



Bournmoor Primary School

Year 6 GPS (Grammar, Punctuation and Spelling) Parent Handbook 2021/22

Definitions, examples and past test questions.

The key stage 2 tests are timetabled from Monday 9 May to Thursday 12 May 2022.

Date	Activity
Monday 9 May 2022	English grammar, punctuation and spelling papers 1 and 2
Tuesday 10 May 2022	English reading
Wednesday 11 May 2022	Mathematics papers 1 and 2
Thursday 12 May 2022	Mathematics paper 3

Source for test dates: <https://www.gov.uk/guidance/primary-assessments-future-dates>

Dear parents/carers,

As part of the national curriculum, the children have been taught (and will continue to be taught) grammar, punctuation and spelling rules in far greater depth than many of us will have been taught. This area of the curriculum is extremely knowledge-based and provides the children with a comprehensive understanding of the building blocks of the English language. There are dozens of terms the children must remember and understand in GPS and for many children this can be a huge challenge!

Research shows that children are best able to commit knowledge to their long-term memory after repeated practice and by frequently returning to previous learning. During Year 6, we revise often and the children utilise our www.spag.com resources to check their knowledge and understanding. You may notice, over the year, the children revising the same topics repeatedly as part of their homework. This is intentional. All homework will follow on from learning in school and provide the children an opportunity to embed their knowledge and revise previous learning.

In May, the Year 6 children will sit an English Grammar, Punctuation and Spelling (GPS) test. This test is made up of two components: a 45-minute punctuation and grammar test followed by a spelling test. Like maths, writing and reading, the children will be awarded a GPS result.

This guide has been put together to assist you in helping your children with their regular GPS homework and their revision. It contains definitions for the language the children are taught and use, as well as examples you can use with your children to help explain.

If you have any questions about this guide or are ever in doubt about your child's homework, please do not hesitate to speak to the class teacher. Alternatively, children can utilise the chat function of MS TEAMS to get timely support from school. We hope you find this useful and appreciate your continued support and assistance throughout this important year.

Contents

1	Adjectives
2	Adverbs / adverbial phrases
3	Antonyms and Synonyms
4 - 6	Apostrophes
7	Articles
8 - 9	Conjunctions
10	Contractions
11 – 12	Determiners
13	Homonyms and Homophones
14 – 16	Main, subordinate and relative clauses
17	Modal verbs
18	Nouns
19	Noun phrases
20	Subject and object
21 - 23	Active and passive voice
24	Plural nouns
25	Prefixes
26	Prepositions
27	Prepositional phrases
28	Pronouns
29	Root and compound words
30	Standard English
31	Suffixes
32	Tenses
33	Verbs
34 - 37	Punctuation
38 – 39	SATs example questions

Adjectives

Adjectives are often referred to as describing words, although adverbs can also describe. Adjectives describe a noun or pronoun. We do not teach that an adjective simply describes but specifically that an adjective describes a noun. This helps children to distinguish between adjectives and adverbs.

Adjectives are most commonly found before a noun

For example: the **glistening** diamond...

They can come after the verb **be** as well, here describing the pronoun 'I'.

For example: I will be **thrilled** if we go to Thorpe Park.

Adverbs/Adverbial Phrases

Adverbs generally give more information about a verb or adjective. They can help explain how, where or when something happened.

For example: The boy liked cake **best** (how much).

For example: The plane will land **soon** (when).

For example: The cat moved over **there** (where).

Children may describe adverbs as 'ly' words. While some adverbs end with the suffix 'ly' (as in loudly, quietly, happily and extremely) many more don't (such as later, yesterday or any of the above examples) and so this misconception that can cause problems for children in their writing. We actively discourage the idea that adverbs are 'ly' words.

An **adverbial phrase** performs the same job as an adverb, but consists of more than one word that adds additional information to a sentence.

For example: **With great speed**, the athlete ran the 400m.

The children are expected to use adverbial phrases regularly and also identify adverbs and adverbial phrases in sentences: it can help to try and find the verb in a sentence, then look for the word which describes how, when or where the verb happens.

Antonyms & Synonyms

Two words are **antonyms** if they have directly opposite meanings.

For example: hot - cold

For example: light - dark

For example: timid - bold

A good thesaurus will show direct antonyms. In class, we spend time building the children's vocabulary, using thesauruses to find antonyms as part of this.

