## SATs GRAMMAR REVISION PACK

| Marks <br> awarded for <br> each <br> subsection <br> of grammar | Grammatical <br> terms / <br> word classes | Functions <br> of <br> sentences | Combining <br> words, <br> phrases <br> and <br> clauses | Verb <br> forms, <br> tenses and <br> consistency | Punctuation | Vocabulary | Standard <br> English <br> and <br> formality |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2016 | 13 | 3 | 5 | 8 | 15 | 5 | 1 |
| 2017 | 13 | 4 | 4 | 5 | 17 | 5 | 2 |
| 2018 | 12 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 15 | 5 | 3 |
| 2019 | 13 | 2 | 4 | 6 | 16 | 6 | 3 |


| Grammatical terms / word classes (worth 12/13 marks each year) |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Nouns |  |
| Term | Definition |
| Noun | A noun is a 'naming' word: a word used for naming an animal, a person, a place or a thing. |
| Proper <br> noun | Proper nouns always begin with a capital letter. <br> This is a noun used to name particular people and places: Jim, Betty, London... - and some 'times': Monday, April, Easter... <br> Common examples of proper nouns: names of people (Sarah), countries (Italy), names of companies (Coca Cola), days of the week (Monday) and months of the year (July). |
| Common noun | A common noun is a noun that is used to name everyday things: cars, toothbrushes, trees... - and kinds of people: man, woman, child... |
| Collective noun | This is a noun that describes a group or collection of people or things: army, bunch, team, swarm... |
| Abstract noun | An abstract noun describes things (ideas) that cannot be seen, heard, smelt, felt or tasted: sleep, honesty, boredom, freedom, power, happiness, love, hate ... |
| Verbs |  |
| Term | Definition |
| Verb | A verb can be either a 'doing' word (walk, run, skip, laugh) or a state of being (am, is, are, be, was, were, being, been) <br> All sentences have a subject and a verb. The subject is the person or thing performing the verb: Example: Cats purr (Cats is the subject and purr is the verb) |


| Auxiliary verb | A verb is often made up of more than one word. The actual verb-word is helped out <br> by parts of the special verbs: the verb to be and the verb to have. These 'helping' <br> verbs are called auxiliary verbs and can help us to form tenses. <br> Auxiliary verbs for 'to be' include: am, are, is, was, were. <br> Auxiliary verbs for 'to have' include: have, had, hasn't, has, will, will not. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Examples: <br> I have arrived ('arrived' is the main verb and 'have' is the auxiliary verb) <br> We are waiting ('waiting' is the main verb and 'are' is the auxiliary verb) |  |

## Adjectives

## Conjunctions

## Co-ordinating

 conjunctionsE.g.: She went to the shops. She bought a box of chocolates.

We can use a conjunction to join these sentences together:

|  | She went to the shops and bought a box of chocolates. <br> $* T^{*}=$ Remember FANBOYS - for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so <br> Remember, yet is like although. For is similar to because. |
| :---: | :--- |
| Subordinating <br> conjunctions | Subordinating conjunctions link a main (independent) clause with a subordinate <br> (dependent) clause (a clause which does not make sense on its own). A subordinate <br> clause can go at the start, middle (this is called a relative clause) or end of a sentence. <br> Subordinate clauses DO have verbs as they are a clause. <br> Example: When we got home, we were hungry. |
| 'When we got home' would not make sense without the main clause 'we were <br> hungry'. <br> We were hungry because we hadn't eaten all day. |  |
| Other subordinating conjunctions include: if, while, after, when, as, until, before, |  |
| although, provided that, rather than, even though, since, unless, before, though... |  |
| *TT* = Remember to look for the subordinating conjunction when trying to find the |  |
| subordinate clause, as a subordinate clause MUST start with a subordinating |  |
| conjunction. |  |


| Pronouns |  |
| :---: | :--- |
| Term | Definition |
| Pronoun | Sometimes you refer to a person or a thing not by its actual name, but by another <br> word which stands for it. The word you use to stand for a noun is called a pronoun <br> (which means 'for a noun'). <br> We use pronouns so that we do not have to repeat the same nouns over again. A <br> pronoun replaces a noun. |
| Have a look at the following sentence: When Sam stroked the cat and listened to the <br> cat purring softly, Sam felt calm and peaceful. <br> Compare it with the same sentence where some of the nouns have been replaced <br> by pronouns: When Sam stroked the cat and listened to it purring softly, he felt calm <br> and peaceful. <br> *TT* = If a test question asks you to find the pronouns, remember there are three <br> types to look out for! |  |


