Demystifying Year 5 & 6

‘Grammar and Punctuation’ from the Draft English Curriculum

by

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Terminology from PoS: Subject

Appendix 2. Y6: Subject and object

A sentence is a group of words which make sense on their own.
A complete sentence has three characteristics:

- It begins with a capital letter. (Underlined)

- It ends with a piece of punctuation – choose from a full stop (.), question mark (?), or exclamation mark (!). (Red)

(NB For teacher information, The ellipses is used to end unfinished sentences and will be addressed later in this document.)

- Most importantly, a simple sentence must have a subject (bold) and a verb (green).

  The dog likes a bone.
  The dog is big.
  The scruffy, brown dog ran down the road.

The SUBJECT is the PERSON or THING doing the action. It may include description of the main noun as in ‘The scruffy, brown dog...’

In BIG WRITING CHILDREN LEARN TO TALK AND WRITE IN GRAMMATICALLY ACCURATE SENTENCES. Thus, by Years 5 and 6 it is easy to teach children to discriminate the structure of a sentence in terms of the subject, verb and object. Children will soon learn to recognise them in the writing of others, because their teachers expect it.

Where this fits in Big Writing

- Describe it!
- Up-level it!
- Fastest Finger First!
- Alliteration Game
- Change it!
- The Imaginary Friend’s work
- Purple Balls
- Story Starter
- Up levelling
- Spot the Difference
- Stealing
- Big Grammar Games
Terminology from PoS: Object

Appendix 2. Y6: Subject and object

A sentence can also contain an ‘object’. The object tells the reader ‘whom’ or ‘what’ the verb in the sentence affects.

The scruffy, brown dog ran down the road. (the road = object)

In BIG WRITING CHILDREN LEARN TO TALK AND WRITE IN GRAMMATICALLY ACCURATE SENTENCES. Thus, by Years 5 and 6 it is easy to teach children to discriminate the structure of a sentence in terms of the subject, verb and object. In the following sentences the subject is in red, the main verb is in black and the object is in purple.

The big dog ran swiftly down the long, winding road.
I like cakes, ice cream and lemonade.
The city of Leeds is located in the county of Yorkshire.

Children will soon learn to recognise them in the writing of others, because their teachers expect it.

Where this fits in Big Writing

- Describe it!
- Up-level it!
- Fastest Finger First!
- Alliteration Game
- Change it!
- The Imaginary Friend’s work
- Purple Balls
- Story Starter
- Up levelling
- Spot the Difference
- Stealing
- Big Grammar Games
Terminology from PoS: Subjunctive

Grammar and Punctuation
Pupils should be taught to:
Develop their understanding of the concepts set out in Appendix 2 by: recognising vocabulary and structures that are appropriate for formal speech and writing, including the subjunctive.

Y6, Appendix 2: The difference between structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing (such as the use of question tags, e.g. He’s your friend, isn’t he?, or the use of the subjunctive in some very formal writing and speech).

Subjunctives are used mainly when talking about events that are not certain to happen. For example, we use the subjunctive when talking about events that somebody:

- wants to happen
- anticipates will happen
- imagines happening

For example:
The head teacher requests that you be present at the meeting.
It is vital that you be present at the meeting.
If you were to be at the meeting, the head teacher would be happy.

The subjunctive is typically used after two structures:
The verbs e.g. ask, command, demand, insist, propose, recommend, request, suggest + that
The expressions e.g. it is desirable, essential, important, necessary, vital + that

Here are some examples with the subjunctive. The word ‘that’ is in bold, the subjunctive + verb is underlined.
The head teacher insists that the car park be locked at night.
The board of governors recommended that he join the school.

Notice that in these structures the subjunctive is always the same. It does not matter whether the sentence is past or present for example:
Present: It is essential that she be present at the staff meeting.
Past: It was essential that she be present at the staff meeting.

The subjunctive ‘were’ is usually used instead of ‘was’ after ‘if’ (and other words with similar meaning).
For example:
If I were you, I would ask her.
Suppose she were here. What would you say?
Terminology from PoS: Formal v Informal Voice

Grammar and Punctuation

Pupils should be taught to:

Develop their understanding of the concepts set out in Appendix 2 by:

Recognising vocabulary and structures that are appropriate for formal speech and writing, including the subjunctive.