Two words are **synonyms** if they have the same or very closely matched meanings.

For example: run - sprint

For example: talk - chat

A thesaurus contains synonyms and the children use thesauruses throughout the year to improve their writing and build their vocabularies, as well as making use of classroom resources designed by staff in school.

Apostrophes

Apostrophes are used for two different reasons: to show possession and to show where two words have been combined (contracted - for example 'can't' as a contraction of 'can not').

The children must reliably be able to use apostrophes in their own work to be judged as working at Year 6 level in their writing; however, it is one of the areas that children often struggle with.

Apostrophes for Possession

We use apostrophes to show possession (to show that **something** belongs to **someone**).

For example: Lily has a dog. It is Lily's dog.

The **apostrophe** before the s in 'Lily's' tells the reader the dog **belongs** to Lily.

Plural means more than one. When a regular plural noun (for example, brothers, girls, dogs, phones) ends in 's' and we want to show possession, we simply add an apostrophe to the end of the word. This tells us that more than one person has ownership of the item.

For example: The brothers' toy had been broken by their sister.

For example: The girls' toilets were being cleaned.

This helps to avoid confusion.

If one girl owns something, we say: It is the girl's rugby ball.

If many girls own something together, we say: It is the girls' rugby ball.

The placement of the apostrophe tells us whether there is one owner, or many owners.

For irregular plural nouns - nouns where we actually change the word when there are more than one of them - such as people, children, women, mice, you add apostrophe s.

This is because we know:

child = 1, children = many

person = 1, people = many

mouse = 1, mice = many

For example: The children's party was fun.

For example: The women's rounders team played on Sunday.

Apostrophes for Contraction

We also use apostrophes when we **contract** (combine and shorten) words.

For example: I couldn't climb the fence.

The word '**couldn't**' is a **contraction** of the words **could** and **not**. We use an apostrophe where we have **removed letters**. We have removed the 'o' from not, and so we replace it with an apostrophe.

Children often struggle to use 'your' and 'you're' correctly and in doing so fail to demonstrate correct use of apostrophes. It is important that the children understand that 'you're' is a contraction of 'you are' and use this correctly.

For example: You're a great swimmer.

For example: Your hat is rubbish.

Articles

Articles tell the reader if the writer is talking about something specific or something general. Is it **a** book (any book) or **the** book (a specific book)?

There are only two **articles** in the English language. They are:

the (known as the **definite article** because we definitely know what we are referring to when we use 'the').

a/an (known as the **indefinite article** because we do not necessarily know exactly what we are referring to).

When we use **the definite article (the)** we can only mean one thing. The key. The guitar. The shark.

When we use the **indefinite article (a/an)**, we can mean any book, any guitar or any shark. **A** book could be Harry Potter, Lord of the Rings or any other book in existence. However, **the** book refers to just one book (whichever one you are talking about).

For example: I watched a film at the weekend called Top Gun. The film was fantastic.

In this example, the use of 'a fantastic film' tells the reader that we do not yet know what film. I simply watched a film. However, the use of the definite article to refer to 'the film' in the second sentences shows I am talking specifically about Top Gun.

We use articles from an extremely young age without ever considering them. The children need to be able to identify them and know which is the definite article and which is the indefinite.

Conjunctions

A **conjunction** links two words or phrases together. Conjunctions used to be referred to as connectives however this is no longer considered correct and should not be used with the children - they will be tested on their knowledge of conjunctions, not connectives.

There are two types of conjunctions:

Co-ordinating conjunctions connect two phrases or sentences that are closely linked together. And, but, so and or are all examples of co-ordinating conjunctions.

Take the phrases:

Mike is only small. He can jump higher than Tom.

These phrases are closely linked, therefore we can use a **co-ordinating conjunction** to connect them and transform them into one sentence:

Mike is only small **but** he can jump higher than Tom.

Subordinating conjunctions introduce a **subordinate clause** (a subordinate clause gives additional information but cannot stand alone - it does not make sense on its own and must be connected to a main clause).

Joe was wearing his favourite shorts, **despite** the awful weather.

The subordinate clause 'despite the awful weather' is connected to the main clause by the subordinating conjunction 'despite'.