| Personal <br> pronouns | Personal pronouns are used to refer to one person or thing: <br> E.g.: I, you, me, he, she, it, you, him, her, we, they, us, them, themselves, yourself, <br> herselfself |
| :---: | :--- |
| Possessive <br> pronouns | Possessive pronouns are used to show possession of something: <br> E.g.: my, mine, our, ours, your, yours, their, theirs, his, hers, its |
| Relative <br> pronouns | Relative pronouns are used at the beginning of relative clauses. A relative clause is a <br> type of subordinate clause. It can only go in the middle or at the end of a sentence: <br> Relative pronouns: who, which, where, when, whom, whose, that. |
| A relative clause adds extra information to a sentence. It relates back to a noun that |  |
| has already been mentioned. |  |
| E.g.: The man, who ran down the road, was chasing the dog. |  |
| The tractor, which had red wheels, was driving through the field. |  |
| He is the person, who called me last night. |  |
| *TT* = If you are asked to find the relative clause, find the part that wouldn't make |  |
| sense by itself that is also adding information to a noun! |  |


| Adverbs |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Term | Definition |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Adverb | An adverb usually tells you more about a verb (it 'adds' to the verb). Adverbs can also tell us more about adjectives or other adverbs (e.g. He ran really quickly - really tells us how quickly he ran). <br> It nearly always answers the questions: How? When? Where? or Why? <br> Most adverbs in English end in -ly and come from adjectives: <br> E.g. soft - softly; slow - slowly. <br> There are two types: <br> 1. Showing time, place or reason (e.g. then, next, soon, therefore) <br> 2. Showing how likely something is (e.g. perhaps, surely ) <br> Common adverbs that don't end in ly: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Afterward | Already | Almost | Back | Better | Best | Even | Far |
|  | Fast | Hard | Here | How | Late | Long | Low | More |
|  | Near | Never | Next | Now | Often | Perhaps | Quick | Rather |
|  | Slow | So | Soon | Still | Surely | Then | Therefore | Too |
|  | Very | Well | Where | Yesterday | Therefo |  |  |  |
| Adverb or Adjective? | Some words can be either adverbs or adjectives depending on what they do in a sentence, e.g. fast, hard, late. <br> If they answer the questions: How? When? Where? or Why? - they are adverbs. <br> If they answer the question 'what is it like?' - they are adjectives and will be telling you more about a specific noun. <br> Examples: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Adverbial phrase | Similar to an adverb, this is used to add more information to how, where or when the verb is being performed. An adverbial is can be one word or more than one word (a phrase). <br> e.g. Suddenly... Quickly....Impressed...Stunned...Annoying...Fascinating <br> Along the river...Down the valley....Over the hill....On Saturday....At the cinema....Two minutes later.... With a smile on their face...Shaking like a leaf.... |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |


|  | *TT* $=$ A fronted adverbial is simply an adverbial phrase at the start of a sentence, but <br> adverbials can go anywhere! |
| :--- | :--- |

## Prepositions

| Term | Definition |
| :---: | :--- |
| Prepositions | $\begin{array}{l}\text { Prepositions are words which show the relationship of one thing to another. They can } \\ \text { show time, place and reason (e.g. before, after, during). } \\ \text { Examples: Tom jumped over the cat. }\end{array}$ |
| After 5pm, I will eat. |  |
| These words tell you where one thing is in relation to something else. |  |
| Other examples of prepositions include: after, since, while, up, across, into, past, |  |
| under, below, above, behind, over, through, along... |  |
| *TT* = Some words can be prepositions or subordinating conjunctions (e.g. after, |  |
| since). They are prepositions if they are not followed by verbs in that part of the |  |
| sentence. |  |
| Preposition - After breakfast, I will walk to school. |  |
| Subordinating conjunction - After I eat breakfast, I will walk to school. |  |$\}$


