St Bega's Grammar Guide

Love one another, as I have loved you.

Grammar Guide

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

Many verbs can be active or passive:

The dog bit Ben. **(active)**

Ben was bitten by the dog. **(passive)**

In the active sentence, the subject *(the dog)* performs the action/verb (bit).
In the passive sentence, the subject *(Ben)* is on the receiving end of the action.

The two sentences give similar information, but there is a difference in focus. The first is about what the dog did; the second is about what happened to Ben.

All passive forms are made up of the verb *be* + past **participle**.
In a passive sentence, the 'doer' (or agent) may be identified using the word ***by***:
Ben was bitten ***by the dog***.

But very often, in passive sentences, the agent is unknown or insignificant, and therefore not identified:
The computer has been repaired.

Passive forms are common in impersonal, formal styles:
It was agreed that ... (compare *We agreed that ...*).
Application forms may be obtained from the address below.

ADJECTIVE

An adjective is a word that describes somebody or something.

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 and superlative forms. The comparative form is adjective + *-er* (for one-syllable adjectives, and some two-syllable) or *more* + adjective (for adjectives of two or more syllables):
old - older
hot - hotter
easy - easier
dangerous - more dangerous

The corresponding superlative forms are *-est* or *most*:
small - smallest
big - biggest
funny - funniest
important - most important

ADVERB

An adverb is a **cohesive device**. Adverbs 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 (e.g. *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 and can modify another adverb:
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 **cohesive devices**):
however furthermore finally

Adverbs are mobile, they can move within a sentence:
However, a conjunct is more mobile.
A conjunct, **however**, is more mobile.
A conjunct is more mobile, **however**.

ADVERBIAL PHRASE

An **adverbial phrase** is a group of words that functions 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)

Similarly, an **adverbial clause** functions in the same way as an adverb:
It was raining yesterday. (adverb)
It was raining when we went out. (adverbial clause).

AGREEMENT (OR CONCORD)

In some cases, the form of a verb changes according to its subject (so the verb and subject 'agree').

This happens with the verb *be:*
I am/he is/they are
I was/you were

and the third person singular (*he/she/it*) of the present tense:
I like/she likes
I don't/he doesn't

Note that singular collective **nouns** (e.g. *team, family, government*) can take a singular or plural verb form. For example:
The team - (it) is playing well.
The team - (they) are playing well.

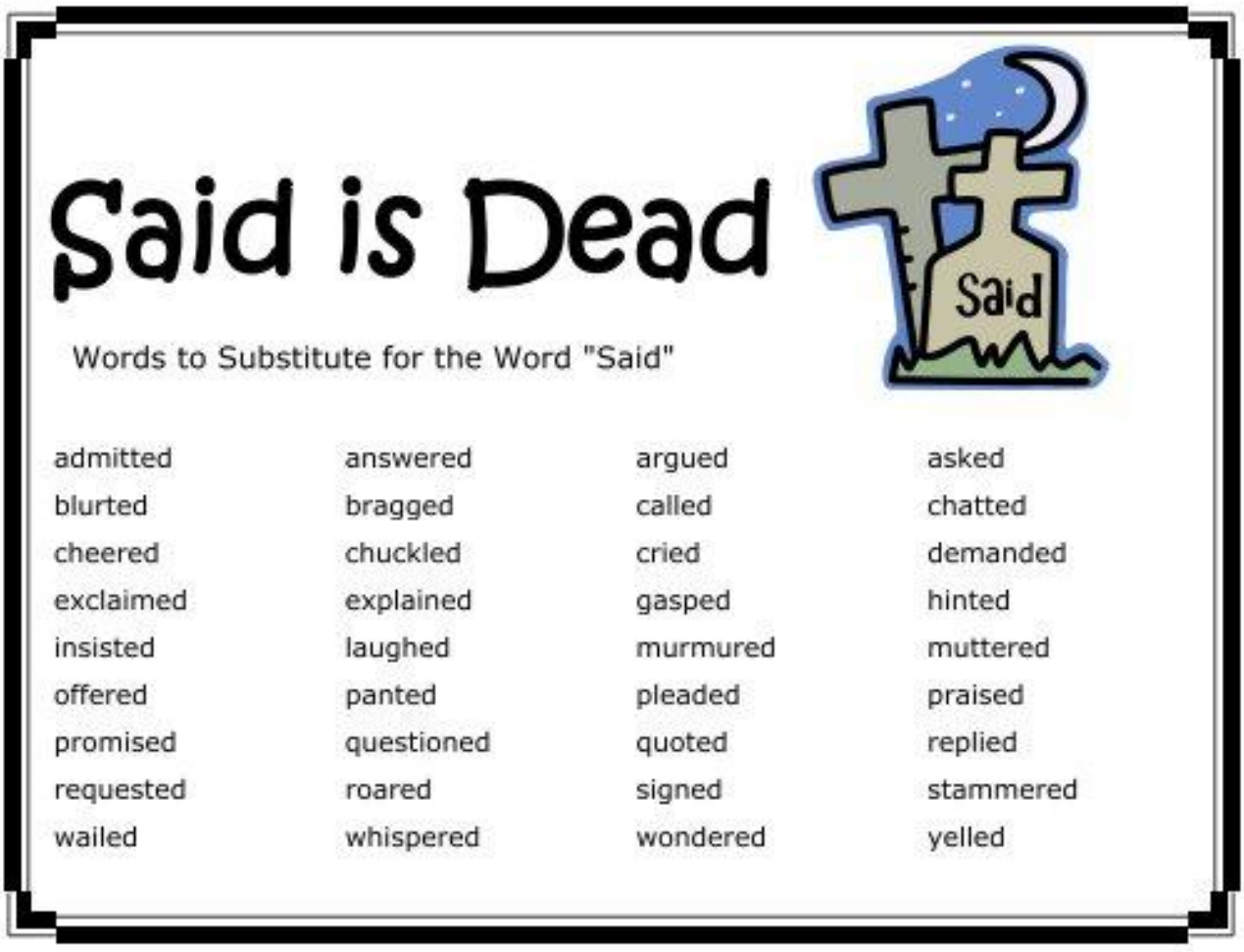
There are a few cases where a **determiner** must agree with a noun according to whether it is singular or plural:
this house - these houses
much traffic - many cars