Contractions

Contracted words have been combined and shortened. We use contracted words in speech and writing all the time.

For example: Doesn't (contracted form of 'does not')

For example: Couldn't (contracted form of 'could not')

For example: It's (contracted form of 'it is')

The children must use apostrophes in the correct position (where the letters have been removed) when contracting words.

The children are also expected to know that the opposite of a contracted form is an expanded form.

For example: It is (expanded form of it's)

For example: Could not (expanded form of couldn't)

For example: Does not (expanded form of doesn't)

Determiners

One of the trickier areas of the curriculum. A **determiner** tells us whether a **noun** is known or unknown to the speaker. They perform a similar job to articles (articles are actually a type of determiner).

For example: **Some** boys are annoying.

In this example, 'boys' is the noun and 'some' is the determiner.

Which boys are annoying? The boys in Durham? The boys in Newcastle? The boys downstairs? The determiner **some** indicates that the **noun** (boys) is unknown. Some boys are annoying, but we don't know which ones.

For example: **Those** boys are annoying.

In this scenario, the speaker is talking about specific boys that are known to them. **Those** boys are probably within sight or are part of a conversation. They are known to the speaker.

For example: **Your** parents are funny.

In this sentence, **your** is a determiner because **your** shows that the speaker knows the parents they are talking about.

For example: Having **a** good role-model is important.

In this sentence, **a** is the determiner and shows that the 'good role model' is unknown. It could be anybody.

Sentences in English are full of **determiners** and we use them without realising what they are.

The footballers wanted **a** drink. **They** walked to **the** bar and ordered **some** lemonade. **A** footballer stood up and yelled: “Hey! **Those** punks have stolen **our** boots!”

The determiners in the above sentence all indicate whether the nouns in the sentences are known to or unknown.

The children are expected to be able to identify determiners.

Homonyms

Homonyms are words that **are spelled exactly the same and sound exactly the same** but mean different things.

For example: The dog's **bark** is driving me mad! (Note: the dog owns its bark, hence the apostrophe)

Here we are talking about the noise a dog makes.

For example: The tree's **bark** is rough.

Here we definitely are not talking about a tree that woofs. We are talking about the tree's outer layer. Both words **look and sound** the same, but mean very different things.

Homophones

Homophones are different to homonyms. Homophones are words that **sound exactly the same but are spelt differently and have different meanings**.

For example: I feel terrible. I have the **flu**.

Here we are talking about somebody with an illness.

For example: I **flew** to Madrid.

Here we are talking about somebody flying to the capital of Spain.

Main, Subordinate and Relative Clauses

Every sentence contains at least one **main clause**. A main clause can stand alone as a complete sentence.

For example: Amber played in the garden.

A **subordinate clause** is added to a main clause. It does not make sense on its own but adds additional information such as where, why, when or how something happens.

For example: Before dinner,

Before dinner... what? This is known as a **subordinate clause**. It is less important (hence subordinate) but provides additional detail in the sentence. In the above example, we need to attach a main clause to the subordinate clause 'before dinner'.

For example: **Before dinner, Amber played in the garden.**

Here, the green subordinate clause can be removed and the main clause still makes sense. However, if we remove the red main clause, then the sentence is no longer grammatically correct.

A subordinate clause will be introduced with a subordinating conjunction (for example despite, although, while, until, before, after, during or as).

For example: **As they were driving, Lewis noticed the traffic increasing.**

For example: **Riley was desperate for an ice cream, despite the fact the temperature was minus seven.**

For example: **Although they were clearly tired, the children refused to go to bed.**

Note the use of a comma to separate main and subordinate clauses.

Relative Clauses

Relative clauses are a type of subordinate clause that begin with a relative pronoun. They refer back to the noun in the main clause or simply the main clause itself.

The most common relative pronouns are:

who /whose

that /which

where

when

Like subordinate clauses, relative clauses cannot stand alone as a sentence.

For example: Can I have the pencil back **that I lent you this morning?**

Here, the relative clause is **that I lent you this morning.** It refers back to the noun in the main clause (the pencil) and does not make sense when read alone.

For example: Tom broke the game, **which annoyed Ali**.

For example: Mary - **who was only 7** - knew all her times tables.

Here, the relative clause is dropped-in (embedded) into the sentence and dashes are used to punctuate.