Y6, Appendix 2: The difference between structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing (such as the use of question tags, e.g. He's your friend, isn't he?, or the use of the subjunctive in some very formal writing and speech).

Y6, Appendix 2: The difference between vocabulary typical of informal speech and vocabulary appropriate for formal speech and writing (e.g. said versus reported, alleged, or claimed in formal speech or writing).

Pupils should be taught evaluating and editing by ensuring correct subject and verb agreement when using singular and plural, distinguishing between the language of speech and writing and choosing the appropriate register.

**Why do we say ‘I were’ or ‘he were’?**

We sometimes hear things like ‘if I were you, I would go’ or ‘if he were here, he would tell you’.

Normally, the past tense of the verb ‘to be’ is: I was; he was…

But the ‘if I were you’ structure does not use the past simple tense of the verb ‘to be’. It uses the past subjunctive of the verb ‘to be’. In the following examples the subjunctive form ‘were’ is used instead of ‘was’ after:

- if
- as if
- wish

**Formal**

(The were form is correct at all times.)

If I were younger, I would go.

I wish I weren’t so slow!

I wish it were longer.

If I were you, I should tell her.

**Informal**

(The was form is possible in informal, familiar conversation.)

If I was younger, I would go.

I wish I wasn’t so slow!

I wish it was longer.

I will behave as if you were not here.

Note: We do not normally say “if I was you”, even in familiar conversation.

In BIG WRITING CHILDREN LEARN TO TALK AND WRITE IN GRAMMATICALLY ACCURATE SENTENCES. Through ‘The Posh Voice’, talking with The Duchess and their frequent talk about the differences between the different types of talk (voice) e.g. ‘posh talk’ for more pompous and formal voice, street talk, standard English, slang and dialect, children soon learn the varying ways of structuring language. They learn to discriminate between ‘correct grammar’ (or
Standard English) and all other forms. This should be regularly reinforced through one ‘posh talk’ lesson a week, drama and role play. Children will soon use knowledge of different ‘voices’ or language regularly in their writing, and learn to recognise them in the writing of others, because their teachers expect it.

Where this fits in Big Writing

• Up levelling
• Spot the Difference
• Purple Balls
• Drama and role play
• Big Grammar Games

• Up-level it!
• Stealing
• Fastest Finger First!
• Bells Work
• Posh Voice Lesson

• The Imaginary Friend’s work
• Posh Voice Work
• Posh Talk With The Duchess
• Stocking Fillers
• Role Play & Drama
Terminology from PoS: Active and passive voices

Grammar and Punctuation
Y6: Pupils should be taught to: develop their understanding of the concepts set out in Appendix 2 by:
using the passive voice to affect the presentation of information in a sentence.
Y6, Appendix 2: Use of the passive voice to affect the presentation of information in a sentence (e.g. I
broke the window in the greenhouse versus The window in the greenhouse was broken).

The **active** voice is the voice of the verb that shows that the subject of the sentence is performing the action.
For example:
The dog *chewed* the bone.
(The dog (subject) is doing the action of chewing. *Chewed* is an active verb.)

The **passive** voice is the voice of the verb which shows that the subject is having the action done to it.
For example:
The bone *was chewed* by the dog.
(The bone (subject) is having the action done to it. *Was chewed* is a passive verb.)

The **active** voice is more direct than the **passive** voice.
The active voice is used more often as it is shorter and usually easier to read.
For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The dog <em>chased</em> the cat.</td>
<td>The cat <em>was chased</em> by the dog.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harry <em>kicked</em> the ball.</td>
<td>The ball <em>was kicked</em> by Harry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sarah <em>shouted</em> at the children.</td>
<td>The children <em>were shouted at</em> by Sarah.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using either the active or passive voice gives a different tone and emphasis to sentences. Public notices are
often written in the passive voice as they are less abrupt than in the active voice.