ANTONYMS & SYNONYMS

Antonym - *a word with a meaning opposite to another.*
hot - cold
light – dark
light - heavy

A word may have more than one word as an antonym:
cold - hot/warm
big - small/tiny/little/titchy

Synonym - *words which have the same meaning as another word, or very similar: wet/damp. Avoids overuse of any word; adds variety.*



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

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

In formal written style, it is more usual to use the full form. There are a few other cases where an apostrophe is used to indicate letters that are in some sense 'omitted' in words other than verbs, e.g. *let's* (*let us*), *o'clock* (*of the clock*).

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

possession
We use an apostrophe + *s* for the possessive form:
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* (e.g. *parents*), an apostrophe is added to the end of the word:
my parents' car
the girls' toilets

But irregular plurals (e.g. *men, children*) take an apostrophe + *s*:
children's clothes
The regular plural form (*-s*) is often confused with possessive *-'s*:
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.

BRACKETS ( )

Used as a form of parenthesis to give extra information.
They can contain extra information or subordinate clauses.

The image (on page 10) shows the technique discussed.
The weather (which was awful) really ruined the day.

The sentence should still make sense if you remove the brackets and text within:
The image shows the technique discussed.
The weather really ruined the day.

BULLET POINTS

Used to draw attention to important information within a document so that the reader can identify the key issues and facts quickly.

There are no fixed rules about how to use them; consistency is the thing. Here are some guidelines, but you have the final decision.

The text introducing the list of bullet points should end with a colon.

If the text that follows the bullet point is not a proper sentence, it doesn't need to begin with a capital letter and it shouldn't end with a full stop, for example:

Tonight's agenda includes:

- *annual review of capital gains issues*
- *outstanding inheritance tax issues*

If the text following the bullet point **IS** a complete sentence, it should begin with a capital letter. A full stop at the end is technically required but is not absolutely essential:.
The agenda for tonight is as follows:

- *We will conduct an annual review of capital gains issues.*
- *The senior tax manager will talk about outstanding inheritance tax issues.*

Duties and responsibilities included:

- *teaching national curriculum to Key Stage 1 pupils*

- *reaching attainment targets and improving learning performance*
- *developing extracurricular sports programme*

Please note that this is the exception to using colons in a list sentence.

CLAUSE

A clause is a group of words that expresses an event or a situation:
She drank some water. (event)
She was thirsty. (situation)
It usually contains a **subject** (*she* in the examples) and **verb** (*drank/was*).

Note how a clause differs from a **phrase**:
a big dog (a phrase – this refers to 'a big dog' but doesn't say what the dog did or what happened to it).
A big dog chased me. (a clause – the dog did something)

A sentence is made up of 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)

A **main clause** is complete on its own and can form a complete sentence:
It was raining.
A **subordinate clause** (*when we went out*) is part of the main clause and cannot exist on its own.

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.

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

be understood. There can be a subordinating conjunction here too:
The weather, although rather cold, was pleasant enough.
(although it was rather cold)
When in Rome, do as the Romans do.
(when you are in Rome)
Glad to be home, George sat down in his favourite armchair.
(he was glad to be home)

COHERENCE AND COHESION

An effective text needs to be coherent and cohesive.
The term **coherence** refers to the underlying logic and consistency of a text. The ideas expressed should be relevant to one another so that the reader can follow the meaning.

