, etc). For example:

The class yelled in triumph.

Maybe we could eat afterwards.

Interrogative (for questions, requests, etc). For example:

Is your sister here?

Could you show me how?

Imperative (for commands, instructions, etc). For example:

Hold this!

Take the second left.

Exclamative (for exclamations). For example:

Look at this mess!

What a pity!

In writing, we mark sentences by using a capital letter at the beginning, and a full stop (or question mark or exclamation mark) at the end.

Singular and Plural

A singular form is used for one person or thing. For example: flower, school, child.

A plural form is used for more than one person or thing. For example: flowers, schools, children.

(**Verbs** sometimes have different forms for singular or plural. For example:

Where **does she** live? (singular)

Where **do they** live? (plural)

Simile

A simile states simply that something is like something else. For example: he ran as quick as lightning/ she sings like an angel/the cake tastes like heaven. See [Figurative Language](#)

Statement vs Command vs Question

A **statement** is a type of sentence. A statement simply gives information or expresses an [opinion](#). It always ends in a full stop. For example:

I want to be a good writer (gives information.) Or My friend is a really good writer (expresses an opinion).

A **command** is instructing someone to do something. For example:

Write well, give that to me, put your hand up

A **question** is asking someone something and ends in a question mark. For example:

Are you a good writer? Can you give that to me?

Suffix

Suffixes can be added to the end of a [root word](#) to change its meaning.

For example:

Referring '-ing' is the suffix and 'Refer' is the root word

Information '-ation' is the suffix and 'Inform' is the root word

Autograph '-graph' is the suffix and 'Auto' is the root word

Jumped '-ed' is the suffix and 'Jump' is the root word

Subject and Object

The subject in a sentence tells you who or what does the action.

Some sentences contain an object. The object is who or what the action is done to.

There can be more than one subject and more than one object in a sentence.

In the following sentences *Tom* is the subject:

Tom is eating an apple.

Tom saw Helen.

Tom plays football.

After the subject, there is a verb (is eating, saw, plays) and an object (an apple, Helen, football). The object is what he's eating, who he saw, what he plays.

The subject usually goes before the verb (Tom is eating), and the object goes after the verb (eating an apple).

Some verbs (for example: *give, show, buy*) can have two objects. For example:

Helen bought her mother a present.

Her mother is the indirect object (= receiver) and a present is the direct object (what Helen bought).

Superlative (pronounced su-perl-ative)

Superlatives are adjectives and adverbs that describe in the best possible terms.

The following are all examples of superlatives:

excellent, magnificent, wonderful, glorious, marvellous, brilliant, supreme, consummate, outstanding, prodigious, dazzling, remarkable, formidable, fine, choice, sterling, first-rate, first-class, of the first order, of the highest order, premier, prime, unsurpassed, unequalled, unparalleled, unrivalled, unbeatable, peerless, matchless, singular, unique, transcendent, best, greatest, worthiest, pre-eminent, perfect, faultless, flawless

Synonym

A synonym is a word or phrase that means exactly or nearly the same as another word or phrase in the same language, for example: *big/large, afraid/scared, hide/cover.*

Tense

A tense is a **verb** form that shows time. English verbs have two main tenses, present and past.

Present and past tenses can be simple or progressive (sometimes called continuous as the action being undertaken is continuous). For example:

Present	Past
I walk (simple present)	I walked (simple past)
I am walking (present progressive)	I was walking (past progressive)

All these can also be written in the perfect tense. Perfect forms have two parts. The present perfect tense refers to an activity that begins in the past and continues in the present and the past perfect tense shows one action had happened before another when both are in the past. This is generally achieved by adding the words have (present) or had (past).

For example:

I have walked (present perfect simple)	I had walked (past perfect simple)
I have been walking (present perfect progressive)	I had been walking (past perfect progressive)

Verb

A verb is a word for an action (go, eat, work), a happening (rain, find, die) or a state (be, know, want). In the sentence: *'Tom is hungry and wants something to eat.'* Is, wants and eat are all verbs.

Verbs have four or five different forms for example:

Infinitive (or base form)	+ s	+ ing (present participle)	Past simple	Past participle
Work	Works	Working	Worked	Worked
Buy	Buys	Buying	Bought	Bought
Eat	Eats	Eating	Ate	Eaten

Regular Verbs

The past simple and past participle of regular verbs are the same and end in -ed. For example:

I **worked**. (Past simple.)

I have **worked**. (Past participle used with have.)

Tom **Painted** the room. (Past simple.)

The room will be **Painted**. (Past participle used in the passive voice.)

Irregular Verbs

The past simple and past participle of irregular verbs are sometimes the same and sometimes different. But they do not end in -ed. For example:

I **lost** (past simple).

I have **lost** (past participle with have).

Somebody **stole** my pencil. (Past simple.)

My pencil was **stolen**. (Past participle used in the passive.)

Vowel

Vowel sounds are **phonemes** produced without audible friction or closure. These are represented by vowel **letters** a,e,i,o,u and in some words y is used as a vowel sound (fly,) but not recognised as a vowel letter.

Word and Root word

A word is a blending of phonemes to make something meaningful. S-i-gn becomes sign. This is the root word. Root words can have **prefixes** and **suffixes** added to them to alter the meaning of the root word.

Suffixes of sign can be: signature, signatory, signpost, signing, signal and a prefix could be ensign,

Word Family

A *word family* is a group of words that share a common base to which different prefixes and suffixes are added. For example:

Members of the word family based on the word 'work' include *rework*, *worker*, *working*, *workshop*, and *workmanship*, among others.

Word Order

Word order is the way words go together in a sentence. For example, we say:

A modern building (not *A building modern*).

I don't know where she is. (not *I don't know where is she*).

She always walks to school. (not *She walks always to school*).