In **BIG WRITING CHILDREN LEARN TO TALK AND WRITE IN GRAMMATICALLY ACCURATE SENTENCES.** Through Up-Levelling, Posh Talk With The Duchess, drama, role play and their associated activities, children quickly learn how to recognise and talk in the passive voice. They will soon use this feature in their writing, and learn to recognise them in the writing of others, because their teachers expect it.

Where this fits in Big Writing

- Describe it!
- Up-level it!
- BIG it up!
- Fastest Finger First!
- Bells’ Work
- Change it!
- The Imaginary Friend’s work
- Posh Voice Work
- Posh Talk With The Duchess
- Stocking Fillers
- Up levelling
- Spot the Difference
- Purple Balls
- Drama and role play
- Big Grammar Games
Terminology from PoS: Synonym

Composition

Y5&6: Pupils should be taught to plan their writing by selecting appropriate grammar and vocabulary, understanding how such choices can change and enhance meaning.

Y5&6: Pupils should be taught to evaluate and edit by proposing changes to grammar, vocabulary and punctuation to enhance effects and clarify meaning.

Y6, Appendix 2: Synonym and antonym.

A synonym is a word that has the same, or almost the same meaning as another word.

For example:

Synonyms for ‘big’ include: huge, massive, elephantine, colossal, gigantic, titanic

Synonyms for ‘nice’ include: lovely, attractive, pleasurable, enjoyable, beautiful, pretty.

In BIG WRITING CHILDREN LEARN TO TALK AND WRITE IN VARIED AND INTERESTING SENTENCES, AVOIDING REPETITION UNLESS IT IS INTENTIONAL FOR EFFECT. Through Up-Levelling and its associated activities, children quickly learn how to vary their writing by using a range of alternative words (synonyms), including higher level examples, in their talk and writing. They will soon use this feature regularly in their writing, and learn to recognise them in the writing of others, because their teachers expect it.

Where this fits in Big Writing

• Describe it!
• Up-level it!
• ‘WOW’ words
• Synonym Circus
• Purple Balls
• Alliteration Game
• Posh Voice Work
• Big Grammar Games

• Change it!
• ‘WOW’ word of the week
• Snappy Synonyms
• Scrambled Words
• Secret synonyms
• Bells’ Work

• Up levelling
• Spot the Difference
• BIG it up!
• Word Chains
• Stealing
• Story Starter
• Stocking Fillers
Terminology from PoS: Antonym

Composition

Y5&6: Pupils should be taught to plan their writing by selecting appropriate grammar and vocabulary, understanding how such choices can change and enhance meaning.

Y5&6: Pupils should be taught to evaluate and edit by proposing changes to grammar, vocabulary and punctuation to enhance effects and clarify meaning.

Y6, Appendix 2: Synonym and antonym.

Antonyms are words that have contrasting meaning, for example:

- light and dark
- hot and cold
- bright and dull

In BIG WRITING, children are constantly encouraged to look for synonyms (see above) in order to find more precise words. This is also the case when using antonyms, for example:

**Synonyms for Hot**

baking, blistering, boiling, burning, warm, fervid, fiery, heated, scorching, sizzling, sultry, stifling, sweltering, thermal, torrid, tropical, white-hot

**Antonyms for Hot**

glacial, icy, polar, bleak, cutting, raw, chilly, parky, crisp, frosty, nipping, nippy, snappy, frosty, heatless, ice-cold, refrigerant, refrigerating, refrigerated, shivery, stone-cold, unheated

In BIG WRITING CHILDREN LEARN TO TALK AND WRITE IN VARIED AND INTERESTING SENTENCES, AVOIDING REPETITION UNLESS IT IS INTENTIONAL FOR EFFECT. Through Up-Levelling and its associated activities, children quickly learn how to vary their writing by using a range of contrasting words (antonyms), including higher level examples, in their talk and writing. They will soon use this feature regularly in their writing because their teachers expect it, and learn to recognise them in the writing of others.