Like subordinate clauses, relative clauses provide additional information for the main clause.

Throughout the year, the children will be expected to use main, subordinate and relative clauses in their work, using them in a variety of locations - for example a subordinate clause to begin or end a sentence or dropped in to the middle of a sentence - and write multi-clause sentences containing several different clauses punctuated correctly, as this sentence demonstrates.

Modal Verbs

Modal verbs express **possibility** (whether something is going to happen) or **permission** (whether someone is allowed to do something). There are 10 main modal verbs in English; the children do not need to remember them all but do need to be able to spot a modal verb and use them in their writing.

Modal verbs include:

Will

Could

Might

Should

Must

May

For example: This film may be too scary for you.

The use of the **modal verb 'may'** suggests that the film could be too scary, but might not be.

For example: This film **will** be too scary for you.

The use of the modal verb '**will**' suggests that the film absolutely, 100% will be too scary.

For example: We **could** go to the cinema this weekend.

The use of '**could**' shows possibility. You might be going to the cinema this weekend. Then again, you might not be.

Nouns

There are four types of nouns the children need to be aware of.

Common nouns - names of general things that do not require a capital letter for example: pen, classroom, playground, guitar

Proper nouns - names of unique people or places. These always require a capital letter. For example: Mr. Seymour, England, Paulton's Park

Abstract nouns - *emotions and ideas (things that you cannot touch or hold)*

For example: happiness, love, guilt, excitement, success

Collective nouns - names for groups of things

For example: pack, herd, swarm, team

Noun Phrase

A noun phrase contains a noun and the additional words that identify it. The phrase itself will not make sense alone, but serves to show us what the writer is talking about.

For example: The **dog** on the sofa

For example: The electric-blue **car**

For example: The **shed** at the bottom of the garden

In each of these examples, there is a subject (highlighted red) - the noun that the sentence is about - and other words that provide more detail.

Some children think a noun phrase is three adjectives before a noun (for example: 'The dirty, old, red car'). While this isn't inaccurate, it confuses children when they are expected to identify noun phrases that use no adjectives (such as 'the dog on the sofa') and so we discourage this idea. The children are expected to use noun phrases in their own writing to describe and be able to identify noun phrases in a sentence.

Subject and Object

*In a sentence, every verb has a **subject**. The subject is who or what does the verb (the action).*

For example: **I** walk home

The subject is I - I am doing the walking.

For example: **Nathan** eats nachos.

Nathan is the subject, he is doing the eating.

*An **object** is normally a noun or pronoun that comes after the verb in a sentence. It is generally being acted on or created by the subject of the sentence.*

For example: I ate the **cake**.

For example: Year 6 painted **pictures**.

Although this knowledge is taught lower down the school, it is crucial the children can identify the subject and object in sentences reliably to support their learning of far more complex concepts such as active and passive voice.

Active and Passive Voice

Active Voice

We speak in the active voice when we follow the standard rules of sentence structure:

Subject + Verb + Object

For example: The **dog** **ate** the **ham**.

Here, the subject (the dog) is **doing** something (eating) to something (the ham).

For example: **Michelle** **burnt** the **toast**.

For example: **Sana** **walked** towards the **cinema**.

In each example, the subject is introduced first, then there is a verb and finally an object. This is the **active voice** - active because the subject is literally active (doing something) in the sentence.

Subject + Verb + Object

Passive Voice

When we speak or write in the **passive voice**, the structure is reversed. The object is introduced first and the subject last (often the verb 'be', or a variation of 'be' such as 'was' or 'were' is added).

Object + Be + Verb + Subject

For example: The **ham** **was eaten** by our **dog**.

It's a small difference however, in the first sentence (**active voice**), the dog has **done** something. It has **eaten** the ham. In the active voice, the dog is responsible for its actions (if we were blaming anyone, it would be the dog).

However, in the second sentence (**passive voice**), the ham has been eaten by the dog. The blame is now with the ham because **it has allowed itself to be eaten**. Of course a dog would eat ham if it could!

Here's another example:

Active voice: A **bus** **ran over** the **cat**.

In the **active**, we have a **subject** (the bus) **doing** something (running over) an **object** (an unfortunate kitty). This is **active**: the bus has ran over the cat and we feel as though the bus is to blame. However, we can convert this into the passive voice and shift the blame onto the cat.