The term **cohesion** refers to the grammatical features in a text which enable the parts to fit together. One way of creating cohesion is the use of cohesive devices (**connectives and conjunctions**):
I sat down and turned on the television. Just then, I heard a strange noise.
The phrase *'just then'* relates these events in time.

Cohesion is also achieved by the use of words (such as **pronouns**) that refer back to other parts of the text. In these examples, such words are underlined:
There was a man waiting at the door. I had never seen him before.
We haven't got a car. We used to have one, but we sold it.
I wonder whether Sarah will pass her driving test. I hope she does. (I hope Sarah passes her driving test)

COHESIVE DEVICES

A cohesive device sticks or connects text together.
Cohesive devices can be **conjunctions** (e.g. *but, when, because*) or adverbs (e.g. *however, then, therefore*).
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 adverbs or adverbial phrases or clauses:
First of all, I want to say that I am impressed.
didn't think much of the film. Helen, on the other hand, enjoyed it.

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:
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)

COLON (:)
A colon is a punctuation mark used to introduce a list or a following example (as in this glossary). It may also be used before a second clause that expands or illustrates the first.
He was very cold: the temperature was below zero.
Last night I ate a lot: crisps, sweets, chocolates and biscuits.

The text before the colon must be an independent clause (it must make sense on its own).

COMMA (,)
A comma is a punctuation mark used to help the reader by separating parts of a sentence. It sometimes corresponds to a pause in speech.
In particular we use commas to **separate items in a list** (but not usually before *and*):
My favourite sports are football, tennis, swimming and gymnastics.
I got home, had a bath and went to bed.

To mark off **extra information:**
Jill, my boss, is 28 years old.

After a subordinate clause which begins a sentence:

Although it was cold, we didn't wear our coats.

It is also used with many connecting **adverbs** (e.g. *however, on the other hand, anyway, for example*):
Anyway, in the end I decided not to go.

COMPLEX SENTENCES
A complex sentence contains a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses.
Although I was late, I wasn't tired.
My Gran (who is as wrinkled as a walnut) is one hundred years old.

Using a **subordinating conjunction** can create a complex sentence:
***Although** we'd had plenty to eat, we were still hungry.*

COMPOUND WORD
A word made up of two other words.
football
headrest
broomstick

COMPOUND SENTENCES
A compound sentence has two or more main clauses joined by a co-ordinating conjunction: and, but or so.
*I was late **but** I wasn't tired.*

When to use a **comma** in a compound sentence:

*The big dog was barking, **so** the postman ran away.*
*The big dog was barking, **but** the postman wasn't scared.*
*The big dog was barking, **and** the postman was scared.*
*The big dog was barking **and** slavering from its mouth.*

The rule: use a comma if it links two main clauses.

CONJUNCTION
A word used to link **clauses** within a sentence.
For example, in the following sentences, *but* and *if* are conjunctions:
It was raining but it wasn't cold.
We won't go out if the weather is bad.

There are two kinds of conjunction:

Co-ordinating conjunctions (*and, but, or* and *so*).

These join (and are placed between) two clauses of equal weight.
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.

Subordinating conjunctions (*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.*

CONSONANTS & VOWELS

A **consonant** is a speech sound which obstructs the flow of air through the vocal tract.
For example, the flow of air is obstructed by the lips in *p* and by the tongue in *l*. The term also refers to those letters of the alphabet whose typical value is to represent such sounds, namely all except *a,e,i,o,u*. The letter *y* can represent a consonant sound (*yes*) or a vowel sound (*happy*).

A vowel is a phoneme produced without audible friction or closure.
Every syllable contains a vowel. A vowel phoneme may be represented by one or more letters. These may be vowels (*maid,* or a combination of vowels and consonants *(start; could).*

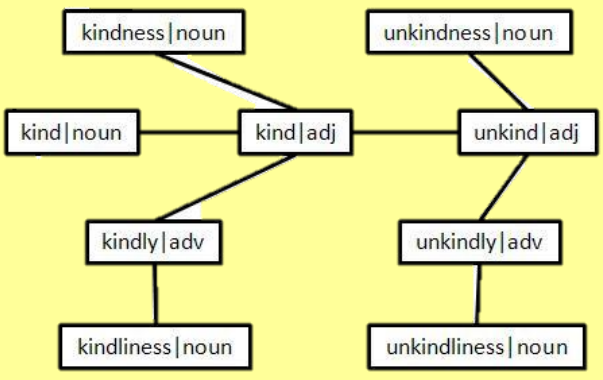
DASH (—)

A single dash is a punctuation mark used especially in informal writing (such as letters to friends, postcards or notes).
Dashes may be used to replace other punctuation marks (**colons**, **semi-colons**, **commas** or **brackets**):

It was a great day out — everybody enjoyed it.

DERIVATION

Tracing the origin of a word or saying.
It is also the formation of a new word from another word. This usually occurs by adding an **affix**. The derived word is often of a different word class than the original word.