| Determiners | A determiner is always used with a noun and gives some information about it. There are five different types that you need to know: <br> - Articles <br> - Demonstratives <br> - Interrogatives <br> - Possessives <br> - Quantifiers <br> *TT* $=$ Find the noun first, then you can find the determiner. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Article determiners (specific or general) | $\boldsymbol{a}$, an the these show whether the noun is specific (the) or general (a, an) <br> Examples: $\boldsymbol{a}$ table, $\boldsymbol{a}$ tree, $\boldsymbol{a}$ necklace; an elephant, an orange, an ice-cream <br> *TT* = If a word begins with a vowel sound, you should use an; if a word begins with a consonant sound, you should use $a$. |
| Interrogative determiners (asking) | These are used to ask questions about a noun. <br> There are three you need to know - What? Which? Whose? <br> Example: Which hat do you prefer? Whose trousers are these? <br> *TT* $=$ Don't confuse whose with who's - the second one is a contraction that is short for who is! |
| Possessive determiners <br> (who does it belong to) | These tell us who owns the noun. <br> e.g.: my, our, their, his, your ... Possessive determiners show ownership. <br> Example: Sue never brushes her hair. <br> *TT* $=$ Notice that possessive determiners can also be possessive pronouns! |
| Quantifier determiners (how many) | These tell us how many of the noun there are. <br> e.g. much, more, most, little, some, any, enough, five, seven, twenty etc... These answer the question: How much? <br> Example: She invited five friends for breakfast; she did not have any food left. |
| Demonstrative determiners (tells us which noun) | These tell us which noun is being talked about. <br> e.g.: this, that, these, those... Demonstrative adjectives answer the question: Which? <br> Example: Those apples and these pears are bad; that man stole this handbag. |


| Subject and <br> Object | The subject of a sentence comes before the verb. <br> The object of a sentence comes after the verb. <br> In the sentence below, cat is the subject and ball is the object. <br> The cat chased the ball - the cat is performing the chasing and the ball is having the chasing <br> done to it <br> $* T T * ~=~ I n ~ t h e ~ a c t i v e ~ v o i c e, ~ t h e ~ s u b j e c t ~ a c t s ~(e . g . ~ T h e ~ g i r l ~ k i c k e d ~ t h e ~ f o o t b a l l) ~$. <br> In the passive voice, the subject is acted upon. (e.g. The football was kicked by the ball.) |
| :--- | :--- |
|  |  |


| Functions of sentences (worth 2/3 marks each year) |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Term | Definition |
| Statement (declarative) | These are sentences which state facts or opinions. They tell us a piece of information. <br> e.g.: It is hot. <br> The butter is in the fridge. <br> She is running late today. |
| Question (interrogative) | Interrogative sentences (questions) are sentences which ask for an answer. They can either ask for a yes or no answer (closed question - is it Monday?) or a variety of answers is possible (open question - what did you have for breakfast?) <br> Always start with a question word - who, what, why, where, when, how etc <br> e.g. Are you hot? <br> Where is the butter? <br> *TT* = Be careful, sometimes question words are used differently to try and trick you into thinking it is a question - What a lovely day! How wonderful you are! <br> You may also find question tags, these are added at the end of a statement to turn it into a question - they are coming to dinner, aren't they? Remember to think about whether the sentence is asking for a piece of information in response. |
| Command (imperative) | These are sentences which give orders or requests - start with bossy/imperative verbs <br> e.g. Play the movie. <br> Give me a toy dinosaur for my birthday. |
| Exclamation (exclamatory) | Exclamatory sentences (exclamations) are sentences which express a strong feeling of emotion like shock or surprise that begin with 'How' or 'What' and end in an exclamation mark. |


| e.g. How awful! |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\quad$ What a day! |
| Some sentences end in an exclamation mark and are sometimes called exclamations, |
| but technically these are just statements: |
| e.g. I don't like it! |

Combining words, phrases and clauses (worth 4/5 marks each year)

| Term | Definition |
| :---: | :--- |
| Clause | $\begin{array}{l}\text { A clause is a group of words which does contain a verb; it is part of a sentence. } \\ \text { 1. A main clause (makes sense on its own) e.g.: Sue bought a new dress. } \\ \text { 2. A subordinate clause (does not make sense on its own; it depends on the } \\ \text { main clause for its meaning - they always have subordinating conjunctions!) } \\ \text { *'she bought a new dress when she went shopping. } \\ \text { without the main clause. }\end{array}$ |
| The position of the subordinate clause can be at the front, middle (relative) or at the |  |
| end of a sentence. |  |
| Sue bought a new dress when she went shopping. |  |
| When she went shopping, Sue bought a new dress. |  |
| *TT* = When looking for a subordinate clause, always search for the subordinating |  |
| conjunction! Subordinate clauses should have a comma between them and the main |  |
| clause they join but the tests rarely put these commas in so be careful! |  |$\}$