Where this fits in Big Writing

- Describe it!
- Up-level it!
- ‘WOW’ words
- Purple Balls
- Word Chains
- Bells’Work
- Change it!
- The Imaginary Friend’s work
- ‘WOW’ word of the week
- Stealing
- Story Starter
- Stocking Fillers
- Up levelling
- Spot the Difference
- BIG it up!
- Alliteration Game
- Posh Voice Work
- Big Grammar games
Terminology from PoS: Expanded noun phrases (to convey complicated information concisely)

**Grammar and Punctuation**

Y6: Pupils should be taught to: Develop their understanding of the concepts set out in Appendix 2 by using expanded noun phrases to convey complicated information concisely.

Y6, Appendix 2: Expanded noun phrases to convey complicated information concisely (e.g. the boy that jumped over the fence is over there, or the fact that it was raining meant the end of sports day).

A phrase is a group of words that form a single unit within a sentence. In an expanded noun phrase, they expand the noun and give the information in a more economical way, for example:

- The **dog that jumped over the fence** is over there.
- The **small scruffy dog with the red collar** chewed the bone.

In **BIG WRITING CHILDREN LEARN TO TALK AND WRITE IN GRAMMATICALLY ACCURATE SENTENCES AND TO USE VARIED AND INTERESTING LANGUAGE.** Through Up-Levelling, Spot the Difference, the work of the Imaginary Friend and associated activities, children quickly learn how to recognise and exemplify expanded noun phrases. They will soon use this feature in their writing, and learn to recognise them in the writing of others, because their teachers expect it.

**Where this fits in Big Writing**

- Describe it!
- Up-level it!
- ‘WOW’ words
- Stealing
- Story Starter
- Bells Work
- Change it!
- The Imaginary Friend’s work
- ‘WOW’ word of the week
- Purple Balls
- Fastest Finger First
- Stocking Fillers
- Up levelling
- Spot the Difference
- BIG it up!
- Word Chains
- Posh Voice Work
- Big Grammar Games
Terminology from PoS: Modal verbs or adverbs (to indicate degrees of possibility)

Grammar and Punctuation

Y6: Pupils should be taught to: Develop their understanding of the concepts set out in Appendix 2 by using modal verbs or adverbs to indicate degrees of possibility.

Y5, Appendix 2: Indicating degrees of possibility using modal verbs (e.g. might, should, will, must) or adverbs (e.g. perhaps, surely).

‘Modal’ means to indicate degrees of possibility or express a distinction of mood, such as that between possibility and actuality.

Modal verbs (e.g. might, should, will, must) or adverbs (e.g. perhaps, surely) are often used to express opinions or in arguments or discussions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Certainty of opinion</th>
<th>Modal Verbs/Adverbs</th>
<th>Statement of Claim</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>is, will, cannot, must, undoubtedly, always, never, definitely, clearly</td>
<td>It is certain that...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>It seems clear that...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X is definitely...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>should, would, can, ought to, tends to, usually, likely, probably, regularly, majority, generally, often, frequently, rarely</td>
<td>It appears probable...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>It is usually the case that... in the majority of cases...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The results suggest it is likely that...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tentative</td>
<td>may, might, could, possible, conceivable, sometimes, occasionally, seldom, perhaps, maybe, uncertainly, minority</td>
<td>Conceivably,...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>It is possible that...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occasionally,...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>It may be the case that…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For example:

The dog **must** be kept on a lead in the field. (STRONG)

The dog **should** be kept on a lead in the field. (MODERATE)

The dog **could** be kept on a lead in the field. (TENTATIVE)

**Occasionally**, the dog **could** be kept on a lead in the field. (TENTATIVE)

In BIG WRITING CHILDREN LEARN TO TALK AND WRITE IN GRAMMATICALLY ACCURATE SENTENCES AND TO USE VARIED AND INTERESTING LANGUAGE. Through Up-Levelling, Spot the Difference, the work of the Imaginary Friend and associated activities, children quickly learn how to recognise and exemplify modal verbs. They will soon use this feature in their writing, and learn to recognise them in the writing of others, because their teachers expect it.

Where this fits in Big Writing

- Change it!
- The Imaginary Friend’s work
- Posh Voice Work
- Bells’ Work
- Up levelling
- Spot the Difference
- Open it!
- Stocking Fillers
- Up-level it!
- Purple Balls
- Fastest Finger First!
- Big Grammar Games
Terminology from PoS: Relative clauses (beginning with who, which, where, why, whose or that)

Grammar and Punctuation

Y6: Pupils should be taught to: Develop their understanding of the concepts set out in Appendix 2 by using relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, why, whose, that or with an implied (i.e. omitted) relative pronoun.