DETERMINER

Determiners include many of the most frequent English words:

the
a
my
this

Determiners are used with nouns:

this book
my best friend
a new car

They limit (i.e. determine) the reference of the noun in some way. Determiners include:

articles *a, an, the*
demonstratives *this/that, these/those*
possessives *my/your/his/her/its/our/their*
quantifiers *some, any, no, many, much, few, little, both, all, either, neither, each, every, enough*
numbers *three, fifty, three thousand* etc.
some question words *which* (*which car?*), *what* (*what size?*), *whose* (*whose coat?*)

When these words are used as determiners, they are followed by a noun (though not necessarily immediately):

this book is yours
some new houses
Which colour do you prefer?

Many determiners can also be used as **pronouns.** These include the demonstratives, question words, numbers and most of the quantifiers. When used as pronouns, these words are not followed by a noun - their reference includes the noun:

This is yours. (this book, this money, etc.)
I've got some.
Which do you prefer?

DIRECT SPEECH AND INDIRECT SPEECH (INVERTED COMMAS)

There are two ways of reporting what somebody says, direct speech and indirect speech.

In **direct speech**, we use the speaker's original words (as in a speech bubble). In text, speech marks ('...' or "..." also called

inverted commas or quotes) mark the beginning and end of direct speech:
Helen said, 'I'm going home'.
'What do you want?' I asked.

In **indirect (or reported) speech**, we report what was said but do not use the exact words of the original speaker.
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.

DOUBLE NEGATIVE

In non-standard English, a double negative may be used.
We didn't see nobody.
I never took nothing.

Such double negatives are not acceptable in **standard English.** The equivalent standard forms would be:
We didn't see anybody.
I didn't take anything.

ELLIPSIS

Ellipsis is the omission of words in order to avoid repetition.
I don't think it will rain but it might. (it might rain)
'Where were you born?' 'Bradford.' (I was born in Bradford)

An ellipsis is also the term used for three dots (...) which show that something has been omitted or is incomplete.
It is also used for a **cliffhanger.**

EXCLAMATION

An exclamation is an utterance expressing emotion (joy, wonder, anger, surprise) and is usually followed in writing by an **exclamation mark (!)**.
Exclamations can be **interjections**:
Oh dear!
Good grief!
Ow!

Some exclamations begin with *what* or *how:*
What a beautiful day!
How stupid (he is)!
What a quiet little girl.

Exclamations like these are a special type of **sentence** ('exclamative') and may have no verb.

EXCLAMATION MARK (!)

An exclamation mark is used at the end of a **sentence** (which may be exclamative, imperative or declarative) or an **interjection** to indicate strong emotion:

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

FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE

Use of metaphor, personification or simile to create a particular impression or mood.

Metaphor – when something **is** something else:
He was a loose cannon. **(metaphor)**

When you give an object a human characteristic:
His eyes smiled at me. **(personification)**

When you say something is **like** or **as** another something else:
His eyes were as black as coal. **(simile)**

FINITE VERB

A sentence has at least one verb which is past or present. This is a finite verb. The imperative verb is also finite.

Lizzie **does** the dishes every day. (present tense)
Even Michael **did** the dishes once a week. (past tense)

Verbs that are **not finite** are participles or infinitives. They cannot stand on their own. They are linked to another verb in the sentence:
I *have* **done** them – combined with the finite verb *have*.

HANDWRITING

In written or typed script, many letters have the same height: *a, c, e, m, n, o, r, s, u, v, w, x, z, but an ascender does not.*

Some letters have parts which extend beyond this: *b, d, f, h, k, l, t*: These parts are called **ascenders**.

Some letters have parts which extend below this: *g, j, p, q, y.* These parts are called **descenders**. In some fonts, *f* and *z* have descenders.

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***

Pronunciation may be different:
*a **lead** pencil/the dog's **lead***
*Furniture **polish**/**Polish** people*

HOMONYM
Words which have the same spelling or pronunciation as another, but different meaning or origin. May be a **homograph** or **homophone.**
*I love **flowers.***
*I need some **flour** for my cake.*

HYPHEN (-)
A hyphen is sometimes used to join the two parts of a **compound** noun, as in *golf-ball* and *proof-read*. But it is much more usual for such compounds to be written as single words (e.g. *football, headache, bedroom*) or as separate words without a hyphen (*golf ball, stomach ache, dining room, city centre*).

a. 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

b. 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

c. in many words beginning with the prefixes *co-, non-* and *ex-*:
co-operate
non-existent
ex-husband

INFINITIVE
The infinitive is the base form of the verb without any additional endings.

For example, *play* is an infinitive form (as opposed to *playing*, *played* or *plays*). The infinitive is used with many **auxiliary verbs**:
I will play.
He should play.
Do you play?

