DRAFT

- Grammar is a way of describing how the structure of our language works to create meaning within texts.
- This scope and sequence describes the grammar of written Standard Australian English.
- The purpose of the scope and sequence is to show what grammatical concepts and terms students may be expected to:
  - recognise and understand as they read and listen to language within written and spoken texts
  - use in their own written and spoken texts
  - discuss, using an appropriate grammar metalanguage.
- The organisation of the scope and sequence starts with patterns at the whole text, sentence and clause levels, and progresses to groups of words and individual words. It describes the functions of these patterns within texts.
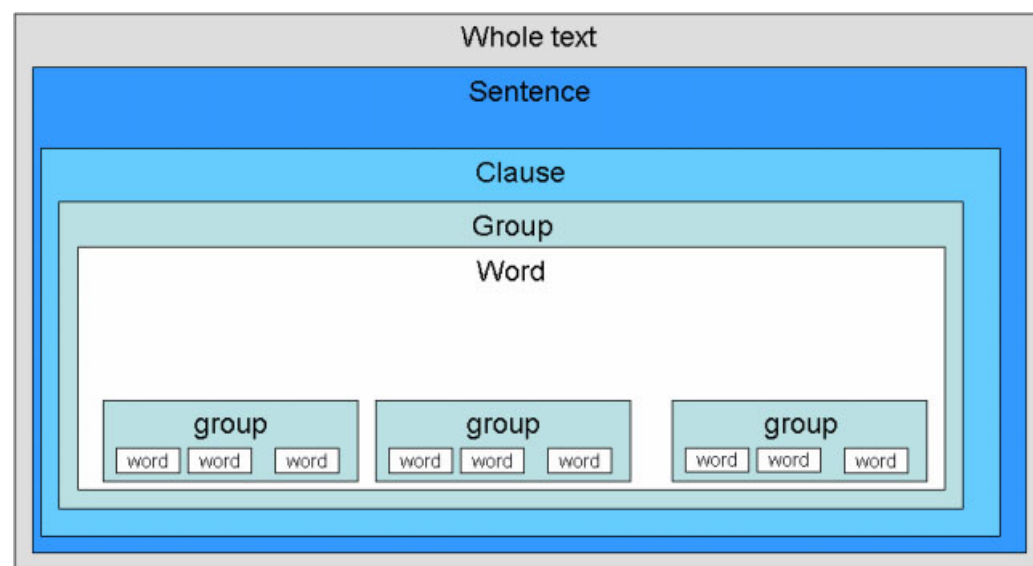
- The scope and sequence shows expectations at the end of each juncture.
- Teachers may introduce concepts earlier, if appropriate, within the context of work with a particular text.
- Teachers may wish to use "everyday" ways of talking about grammatical concepts before introducing the technical terms, e.g. "naming words" for nouns or "action words" for verbs.
- Technical terms can include functional grammar terms if this is the approach used in the school.
- Grammar should not be viewed as an end in itself, but rather as a means of improving students' ability to use language more effectively, and to be able to evaluate texts, including their own.
- This scope and sequence can be used in conjunction with the *Guides to Text Types*, which show how grammatical patterns build meaning in different text types. These guides are being developed as English syllabus resources.