Y5, Appendix 2: Relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, why, whose, that, or an omitted relative pronoun.

Relative clauses give essential information to define or identify the person or thing (noun) that is being talked about. A relative clause does not express a complete thought, so it cannot stand alone as a sentence; each relative clause must be connected to a main clause.

They are used to provide extra information. This information can either:

- Define something (restrictive clause), for example:
  The man who is standing there is an Olympic champion.
  NOTE – this sentence does not contain commas because the relative clause gives detailed necessary information.

- Or provide unnecessary, but interesting information (non-restrictive clause also known as an embedded clause in this example), for example:
  Pudsey, who won Britain’s Got Talent, visited our school.
  NOTE – this sentence does contain commas because the relative clause gives interesting additional information which is not necessary to the meaning of the sentence.

Notice that the relative clause follows the word that it describes. Relative clauses can begin with (relative pronouns – see below):

- **Who**
  They found the lady who owned the dog.
  Jane, who has blonde hair, was chosen for the netball team.
  NB When the clause is inside the sentence and has a comma before and after, it is called ‘an embedded clause’. In Big Writing we call this ‘The Two Comma Trick’.

- **Which**
  I read the book which is on the table.
  The table, which had been recently delivered, was placed underneath the window.
  They were unsuccessful which is disappointing.

- **Where**
  The pet shop where I buy my dog food is closing.
• **Why**
  This is *why he refused to come*.

• **Whose**
  The lady *whose dog ran away* was upset.

• **When**
  There are times *when I feel scared*.

• **Whom**
  The boy *whom you told me about* got full marks in the mathematics test.

• **That**
  I don’t like the *table that stands in the hall*.

Relative pronouns are used in all the above examples and include: who, whom, whose, which, that*
  ‘Who’ (subject) and ‘whom’ (object) are generally only for people.
  ‘Whose’ is for possession.
  ‘Which’ is for things.

In **BIG WRITING CHILDREN LEARN TO TALK AND WRITE IN GRAMMATICALLY ACCURATE SENTENCES AND TO USE VARIED AND INTERESTING LANGUAGE.** Through Up-Levelling, Spot the Difference, the work of the Imaginary Friend and associated activities, children quickly learn how to recognise and exemplify relative clauses. They will have learned to use the embedded clause (Two Comma Trick) since Year 2 or 3, and will already be confident with it. They will already be using these features in their writing, and learn to recognise them in the writing of others, because their teachers expect it.

**Where this fits in Big Writing**

- Describe it!
- Up levelling
- Spot the Difference
- Stealing
- Stocking Fillers
- Change it!
- The Imaginary Friend’s work
- Fastest Finger First!
- Story Starter
- Big Grammar Games
- Two comma trick
- Up-level it!
- Purple Balls
- Bells’ Work
Terminology from PoS: Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph (e.g. adverbs of time = then, after that, firstly)

Composition

Pupils should be taught to draft and write by using a wide range of devices to build cohesion within and across paragraphs.

Y5, Appendix 2: Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph (e.g. then, after that, this, firstly).

Y6, Appendix 2: Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: semantic cohesion (e.g. repetition of a word or phrase), grammatical connections (e.g. the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence), and ellipsis.

‘Cohesion’ means to ‘stick together’ or ‘unite’. To move writing on, children need to experience and learn a range of devices so they can ‘unite’ their ideas and ‘stick together’ their sentences in order for them to make sense, flow and move their ideas on with appropriate pace and fluency.

Adverbs of time form time conjunctions which provide cohesion in terms of the sequence within which things happened, or their relation to each other in time. They include: then, after that, firstly, soon, forever, rarely, sometimes.

Adverbials of time are phrases e.g. Later that day, … The next day, … Three years later, … Once a week … Usually … When …

Some of these say how long something lasted e.g. We waited all day. We shall be staying in Florida next month. I will be on jury duty for a week.