The infinitive is often used with *to* (*to play*, *to eat* etc):
I ought to play.
I want to play.
I'm going to play.
It would be nice to play.

The simple present tense (*I play, they play* etc) has the same form as the infinitive, except for the **third person** singular (*he/she/it plays*).

MNEMONIC
A device to aid memory, for instance to learn particular spelling patterns or spellings.
I Go Home Tonight; There is a rat in separate.

MODAL VERB
A **modal verb** is a type of auxiliary verb that is used to indicate modality – this is likelihood, ability, permission and obligation.

The modal verbs are:
can/could
will/would
shall/should
may/might
must/ought

These **auxiliary verbs** are used to express such ideas as possibility, willingness, prediction, speculation, deduction and necessity. They are all followed by the **infinitive**, and *ought* is followed by *to* + infinitive:
I can help you.
We might go out tonight.
You ought to eat something.
Stephanie will be here soon.
I wouldn't do that if I were you.
I must go now.

These verbs can occur with other auxiliary verbs (*be* and *have*):

I'll be leaving at 11.30.
You should have asked me.
They must have been working.

In this context *have* is unstressed and therefore identical in speech to unstressed *of*; this is why the misspelling *of* for standard *have* or *'ve* is not uncommon.

NOUN

A noun is a word that denotes somebody or something.
In the sentence:
My younger sister won some money in a competition.
'sister', 'money' and *'competition'* are nouns.

Many nouns (countable nouns) can be **singular** (only one) or **plural** (more than one):
sister/sisters
problem/problems
party/parties.

Other nouns (mass nouns) do not normally occur in the plural. For example: *butter, cotton, electricity, money, happiness.*

A **collective noun** is a word that refers to a group. For example, *crowd, flock, team.* Although these are singular in form, we often think of them as plural in meaning and use them with a plural verb:
The team have won all their games so far, we think of *'the team'* as *'they'* (rather than *'it'*).

Proper nouns are the names of people, places, organisations, etc. These normally begin with a capital letter:
Amanda
Birmingham
Microsoft
Islam
November.

Noun phrase is a wider term than '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
the best team in the world

Expanded noun phrase is:
The big dog with yellow teeth

Similarly, a **noun clause** functions in the same way as a noun. For example:
The story was not true. (noun)
What you said was not true. (noun clause)

Abstract nouns represent things that you cannot sense, it is the name we give to an emotion, ideal or idea: *love, regret* etc.

ONOMATOPOEIA
Words which echo sounds associated with their meaning:
clang, hiss, crash, cuckoo

PARAGRAPH
A section of a piece of writing. A new paragraph marks a change of focus, a change of time, a change of place or a change of speaker in a passage of dialogue.

A new paragraph begins on a new line, usually with a one-line gap separating it from the previous paragraph. Some writers also indent the first line of a new paragraph.

Paragraphing helps writers to organise their thoughts, and helps readers to follow the story line, argument or dialogue

PARENTHESIS
A parenthesis is a word or phrase inserted into a sentence to explain or elaborate.
It may be placed in **brackets** or between **dashes** or **commas**. If you remove the parenthesis the remaining sentence should make sense on its own.

Sam and Emma (his oldest children) are coming to visit him next weekend.
Margaret is generally happy – she sings in the mornings – but responsibility weighs her down.
Sarah is, I believe, our best student.

The term parentheses can also refer to the brackets themselves.

PARTICIPLE

Verbs have a present participle and a past participle.

present participle

The present participle ends in *-ing* (*working*, *reading*, *going* etc). Although it is called 'present', it is used in all continuous forms: *she is going, she was going, she will be going, she would have been going,* etc.

The *-ing* ending is also used for a verb functioning as a noun. For example: *I enjoy reading*, *Reading is important*. ('*Reading*' is used as a noun in these examples.) This *-ing* form is sometimes called a verbal noun or a gerund.

past participle

The past participle often ends in *-ed* (*worked*, *played*) but many common verbs are irregular and have other endings, e.g. *-t* (*kept*), *-n* (*flown*), and *-en* (*stolen*).

Past participles are used:

a. after *have* to make perfect forms: *I've worked, he has fallen, we should have gone*

b. after *be* (*is/was* etc) to make passive forms: *I was asked, they are kept, it has been stolen*

Here too, the name is misleading, because passive forms need not refer to the past: *A toast will be drunk*.

Participles (present and past) are sometimes used as adjectives: *the falling leaves, stolen goods*. They can also be used to introduce subordinate clauses:

Being a student, Tom doesn't have much money. Written in 1923, the book has been translated into twenty-five languages.

PERFECT

As well as being regular and irregular and past and present forms of verbs, they can also be perfect and **progressive**.

The chef has cooked lunch for us – *present perfect (to have and -ed)*

They can also be *perfect* and *progressive* <u>combined.</u>

The chef had been cooking lunch for us – *past perfect progressive*

PERSON

In grammar, a distinction is made between first, second and third person.