\(\left.$$
\begin{array}{|l|l|}\hline & \begin{array}{l}\text { E.g.: who, which, where, when, whom, whose, that } \\
\text { A relative clause adds extra information to a sentence. It is a type of subordinate } \\
\text { clause. } \\
\text { E.g.: The man, who ran down the road, was chasing the dog. } \\
\text { The tractor, which had red wheels, was driving through the field. } \\
\text { The house that Jack built sat on the hill. }\end{array} \\
\hline \text { Noun phrases } & \begin{array}{l}\text { A group of words that includes a determiner, adjective or adjectives and a noun. } \\
\text { The red car drove to the beach. }\end{array} \\
\hline \begin{array}{l}\text { The bone-crunching monster ate the boy. }\end{array}
$$ <br>
\hline The ball was kicked by an annoying, young man. <br>
*TT* = Sometimes prepositional phrases are added on to the end of them to expand <br>

them - the red ball with blue stripes\end{array}\right\}\)| conjunctions |
| :--- |
| Co-ordinating conjunctions usually join together two main clauses (sentences that |
| can make sense by themselves!) They help us to create compound sentences. |
| E.g.: She went to the shops. She bought a box of chocolates. |
| Olther subordinating connectives include: if, while, after, when, as, until, before, |
| who, which, that... |


|  | *TT* = Remember to look for the subordinating conjunction when trying to find the <br> subordinate clause. |
| :--- | :--- |

Verb forms, tense and consistency (worth between 6-8 marks each year)
REMEMBER - tense is always shown by the verb!

| REMEMBER - tense is always shown by the verb! |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Simple past and <br> simple present <br> tense | Simple past = actions that have already happened <br> I played football. I went swimming. <br> Simple present = actions that happen regularly <br> I play football. <br> *TT* = most simple past tense verbs add ed to the end - BUT NOT ALWAYS! at the TV. |
| Present perfect <br> and past perfect | Verbs in the perfect form are used to show time and cause. <br> Present perfect connects the past to the present and is always structured using <br> have/has followed by the past participle of a verb. They tell us about events that <br> started before but are still continuing now. <br> I have lived in England all my life. <br> We have been best friends for years. |
| *TT* = the present perfect form always uses 'have' or 'has' followed by the past the TV. |  |
| tense (check the examples above!) |  |
| Past perfect is always structured using had followed by the past participle of a verb. |  |
| He had worn the jacket for five hours. |  |


|  | I should go to the cinema tomorrow. <br> I can go to the cinema tomorrow. <br> I might go the cinema tomorrow. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Present and past progressive | These are used to show something is happening or was in the process of happening <br> Past progressive $=I$ was playing football. We were jumping on the trampoline <br> Present progressive $=I \underline{a m}$ singing to $m y$ friends. They are relaxing in the sun. <br> *TT* $=$ The present form of the verb is always used for both types (ing verbs!) <br> Past is always was (singular) or were (plural) followed by the ing verb <br> Present is always am (singular), is (singular) or are (plural) followed by the ing verb |
| Tense consistency | Tense consistency means keeping all the verbs in the same clause in the same tense. <br> e.g. He finished his homework, ate his dinner and went out for training. <br> In the sentence above, all the verbs are in the past tense. If it was written with one in the present tense, it wouldn't make sense. |
| Subjunctive verb forms | The subjunctive is very formal and you do not hear it often! It is used to talk about an ideal situation or a situation that hasn't happened yet. <br> It is most commonly used to give advice - If I were you, I wouldn't do that. <br> *TT* = you will most likely be asked to change a sentence into the subjunctive or to identify a subjective sentence. <br> Were and be are the common way to make it subjunctive - always look for the sentence which sounds like it doesn't make sense - or something the Queen might say! |
| Passive and active | In the active voice, the subject acts (e.g. The girl kicked the football.) <br> In the passive voice, the subject is acted upon. (e.g. The football was kicked by the ball.)*TT* $=$ Remember, the subject performs the verb on the object. |