Passive voice: The **cat** **was run over** by a **bus**.

Well, how can we expect a bus to stop for a cat running out into the road? The cat should have looked before it ran out. It's the cat's fault.

People often use the passive voice when they are apologising because it shifts the blame from them, and places it on something else (common when children have done something wrong “The window was broken” - yes, by who?) Scientists also use it when writing evaluations or science reports because it can sound more authoritative.

Active voice: I poured 250ml of chlorine into the mixture.

Passive voice: 250ml of chlorine was poured into the mixture.

This is one of the trickier concepts the children are taught during Key Stage 2 and it is why it is vital the children’s knowledge of subject and object is strong. We teach the children to identify the subject and object in a sentence and use this to work out whether the sentence is active or passive. If your child is finding this challenging, try asking them to identify the subject(the thing doing something) and the object (the thing having something done to it). If the object arrives first, the sentence is written in the passive voice.

Another clue that the sentence is passive is the use of the verb be/was/were. However, this is not always reliable. The placement of subject and object is far more reliable.

Passive example: The dogs were being moved into the kennels by their owners.

Here, the owners are moving the dogs. The owners are the subject. The object - dogs- is introduced first and has been swapped with the subject, therefore passive construction.

Active example: We were talking to the teacher.

Here, the verb ‘were’ is being used, but the subject is ‘we’ and the object is ‘teacher’. Therefore an active construction.

Finally, the complete absence of a subject is a good indicator of passive voice. “The ball was lost” - we don’t know by who, probably because they’re afraid to admit it.

Plural nouns

Nouns can be **singular** (meaning there is only one of something, for example **bug**) or **plural** (meaning there are more than one, for example **bugs**).

We use suffixes to turn singular nouns into plural nouns, most often by adding the suffixes 's' or 'es' and very occasionally 'ves'

For example: Dog (singular) + s = dogs (plural)

For example: Class (singular) + es = classes (plural)

For example: Wolf (singular) -f +ves = wolves (plural)

For example: Thief (singular) -f +ves = thieves (plural)

For example: Knife (singular) -fe +ves = knives (plural)

You may be able to see a pattern with the 'ves' words. They all end in an /f/ sound. These are rare but the children need to know when to use 'ves'.

There are a few words in the English language that change form entirely when they become plural. We call these irregular.

For example: Mouse (singular) = Mice (plural)

For example: Person (singular) = People (plural)

For example: Cactus (singular) = Cacti (plural)

For example: Child (singular) = Children (plural)

Prefixes

Prefixes are groups of letters added to the start of words that cannot stand on their own as words. Prefixes are added to words to change their meaning. Prefixes have meanings, many of which you can work out for yourself.

Prefix	Root Word	Final Construction
Un	Happy	Unhappy
Un	Fair	Unfair
Un	Necessary	Unnecessary
Un	Real	Unreal

Here, the prefix **un** is changing the meaning of the root word. We could substitute 'un' with 'not' and the meaning of the words would be the same.

Prefix	Root Word	Final Construction
Anti	Bacterial	Antibacterial
Anti	Inflammatory	Anti-inflammatory
Anti	Viral	Anti-viral

Here, the prefix **anti** means 'against'. An anti-aircraft gun fights against aircraft. Anti-viral medication fights against viruses. Anti-bacterial soap fights against bacteria.

So, prefixes are attached to the start of words, they do not make sense on their own and they change the meaning of words.

Preposition

Prepositions are words that describe the location of an object (where something is).

For example: The cat is **under** the table.

Under is the preposition because it describes where the cat is.

For example: The cat is **in** the house.

In describes where the cat is, therefore it is a preposition.

For example: The man is **outside** the house.

Outside describes the location of the man and so must be a preposition.

Prepositions can also describe when something happens.

For example: **Then**, John went to bed.

Then describes **when** John went to bed.

Afterwards, Tim exploded.

Tim exploded, which is bad news for Tim. By using the preposition 'afterwards', we know **when** Tim exploded.

Prepositional Phrases

Prepositional phrases act in the same way as prepositions however contain more than one word. The children must demonstrate confident, frequent use of prepositional phrases in their writing.

They follow this pattern:

Preposition + **Pronoun/noun**

For example: **At home**

For example: **From Holly**

For example: **Before school**

You may notice that these create subordinate clauses.