One uses the first person when referring to oneself (*I/we*); the second person when referring to one's listener or reader (*you*); and the third person when referring to somebody or something else (*he/she/it/they/my friend/the books* etc.).

In some cases, the form of the verb changes according to person:
I/we/you/they know
I/we/you/they have
we/you/they were
he/she knows
he/she/it has
I/he/she/it was

PHONICS

A method for teaching children to read and write by connecting sounds (phonemes) to letters or groups of letters (graphemes).

Phonological awareness is the awareness of sounds within words. This is demonstrated for example in the ability to generate rhyme and alliteration, and in segmenting and blending component sounds.

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, two, three or four letters.

The following words end in the same phoneme:
*t**o***
*sh**oe***
*thr**ough***

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

Digraph is two letters representing one phoneme:
*ba**th**; tr**ai**n; ch/ur/ch.*

A trigraph – three letters representing one phoneme:

High; fudge.

Decoding means to convert a message written/spoken in code into language which is easily understood.
In reading, this refers to children's ability to read words - to translate the visual code of the letters into a word.

Segmenting is to break a word or part of a word down into its component phonemes.

Blending is the process of combining phonemes into larger elements such as clusters, syllables and words. It also refers to a combination of two or more phonemes, particularly at the beginning and end of words.
st, str, nt, pl, nd.

PHRASE

A phrase is a group of words that act as one unit. So *dog* is a word, but *the dog, a big dog* or *that dog over there* are all phrases. Strictly speaking, a phrase can also consist of just one word. For example, in the sentence *Dogs are nice, 'dogs'* and *'nice'* are both one-word phrases.

A phrase can function as a noun, an adjective or an adverb:
a **noun phrase** *a big dog, my last holiday*
an **adjectival phrase** *(she's not) as old as you, (I'm) really hungry*
an **adverbial phrase** *(they left) five minutes ago, (she walks) very slowly*

If a phrase begins with a **preposition** (like *in a hurry, along the lane*), it can be called a prepositional phrase. A prepositional phrase can be adjectival or adverbial in meaning:
adjectival *(I'm) in a hurry, (the man) with long hair*
adverbial *(they left) on Tuesday, (she lives) along the lane*

PREFIX & SUFFIX

A prefix is a **morpheme** which can be added to the beginning of a word to change its meaning.
in*edible*
dis*appear*
super*market*
un*intentional*

A suffix is a **morpheme** which is added to the end of a word

There are two main categories:
a. An **inflectional** suffix changes the tense or grammatical status of a word, e.g. from present to past *(worked)* or from singular to plural *(accidents)*.
b. A **derivational** suffix changes the word class, e.g. from verb to noun *(worker)* or from noun to adjective *(accidental)*.

PREPOSITION AND PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

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

*We got home **at** midnight.*
*They jumped **over** a fence.*
*I fell asleep **during** the film.*

Prepositions often indicate time *(at midnight/during the film/on Friday)*, position *(at the station/in a field)* or direction *(to the station/over a fence)*. There are many other meanings, including possession (*of this street*), means (*by car*) and accompaniment (*with me*).

In questions and a few other structures, prepositions often occur at the end of the clause:

*Who did you go out **with**?*
*We haven't got enough money to live **on.***
*I found the book I was looking **for.***

In formal style, the preposition can go before *whom* or *which* (*with whom, about which* etc)

A **prepositional phrase** expands the preposition which is always at the beginning of the prepositional phrase: *in the garden, down the stairs etc.*

Prepositional phrases can be **adjectival** or **adverbial**:

Adverbial describes how, when or where.
Adjectival describes the noun.

Running **by** the side of the road (adverbial - where)
Struck **at** midnight (adverbial - when)
Reaching **across** the table (adverbial - where)
The *girl* **with** the long hair (adjectival)
The *busy road* **outside** the school (adjectival)

The *potatoes* **in** the vegetable patch (adjectival)

PROGRESSIVE

This is the continuous form of the verb.
It is formed by combining the verb's present participle with a form of the verb *be*. It can also be combined with the perfect.

Michael **is singing** in the store room. This is present progressive (to be -ing).

Amanda **was making** tea. (past progressive)

Lily **had been practising** for hours. (past perfect progressive)

PRONOUN

Pronouns often 'replace' a noun or noun phrase and enable us to avoid repetition. There are several kinds of pronoun, including:

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 ...

Many **determiners** can also be used as pronouns, including *this/that/these/those* and the quantifiers (*some, much* etc.):
These are mine.
Would you like some?

PUNCTUATION

Punctuation is a way of marking text to help readers' understanding.
The most commonly used marks in English are:

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

QUESTION MARK (?)