The ‘Sentence Openers’ pyramid gives examples of how children can open sentences and move between sentences.

In BIG WRITING children learn how to open sentences in a wide variety of ways. The sentence opener pyramid can direct children to examples of appropriate sentence openers. It includes adverbial openers of time. The sentence opener pyramid is levelled to give children a guide as to the ‘power’ of their opener.

However, it is imperative that, when we discuss and model writing with children, we discuss and evaluate the effectiveness of the opener on a) the sentence, and b) the whole text. Sometimes a lower level opener is needed within a more complex text as it ‘feels’ more effective within the text being composed and to avoid ‘over kill’. Too much ‘power language’ is as bad as too little.
In BIG WRITING children are taught that ‘POWER OPENERS’ can score BIG GOALS in their writing. ‘POWER OPENERS’ are:

- ‘ly’ words – ADVERBS (which include adverbs of time)
- ‘ing’ words – VERBS (participles)
- Connectives – (see Grammatical Connections below)

When a sentence opens with an adverb or an adverbial, this is called a Fronted Adverb / Adverbial.
Terminology from PoS: Linking ideas across paragraphs using adverbials (Y5) of time (e.g. later), place (e.g. nearby) and number (e.g. secondly)

Of course, there are MANY different ways to open sentences, depending upon the genre, mood and effect the writer wishes to create.

_In BIG WRITING children are asked three things:_

1. _What effect does this create?_
2. _Can it be up-levelled? If so, how? Would we want to? Why might we NOT want to?_
3. _What effect does this create?_

_In BIG WRITING at Upper Key Stage 2, in order to achieve Level 5 and 6, children are taught to create both explicit links between clauses, sentences and paragraphs and implicit links. Explicit links are the use of conjunctions of time (e.g. adverbs of time as above) or of place (e.g. here, there, near, backwards, forwards, closer). Implicit links are where the writer refers back to something written earlier (e.g. ‘Not the one we had seen before’ or ‘As had already been discovered...’) or something that is going to happen (e.g. ‘Little did we know what was waiting for us there.’ Or ‘... although we would soon find out differently.’)

Adverbials (Connecting Adverbs – see Grammatical Connections) are one of the BIG WRITING Power Openers. Examples below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>when, after, before, as soon as</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reason</td>
<td>because, since, as, as a consequence, consequently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>so that, in order to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>although, whereas, despite, even though, nevertheless, on one hand, in contrast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison</td>
<td>as if, as though, contrary to, whilst, on the other hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition</td>
<td>if, provided (that), so long as, in case</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Terminology from PoS: Semantic cohesion (e.g. repetition of a word or phrase)

Y6, Appendix 2: Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: semantic cohesion (e.g. repetition of a word or phrase), grammatical connections (e.g. the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence), and ellipsis.

Repetition of a word or phrase is part of high level ‘voice’ or ‘style’ and is an expectation at Level 5 and 6 in The Criterion Scale for Writing. It is used for emphasis and / or effect. An example would be ‘Lions live in Africa; lions kill!’ Here the writer has chosen to repeat the noun ‘lion’ rather than using the pronoun, ‘they’ the second time.

Where this fits in Big Writing

- Describe it!
- Up-level it!
- BIG it up!
- Alliteration Game
- Connective Conundrums!
- Secret openers
- Connective Pyramid work
- Stocking Fillers

- Change it!
- The Imaginary Friend’s work
- Purple Balls
- Story Starter
- Connect it!
- Secret connectives
- Posh Voice Work
- Big Grammar Games

- Up levelling
- Spot the Difference
- Stealing
- Fastest Finger First!
- Open it!
- Opener Pyramid work
- Bells’ Work
HIGHER LEVEL PUNCTUATION

Terminology from PoS: Ellipsis (…)

Y6, Appendix 2: Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: semantic cohesion (e.g. repetition of a word or phrase), grammatical connections (e.g. the use of adverbials such as on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence), and ellipsis.

The ellipsis is used to show the sentence is not finished, there is more to come...

Ellipses are often used to build suspense when leaving a story on a cliff-hanger.