For example: At home, I ate dinner.

Pronouns

*There are different types of pronouns, but essentially a **pronoun** takes the place of a noun in a sentence.*

We use pronouns to stop our writing from sounding like this:

After a substandard breakfast, Mike went to work. When Mike got to work, Mike took Mike's coat off and sat down in Mike's chair, which Mike desperately wanted to replace but Mike's boss wouldn't let Mike: not in the company budget, supposedly.

By using pronouns, the paragraphs reads:

After a substandard breakfast, Mike went to work. When he got there, he took his coat off and sat down in his chair, which he desperately wanted to replace but his boss wouldn't let him: not in the company budget, supposedly.

Examples of personal pronouns:

I, he, she, it, they

Possessive pronouns replace nouns and indicate possession.

For example: The cake is **mine**.

For example: Victory is **ours!**

Examples of possessive pronouns

Mine, ours, hers, his, theirs, yours

Root and Compound Words

Root words are words that cannot be broken down into smaller words.

For example: **help**

Help cannot be broken down into the words 'He' and 'lp' or 'H' and 'elp'.
It is a root word.

We attach prefixes and suffixes to root words to change or alter their meanings.

For example: help + ful = helpful

For example: help + less = helpless

For example: un + help + ful = unhelpful

A **compound word** is made up of two or more **root words**.

for example: **Whiteboard**

Whiteboard is made up of the root words 'white' and 'board'. They are root words because they cannot be broken down any more. We cannot break 'white' into 'whi' and 'te' for example - it no longer makes sense.

For example: Superman

Superman is made up of the root words 'super' and 'man'.

For example: Farmyard

Standard English

Standard English is relatively formal, grammatically correct way of speaking. Most people slip in and out of standard English depending on their audience. If you were talking to royalty, you'd speak in standard English. If you're talking to your friends, you probably wouldn't all the time.

Non-standard example: We **was** planning to hold a cake sale. Standard example: We **were** planning to hold a cake sale.

Non-standard example: I **done** it

Standard example: I **did** it

The children are expected to write in standard English, unless they are writing informally. Children who speak using non-standard English ('I done my homework') can find it difficult to access the English curriculum at the same level as their peers who are exposed to standard English at home and speak using standard English. We rephrase children's spoken English and where possible it is beneficial for the children to hear adults at home speaking using standard English.

We spend a great deal of time discussing regional dialect and the difference between this and standard English. It is important for the children to understand that the way they speak to one another on the yard is not necessarily the standard, nor formal structure of English.

Suffixes

Suffixes are groups of letters placed **at the end** of words that **cannot** stand on their own as complete words. 'ed' 's' 'ing' and 'er' are a few of the many suffixes in the English language.

Suffixes do not change the meanings of words but indicate plural nouns, different tenses or they change the word type.

For example: Parrot (singular) + s (suffix) = parrots (plural noun)

For example: Sprint (present tense) + ed (suffix) = sprinted (past tense)

For example: Speak (verb) + er (suffix) = speaker (noun)

Tenses

Choice of tense in English informs the reader or listener whether you are speaking about the past, present or future.

Simple Tenses

Past: I walked to work

Present: I walk to work.

Future: I will walk to work.

Progressive Tenses

Progressive tenses (past progressive, present progressive or future progressive) are used to show an action that happened, is happening or will happen over time.

Progressive tenses require additional verbs (such as was or is). They also add the suffix 'ing' to the verb in the sentence.

Past Progressive: The girl **was practising** her lines (past progressive)

Present Progressive: The bus **is leaving** in five minutes (present progressive)

Future Progressive: The tourists **will be visiting** the major landmarks (future progressive)

Perfect Tenses

The three perfect tenses show actions that are already completed.

Present Perfect: I have seen it.

Past Perfect: I had seen it.

Future Perfect: I will have seen it.

Verbs

Verbs put subjects (people, things) into motion. They are used with a subject and ensure something happens in a sentence.

For example: The child (subject) **ran** (verb).

For example: Superman (subject) **cried** (verb).

The word **be** and its many variations (is, was, were, am etc.) are verbs.

For example: I (subject) **am** (verb) happy (adjective)

For example: She (subject) **is** (verb) alive (adjective)

Verbs are sometimes referred to as 'doing words' however this can lead to mistakes.