|  | Punctuation (worth between 15-17 marks each year) |
| :---: | :---: |
| Capital letters | For the test, you need to remember that capital letters are used for the following reasons: <br> - After a full stop and at the start sentences <br> - Names of people (Mr Harrison, Jennifer, Justin Bieber) <br> - Places (London, Europe, England, Brazil) <br> - The start of direct speech ("Hello?") <br> - Days of the week (Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday, Sunday) <br> - The personal pronoun - I |
| Full stops | Placed at the end of a sentence (except for questions). <br> It is used to show the point is over and that you are going to start a new point or build on your point. <br> J K Rowling's new book is out. <br> I like Wednesdays. <br> She hates the weather, but I like it. |
| Question marks | Used at the end of a question <br> What is for lunch today? <br> How did she manage to do that? <br> They normally start with a question word: what, why, how <br> They are also used in question tags, which are questions added to the end of a statement <br> They aren't going to leave, are they? |
| Exclamation marks | Used at the end of an exclamation <br> How amazing! Wow! Excellent work, Christopher! |
| Commas in lists | This could be adjectives, nouns, verbs - pretty much anything! <br> The hair was sticky, long and ruined. <br> There was James, Samantha and Theo in the car. <br> I was running, coughing and sweating on the way to school. <br> *TT* = They may throw in a fronted adverbial at the start of the sentence to try and trick you as it will also need a comma - like this example below <br> e.g. On Saturday, John, Joe and Sarah went to the cinema. <br> Remember you only need one comma if the list only includes three things! |
| Commas to clarify meaning | Commas can be used to make things clearer for the reader, such as vocatives. <br> Let's eat Grandpa! (this makes it sound like they want to eat Grandpa!) <br> Let's eat, Grandpa! (this sentence is showing them saying to their grandpa, let's go and eat!) |


| Commas after fronted adverbials | A fronted adverbial acts like a subordinate clause so it sometimes has a comma to separate it from the rest of the sentence. <br> Walking slowly, I went to the fridge. <br> On Saturday afternoon, he ran to the shops. <br> With a smile on his face, he licked his lips. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Inverted commas (speech marks) | Direct speech = quoting exactly what someone has said <br> Direct speech always needs inverted commas, a capital letter to start the speech and a piece of punctuation for the speech ends (full stop, comma, exclamation/question mark). <br> "Running is really tiring," mumbled Jimmy. <br> "Where is she?" he asked. <br> She said to me, "'lll be home before dinner." <br> "Amazing!" shouted John. |
| Apostrophes | We use apostrophes to mark singular possession in nouns where we put an apostrophe and then an s <br> - The woman's hat <br> The tree's branch <br> Mr Harrison's house <br> We also use apostrophes to mark plural possession, this only needs an apostrophe <br> - The ladies' toilet the two actresses' roles <br> Apostrophes are also used to mark contractions - this is where one or two letters is replaced by an apostrophe <br> Contractions: <br> Is not $=$ isn't $\quad$ Could not $=$ couldn't <br> Will not $=$ won't $\quad$ Cannot $=$ can't <br> Should not $=$ shouldn't would not $=$ wouldn't <br> Shall not = shan't <br> Remember, contractions are an example of informal language. Apostrophes for possession are not an example of informality. <br> Informal = Jenny didn't like chocolate. <br> Formal = Jenny did not like chocolate. |
| Punctuation for parenthesis | Parenthesis is used to add more information about something. If it is taken out of the sentence, the sentence would still make sense. <br> It can be done using either brackets () commas ,, or dashes -- <br> e.g. <br> The witch went forwards while flying her broom. <br> The witch went forwards (very quickly) while flying her broom. <br> The sea glistened in the morning. <br> The sea glistened - like a collection of diamonds - in the morning. <br> Jay's dog played in the sun. |