A question mark is used at the end of an interrogative **sentence.** *Who was that?* or one whose function is a question: *You're leaving already?*

RELATIVE CLAUSE

A relative clause is one that modifies, defines or gives information about a noun.

Relative clauses typically begin with **relative pronouns** *(who/whom/whose/which/that):*

Do you know the people who live in the house on the corner? (defines *'the people'*)

The biscuits (that) Tom bought this morning have all gone. (defines *'the biscuits'*)

Our hotel, which was only two minutes from the beach, was very nice. (gives more information about the hotel).

RHETORICAL EXPRESSION

An utterance in which the meaning intended by the speaker/writer is an expression different from that which might be inferred by a listener who is unaware of the conventions of the language.

For example: *Do you know his name?* is a question which seems to require a yes/no response; in fact, the speaker is asking *What is his name?*

Rhetorical expressions are often questions disguising imperatives: *Would you like to get out your English books?* usually means *Get out your English books.*

ROOT WORD

A word to which **prefixes** and **suffixes** may be added to make other words.

For example, in *unclear, clearly, cleared,* the root word is *clear.*

SEMI-COLON (;)

A semi-colon can be used to separate two main **clauses** in a sentence.

I liked the book; it was a pleasure to read.

This could also be written as two separate sentences or joined with <u>and</u>:

I liked the book. It was a pleasure to read.

I liked the book and it was a pleasure to read.

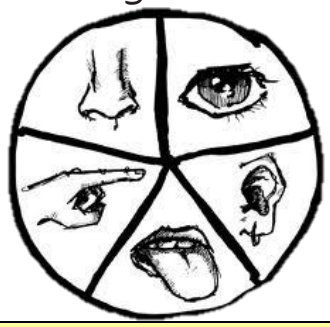
However, where the two clauses are closely related in meaning (as in the above example), a writer may prefer to use a semi-colon rather than two separate sentences. You cannot use a commas as this is splicing!

Semi-colons can also be used to separate **items in a list** if these items consist of longer phrases. For example:
I need large, juicy tomatoes; half a pound of unsalted butter; a kilo of fresh pasta, preferably tagliatelle; and a jar of black olives.

In a simple list, **commas** are used.

SENSES

Senses are used in narrative to help the reader imagine the setting or character.



The smell of burning wood assaulted her nose as she slowly crept through the deserted wood. Beneath her feet, twigs snapped as she tiptoed on. The wind chilled her to the bone as her fingers began to go numb. Fear lingered in her mouth. Then...a scream.

SENTENCE

A sentence can be simple, compound or complex.

A **simple** sentence consists of one **clause but no conjunctions**:
It was late.
The big dog barked at the fluffy cat.

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.

Simple sentences can also be grouped as follows according to their structure:
Declarative (for statements, suggestions, etc.): *The class yelled in triumph. Maybe we could eat afterwards.*

Interrogative (for questions, requests, etc.): *Is your sister here? Could you show me how?*
Imperative (for commands, instructions, etc.): *Hold this! Take the second left.*
Exclamative (for exclamations): *How peaceful she looks. 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.

SHOW NOT TELL

A writing technique that 'shows' the reader instead of 'telling' the reader.

The teacher was cross. – telling

The teacher glared furiously around the room. Her nostrils, flaring with anger, seemed to increase in size with every breath. Her balled-up fists trembled as she surveyed the class. This is **showing**.

SINGULAR AND **PLURAL**

Singular forms are used to refer to one thing, person: *tree, student, party.*

Many nouns (countable nouns) can be **singular** (only one) or **plural** (more than one). The plural is usually marked by the ending *-s: trees, students, parties.*

Some plural forms are irregular. For example: *children, teeth, mice.*

Other nouns (mass nouns) do not normally occur in the plural. For example: *butter, cotton, electricity, money, happiness.*

Verbs, **pronouns**, and **determiners** sometimes have different singular and plural forms: *He was late. They were late. Where is the key? Have you seen it? Where are the keys? Have you seen them? Do you like this hat? Do you like these shoes?*

Note that *they/them/their* (plural words) are sometimes used to refer back to singular words that don't designate a specific person, such as *anyone* or *somebody*. In such cases, *they* usually means 'he or she':

If anyone wants to ask a question, they can ask me later. (he or she can ask me)
Did everybody do their homework?
Work with a partner. Ask them their name.

STANDARD ENGLISH

Standard English is the variety of English used in public communication, particularly in writing. It is the form taught in schools and used by educated speakers. see also **agreement**, **dialect**, **double negative.**
It is not limited to a particular region and can be spoken with any accent.

There are differences in vocabulary and grammar between standard English and other varieties.
For example, *we were robbed* and *look at those trees* are **standard** English; *we was robbed* and *look at them trees* are **non-standard**.

To communicate effectively in a range of situations - written and oral - it is necessary to be able to use standard English, and to recognise when it is appropriate to use it in preference to any other variety.