For example:

Suddenly, the door was flung open. He turned around and he saw …

Terminology from PoS: Commas (to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity in writing)

Grammar and Punctuation

Pupils should be taught to indicate grammatical and other features by using commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity in writing.

Y5, Appendix 2: Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity.

‘Ambiguity’ means to be doubtful or uncertain of meaning or intention, or having more than one potential meaning. The classic example of using commas to ‘avoid ambiguity’ is:

The cricketer eats, bats and scores six.

OR

The cricketer eats bats and scores six.

As you can see, the comma is ESSENTIAL in the MEANING of the sentence. The cricketer either has a meal, then bats and scores six, OR he enjoys a delicious meal of bats and scores six.

Here are two more examples:

A woman without her man is nothing. (Women need their ‘other halves’)

A woman, without her, man is nothing. (Men need women)

He wasn’t killed mercifully. (He was not killed in a merciful way)

He wasn’t killed, mercifully. (Thankfully, he was not killed)

As you can see, the comma (or lack of) is essential to the implied meaning of the sentence.
Terminology from PoS: Hyphens (to avoid ambiguity)

Grammar and Punctuation
Pupils should be taught to indicate grammatical and other features by using hyphens to avoid ambiguity.

*Y6, Appendix 2: How hyphens can be used to avoid ambiguity (e.g. man eating shark versus man-eating shark, or recover versus re-cover).*

A hyphen looks the same as a dash (it is actually half the length, to be precise!) but they have very different functions. The hyphen is a ‘linking mark’ which joins two or more words together to make one word or expression. Eg pre-determined, re-decorated

*Hyphens are particularly useful when the meaning of something could be unclear or misinterpreted, for example:*

**Man eating mouse escapes from the pet shop.**
(Did a man eating a mouse escape from the pet shop?)

**Man-eating mouse escapes from the pet shop.**
(Now it can be seen that the man DID NOT eat the mouse; it was a MOUSE that escaped, and a dangerous one at that!)

Terminology from PoS: Brackets, dashes or commas (to indicate parenthesis)

Grammar and Punctuation
Pupils should be taught to indicate grammatical and other features by using brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis.

*Y5, Appendix 2: Brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis.*

*Parenthesis is a word, phrase or clause that can be added to a sentence as additional information or as an afterthought.*

The words in parenthesis can be removed without altering the meaning of the sentence. As these examples show, they are marked off by the use of commas (see ‘relative clause’ above, also known as the embedded clause), dashes, or brackets.

The commas show a clause where additional information is embedded.
The dashes increase the emphasis to the clause.
The brackets show the clause is an aside to the audience.
For example:

Pudsey, **who won Britain’s Got Talent**, visited our school.
Pudsey – **who won Britain’s Got Talent** – visited our school.
Pudsey (**who won Britain’s Got Talent**) visited our school.

I took Harry and his friends, **ten boisterous boys**, to a football match.
I took Harry and his friends – **ten boisterous boys** – to a football match.
I took Harry and his friends **(ten boisterous boys)** to a football match.

**Terminology from PoS: Semi-colon (;)**

**Grammar and Punctuation**

Pupils should be taught to indicate grammatical and other features by using semi-colons, colons or dashes to mark boundaries between independent clauses.

*Y6, Appendix 2: Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses (e.g. It’s raining; I’m fed up).*

**The semicolon is a powerful mark of punctuation with three uses.**

1. **The first use of the semicolon is to link two complete and related sentences and turn them into one sentence. The two sentences should also be of equal importance. It looks like this:**

   **complete sentence + ; + complete sentence.**

   **For example:**
   
   The cat flap swung open; the dog climbed through.
   There was a stern knock at the door; it shook with the force.

   Here, the semicolon replaces a full stop. A full stop may have been too abrupt in the above examples.