|  | Jay's dog, which is a spaniel, played in the sun. <br> *TT* $=$ Remember, parenthesis is the effect, not the name of the punctuation! Parent, he, sis is how to remember the way to spell it if asked! |
| :---: | :---: |
| Colons | Colons can be used in two different ways. <br> 1. It can be used to introduce lists <br> - The shopping list had several items: chocolate, cereal, melon, ice-cream and soap. <br> - Things needed for Sam's PE kit: shoes, shorts, socks and a t-shirt. <br> 2. It can be used to separate two main clauses (two sentences that make sense by themselves) <br> - The villa was hot: the sun was bright. <br> - James played along the river: he wanted to see some fish. <br> *TT* $=$ You do not need a capital letter after a colon UNLESS it is a proper noun. <br> If you get asked to put a colon in, find the two sentences that make sense by themselves first! Whether using it to introduce a list or separate main clauses, the clause before the colon must make sense by itself. |
| Semi-colons | Semi-colons can be used in two different ways. <br> 1. It can be used to separate two main clauses (two sentences that make sense by themselves) <br> - Some people like summer; others prefer autumn. <br> - The children played against each other; only one team could win. <br> 2. They can be used to separate items in a list of longer items (longer than one word) <br> - At the circus, we saw a clown juggling with swords and daggers; a lion who stood on a ball; a fire-eater with flashing eyes; and an eight year old acrobat. <br> Don't forget to put a semi-colon before the 'and' if using it in a list! <br> *TT* $=$ You do not need a capital letter after a semi-colon UNLESS it is a proper noun. <br> If you get asked to put a semi-colon in, find the two sentences that make sense by themselves first! |
| Single dashes | Just like a colon and semi-colon, a dash can separate main clauses (clauses that make sense by themselves). <br> e.g. The boy was frightened - he had never been into the forest before. <br> Suddenly, the river raged through the village - houses were being torn apart. <br> *TT* $=$ Find where the full stop would go and put a dash there! |
| Hyphens | Hyphens must be used to avoid ambiguity (to stop the sentence from being confusing) - we use them to join two or more words before a noun to help us describe it. <br> Avoid ambiguity - to re-sign a petition (rather than resign from a job) <br> To make a compound word (two words joined together before a noun) - sugar-free lollies, state-of-the-art technology |


|  | *TT* = If you are asked to put a hyphen into a sentence, look for the noun first! A hyphen <br> must not join to the noun. <br> The amount of hyphens is used is always one less that the words being joined together! <br> e.g. state-of-the-art has four words but only three hyphens |
| :--- | :--- |
| Bullet points | Bullet points are quite simple to use. <br> They are used in lists. You must punctuate them consistently. Start each item with a capital <br> letter, followed by a comma and then end the list with a full stop like the example below. <br> Shopping list: |
| - Bacon,  <br> - Cheese, <br> - Milk,  |  |


| Vocabulary (worth 5/6 marks each year) |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\begin{array}{l}\text { Synonyms and } \\ \text { antonyms }\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{l}\text { Synonyms and antonyms are all based around meaning. } \\ \text { Synonyms are words with similar meanings - Antonyms are opposite in meaning. } \\ \text { e.g. synonyms - similar meanings } \\ \text { hot = scorching, warm, blazing } \\ \text { cold = freezing, icy, chilly }\end{array}$ |
| e.g. antonyms - opposite meanings |  |
| cute $\rightarrow$ scary, frightening, terrifying |  |
| small $\rightarrow$ huge, big, colossal, massive |  |$]$| Prefixes - (e.g. super-, anti-, auto-, un-, dis-, de-, mis-, over- and re-) |
| :--- |
| Suffixes -ment, -ness, -ful, -less, -ly, -ness, -er -ful, -less, -ate, -ise, -ify and regular |
| plural noun suffixes -s or -es (e.g. dog, dogs; wish, wishes), |
| Prefixes can change words so that they mean different things. Use your spelling list to help |
| sou with this. |
| suffes |


|  | century percent centipede <br> cent means one hundred |
| :--- | :--- |


| Standard English and formality (worth between 1-3 marks each year) |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Standard English | standard verb forms (e.g. I did / I done, We were / was, He was / were, isn't / ain't) <br> pronouns (them / those, that / what) <br> adverbs using -ly (run quickly / quick and anything / nothing) <br> Standard English means correct English. Slang is not standard English. <br> $* \mathrm{TT}^{*}=$ Read out all the options and think about which one sounds the most correct. |
| Formal and <br> informal <br> vocabulary | the difference between vocabulary typical of informal speech and writing, and vocabulary <br> appropriate for formal speech and writing, e.g. ask for / request <br> Remember - contractions are informal (didn't, couldn't, I'm, won't, wouldn't) <br> Remember, formal is language you would write, informal is language you would say! |
| The subjunctive | The subjunctive isn't used often and is mostly used to give advice or to tell someone to do <br> something. It is used to talk about a situation that hasn't happened yet. <br> If I were you, I would listen carefully. <br> The teacher demanded that he listen in silence. <br> $* T T^{*}=$ Always look for the one that sounds like how the Queen speaks and for the word <br> 'were'! |