Take the word walk for example.

I walk to school.

Here, walk is an action and is therefore a verb.

The walk **was** delightful.

Here, walk is a noun and the verb is **was**.

Punctuation

The children will be expected to know how to use each of these pieces of punctuation.

Dashes - -

Dashes can be used instead of commas to show a subordinate clause, usually dropped into the middle of a sentence.

For example: John - terrified by the monster - dashed through the building.

Hyphen —

Hyphens are used to avoid confusion in a sentence, joining words together.

Example 1: There was a man eating shark.

Example 2: There was a man-eating shark.

In the first example, there is a man who is eating shark (perhaps the fin).

In the second example, the shark is being described as man-eating and is a threat to humans. The hyphen creates an adjective to describe the noun (the shark).

For example: The electric-blue sky looked stunning.

For example: The ill-conceived idea was causing concern among the shareholders.

Inverted commas “...”

Inverted commas (sometimes referred to as speech marks - the words speech marks are not used in the SPaG paper and so will not be used in year) show us that someone is speaking. The children should know that inverted commas are used at the beginning and end of speech and that punctuation such as full stops and question marks are contained within the inverted commas.

For example: “Good morning sir!”

The exclamation mark is included within the inverted commas.

Brackets (...)

Brackets are used to mark a subordinate clause. Incorrect use of parentheses is common but easily avoidable. If used correctly, you should be able to remove words or sentences within parentheses and the sentence will still make sense.

Correct example: The president (and his bodyguard) travelled to Alaska.

Incorrect example: The boy (and his friends) were happy.

Colon :

The colon has 2 main purposes:

1) It can be used to introduce a list.

For example: The bookstore specialises in three subjects: fiction, architecture and web design.

2) It can be used to provide emphasis

For example: After several hours of deliberation, the jury finally reached its verdict: guilty.

Semi-colon ;

For the purpose of year 6, the semi-colon has one use.

It can be used in place of a co-ordinating conjunction or full stop where two main clauses are very closely linked.

For example: Year 6 are allowed to stay out until 1:30, but year 5 have to come in at 1:15.

We can replace the co-ordinating conjunction 'but' with a semi-colon

For example: Year 6 are allowed to stay out until 1:30; year 5 have to come in at 1:15.

Comma

Perhaps surprisingly, this is one of the pieces of punctuation the children most commonly struggle to use correctly.

Commas can be used to separate items in a list.

For example: The woman brought three books, a pen, two hats and a card on her day out.

Commas can also be used to separate main clauses from subordinate clauses.

For example: Despite the heat, Mike refused to go in the pool.

For example: The actress, who hadn't won an award for, held his breath as the winners were announced.

Many children use commas to separate two main clauses - two sentences that make sense on their own. This is incorrect.

Incorrect example: Your dinner is ready, I hope you enjoy it.

Both parts of this sentence make sense. They are both main clauses. Therefore, they can be separated by a full stop, a semi colon or can be connected using a conjunction such as 'and'.

Examples of questions the children will be asked in the GPS SATs Paper

Tick one box in each row to show whether the apostrophe is used for a **contracted form** or **possession**.

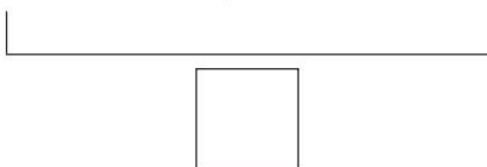
Sentence	Apostrophe for a contracted form	Apostrophe for possession
Where is Karen's pen?		
Joshua's hungry.		
Please get the dog's dinner.		
The cat's outside.		

Label each of the clauses in the sentence below as either **main (M)** or **subordinate (S)**.

When the bell rang, we dashed into the playground and



we started a game of football.



Circle the **possessive pronoun** in the passage below.

The boy showed me around the school. He took me to the music room and pointed out which classroom was his.

Complete the sentence below with a **noun** formed from the verb encourage.

My friends offered me lots of _____ to meet my targets.

Rewrite the sentence below in the **active**.
Remember to punctuate your answer correctly.

The vital clues were discovered by the detective.

Circle the **adverb** in the sentence below.

Of all the toys in his large collection, Karl's little brother liked the cuddly rabbit best.