2. **A semicolon can also team up with words such as ‘therefore’, ‘nevertheless’, ‘consequently’ ‘otherwise’, ‘moreover’, when these words link two independent clauses (see Y3&4 – ‘subordinate clause’ and ‘main clause’ and ‘conjunction’ see Y5&6 ‘Grammatical Connections’ to connect two sentences close in meaning. It looks like this:**

   **complete sentence + ; + link + complete sentence.**

   **For example:**
   
   Harry never took his dog for a walk; consequently the dog became very fat
   Caitlyn went to bed late tonight; therefore she will be grumpy in the morning.
3. Finally, semicolons can be used to break up lists, especially where each item on the list is long and detailed therefore avoiding confusion if only commas were used. It can look like this:

    item + , + more information + ; + item + , + more information + ; + and + item + , + more information

For example:

I went travelling around the world and visited Paris, the capital of France; Nice, in the south of France; Moscow in Russia, the coldest place on my journey; Sydney in Australia, the warmest place on my journey; and London, which felt like home.

It may also be used within a vertical list when the items consist of phrases or sentences. The last item should be followed by a full stop.

For example:

For my birthday I received:
• A large box of expensive chocolates
• Several novels, which look very good
• A pair of new, leather gloves.

Top tips to bear in mind when you use a semicolon:
• The two main clauses that the semicolon joins should be closely related in meaning.
• Do not capitalise the word that follows the semicolon unless that word is a proper noun, or one that is always capitalised.
• Limit your use of semicolons; you should not scatter them randomly throughout your writing.

Terminology from PoS: Colon (:) 

Grammar and Punctuation
Pupils should be taught to indicate grammatical and other features by using semi-colons, colons or dashes to mark boundaries between independent clauses.

Pupils should be taught to indicate grammatical and other features by using a colon to introduce a list.

Y6, Appendix 2: Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses (e.g. It’s raining; I’m fed up.).

Y5, Appendix 2: Use of the colon to introduce a list.

Colons are used:
• To introduce an idea.

The colon is used to introduce an idea that is an explanation or continuation of the one that comes before the colon. The colon can be considered as a gateway inviting the reader to go on, for example:

You are left with only one option; battle on to the death.

• To introduce a list.
Terminology from PoS: Bullet Points

Grammar and punctuation
Pupils should be taught to indicate grammatical and other features by punctuating bullet points consistently.

*Y6, Appendix 2: Punctuation of bullet points to list information.*

The text introducing the list of bullet points should end with a colon.
Don’t punctuate the end of bullet points which are a list of items, for example:

You will need:
- Paper
- A pen
- Coloured crayons
- Glue

Terminology from PoS: Dash (-)

Grammar and Punctuation
Pupils should be taught to indicate grammatical and other features by using semi-colons, colons or dashes to mark boundaries between independent clauses.

*Y6, Appendix 2: Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses (e.g. It’s raining; I’m fed up).*

As well as being used for ‘parenthesis’ (see above), a dash can be used to mark an expectant pause or a sudden break in a sentence, for example:

Slowly, I lifted the lid of the old dusty truck and there inside I found – nothing.

As I gazed into his eyes I knew he was the man for me – or so I thought.

If emphasis is needed for a particular word, the word can be repeated. The dash is used to separate the two identical words, for example:

Her life had been plagued with mistakes – mistakes she wished to forget.

The children owned a multitude of toys – toys they rarely played with.
Terminology from PoS: Semi-colons, colons or dashes (to mark boundaries between independent clauses)

Grammar and Punctuation
Pupils should be taught to indicate grammatical and other features by using semi-colons, colons or dashes to mark boundaries between independent clauses.

Y6, Appendix 2: Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses (e.g. It’s raining; I’m fed up.).

Deciding whether to use a colon, a semi-colon or a dash?

*TOP TIP
- If the first part of the sentence leads you forward to the information in the second part of the sentence, use a colon.
- If the two parts of the sentence feel equally balanced, use a semi-colon.
- If there is a sudden break in the sentence – use a dash.

See main clause and subordinate clause (Y3&4) and relative clause (above)

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- Big Grammar Games
- Up-level it!
- Purple Balls
- Punctuation Pyramid work
- Bells’ Work
Terminology from PoS: Proposing changes to grammar, vocabulary and punctuation to enhance effects and clarify meaning

Composition

Pupils should be taught to evaluate and edit by proposing changes to grammar, vocabulary and punctuation to enhance effects and clarify meaning.

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