SUBJECT AND OBJECT

The subject is the person or thing about which something is said.

In the sentence *John kicked the ball*, the subject is *'John'*, and the object is *'the ball'*.

In sentences with a subject and an object, the subject typically carries out an action, while the object is the person or thing affected by the action. In declarative sentences (statements), the subject normally goes before the verb; the object goes after the verb.

Some verbs (e.g. *give*, *show*, *buy*) can have two objects, indirect and direct. For example: *She gave the man some money.*
Here, *'some money'* is the direct object (= what she gave). *'The man'* is the indirect object (= the person who receives the direct object).

When a verb has an object, it is transitive, e.g. *find a job*, *like chocolate*, *lay the table*. If it has no object, it is intransitive (e.g. *go*, *talk*, *lie*).

SUBJECT VERB AGREEMENT

Verbs change depending on their 'person' – the speaker (first), the person spoken to (second), or the person spoken about (third).
Different types of text are written in a particular person.

We ***was*** going out – no agreement
We ***were*** going out - agreement

SUBJUNCTIVE FORM

The **subjunctive** is used to express intention or proposal about the future. It requires use of the verb in its basic form rather than its normal tense form.

The **mandative subjunctive** is used in formal writing. With verbs like **suggest, recommend, insist** and adjectives like **important, essential, imperative, crucial, vital,** we often use **should + infinitive** instead of the subjunctive or we can use the normal tense form. The reporting verbs and adjectives above are normally followed by a **that**-clause in which **that** itself is often omitted.

It's important that the lesson be funny sounds too formal.
We would normally say: *It's important **that** the lesson should be funny.'*

Compare also the following:

- The doctor recommended (that) he should give up smoking.
- The doctor recommended (that) he give up smoking. (More formal)
- The doctor recommended (that) he gives up smoking. (Less formal)

The **formulaic subjunctive** is used in several fixed expressions and uses the base form of verb:

- Come what may …
- Heaven forbid …
- Be it noted …

The **were-subjunctive**
Expresses an unreal or hypothetical situation.
If I were you ….
I wish it were finished

SYLLABLE

Each beat in a word is a syllable.
Words with only one beat *(cat, fright, jail)* are called **monosyllabic.**

Words with more than one beat *(super, coward, superficiality)* are **polysyllabic.**

TENSE

A tense is a verb form that most often indicates time. English verbs have two basic tenses, **present** and **past**, and each of these can be simple or continuous/progressive.

present
I play (simple)
I am playing (continuous/progressive)

past
I played (simple)
I was playing (continuous/progressive)

Additionally, all these forms can be **perfect** (with *have*):
present perfect and **past perfect**
I have played (perfect) *I had played* (perfect)
I have been playing (perfect progressive) *I had been playing* (perfect progressive)

English has no specific future tense. Future time can be expressed in a number of ways using *will* or present tenses:
John will arrive tomorrow.
John will be arriving tomorrow.
John is going to arrive tomorrow.
John is arriving tomorrow.
John arrives tomorrow.

VERB

A verb is a word that expresses an action, a happening, a process or a state. It can be thought of as a 'doing' or 'being' word.

In the sentence *Mark is tired and wants to go to bed*, 'is', 'wants' and 'go' are verbs. Sometimes two or more words make up a **verb phrase**, such as *are going, didn't want, has been waiting.*

Most verbs (except modal verbs, such as *can* or *will*) have four or five different forms. For example:

base form or infinitive	+ *-s*	+ *-ing* (present participle)	simple past	past participle
wait	*waits*	*waiting*	*waited*	
make	*makes*	*making*	*made*	
drive	*drives*	*driving*	*drove*	*driven*

A verb can be present or past:
I wait/she waits (present)
I waited/she waited (past)

Most verbs can occur in simple or continuous/progressive forms (*be + -ing*):
I make (simple present)/*I'm making* (present progressive)
she drove (simple past)/*she was driving* (past progressive)

A verb can also be perfect (with *have*):
I have made/I have been making (present perfect)
he had driven/he had been driving (past perfect)

If a verb is regular, the simple past and the past participle are the same, and end in *-ed*. For example:
wanted
played
answered

Verbs that do not follow this pattern are irregular. For example:
make/made
catch/caught
see/saw/seen
come/came/come

WORD CLASS

The main word classes are **verb**, **noun**, **adjective**, **adverb**, **pronoun**, **determiner**, **preposition** and **conjunction**.

Note that a word can belong to more than one class. For example:
play verb (*I play*) or noun (*a play*)
fit noun (*a fit*), verb (*they fit*) or adjective (*I'm fit*)
until preposition (*until Monday*) or conjunction (*until I come back*)
like verb (*I like*) or preposition (*do it like this*)

hard adjective (*it's hard work*) or adverb (*I work hard*)
that determiner (*that book*) or pronoun (*who did that?*) or conjunction (*he said that he …*)