Grammatical level		By the end of **Year 1** Explicit teaching focus	By the end of **Year 3** Explicit teaching focus	By the end of **Year 5** Explicit teaching focus	By the end of **Year 7** Explicit teaching focus	By the end of **Year 9** Explicit teaching focus
Whole-text level Texts are structured in particular ways to achieve a purpose. While not all texts follow a typical pattern, there are characteristic grammatical features of many text types. Knowledge of these features can promote more successful reading and writing. Paragraphs are used to group the major ideas in a text. This organises the ideas, thus helping readers to recognise the significant ideas and make associations between them. Cohesion in a text is achieved by using a range of cohesive devices that link various parts of the text and make the whole coherent.	**Paragraphs**	• Visual cues, e.g. use of line breaks and indentation, can be used to identify paragraphs in a text.	• Paragraphs consist of a group of sentences. • Each paragraph deals with a single unified topic or event. • A paragraph can range from an individual sentence to a number of sentences. • A paragraph generally contains a topic sentence, which usually occurs at the beginning of the paragraph. • A topic sentence is used to state the main idea of a paragraph. • The rest of the paragraph generally elaborates on the topic sentence.	• Paragraphs are used to group the major ideas within a text so readers can recognise the key messages and make associations between them. • In a narrative, when there are changes, e.g. such as shifts in time or place, or the introduction of a new character or the beginning of the complication, a new paragraph may be formed. • The topic sentence of a paragraph can be used to emphasise the point of an argument and focus the attention of the reader.	• Different text types use paragraphs in different ways. • Text types have typical stages to achieve their purpose. • A stage can consist of one or more paragraphs. • Paragraphs can be ordered and sequenced to increase the effectiveness of stages.	• Topic sentences signal/provide a framework for the development of the text and can make links between previous paragraphs. • The topic sentence can also link back to the opening stage of the text, and helps control the flow of information. • Topic sentences provide a brief summary of main ideas developed in the text.
	Cohesion **Text connectives**	• Connectives are words that sequence ideas, e.g. then, next.	• Time and sequence connectives link ideas and events in recounts and narratives, e.g. first, next, finally, by morning. • Connectives sequence ideas in reports and arguments, e.g. in the first place, secondly.	• Cause/effect and compare/contrast connectives are signposts indicating how ideas are related and structured, e.g. so, therefore, as a result, in that case, on the other hand, in comparison, however.	• Clarifying connectives set up links in the text, e.g. in other words, however, in particular.	• Text connectives are used to sequence, clarify, add information, show compare/contrast and cause/effect relationships.
	Word associations	• Repeated words or groups of words make it easy to track people and things in a text because they refer to the same thing with the same word, e.g. Ben met a bear. The bear was bulgy.	• Related and repeated words across a text, such as synonyms, are used to set up cohesive links, e.g. using synonyms: the king … the ruler … the current monarch …His Majesty.	• Patterns of cohesive relationships in texts are set up through: – repetition – synonyms – antonyms, e.g. The wolf was happy, which gave the pig every reason to be sad. – collocation, e.g. mounts, jockey, stable hands, riders.	• Complex patterns of word associations are often found in texts. (particularly information reports) – e.g. part to whole: "Custard the dragon had big sharp teeth", "And spikes on top of him and scales underneath" – e.g. class to subclass: "A well-known amphibian is the green frog".	• Links are implied when words are omitted (ellipsis), e.g. "What can you see?" ". . . (I can see) lots of ash from the eruption."
	Referring words		• Pronouns are used to set up links in a text by referring backwards or forwards to nouns/noun groups. These include personal pronouns, e.g. he, him, they; and demonstrative pronouns, e.g. this, that, these, those.	• Pronouns are used to refer back or forward to nouns in more complex contexts, e.g. when there is considerable distance in the text between referents and /or there are a number of different pronoun referent strings running simultaneously. • Pronouns can refer to a noun outside the text, e.g. We in this country believe… • The definite article is also used as a referring word, e.g. Bob's cheeky rabbit… The rabbit…	• Pronouns can link back to noun groups or whole clauses, e.g. I have two chocolates. Would you like one?; Water vapour can be reduced to a liquid. This is called condensation.	• The various text types use characteristic cohesive devices, and these predictable patterns can be changed and manipulated for effect.

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Sentence level
 	
A text is made up of a number of sentences. Sentences may consist of a single clause or a number of clauses joined together. Sentences provide information about the:
 	
• writer's relationship with an audience
• relationship between ideas
• relative importance of ideas.
	Sentence
	
	Mood
		• A simple sentence is a unit of meaning built around an action word (verb) to describe what is happening, e.g. the girl ran home.
		• Two simple sentences can be joined with words such as: and, but.
		• Different types of sentences do different jobs in expressing interaction:
		  – Statements provide information, e.g. Peter went home.
		  – Questions ask about something or request information, e.g. Where is he?
		  – Commands give orders or instructions, e.g. Go to bed.
			• A sentence can be either a single clause or a combination of clauses.
			• Compound sentences are formed when two or more clauses of equal importance are joined by words such as: and, but, so, or, e.g. The knot in the string unravelled and the balloon floated away.
			• Direct speech is what a character says, e.g. "Where are you going?" asked the wolf.
			• Indirect speech is another person's report of what was said, e.g. Red Riding Hood told how the wolf said that he was going for a walk.
			• Statements have a typical structure which includes a subject and a verb, e.g. She (subject) bought (verb) some apples (object).
				• Complex sentences contain a clause carrying the main message and one or more clauses which elaborate on that message, e.g. the wax melted (main message) because it was heated (elaborating main message).
				• Clauses in complex sentences are joined by conjunctions such as: because, since, when, after, although.
				• Commands have a typical structure which includes the dropping of the subject and the auxiliary and using the verb, e.g. "Go home."
				• Questions can start with: who, what, when, where, how, why. Alternatively, the auxiliary comes before the subject, e.g. Are (auxiliary) we (subject) leaving?
				• Exclamations have a typical structure which includes omitting the verb, e.g. Wow! Other times a statement is being used as an exclamation, e.g. She is so funny!
					• Complex sentences are formed when two or more clauses are joined to make a sentence and a dependent relationship exists between them, e.g. The air cooled (independent clause) because the sun set (dependent clause). Because the sun set (dependent clause), the air became cooler (independent clause).
					• Complex sentences construct logical relationships between ideas.
					• Clauses within complex sentences are linked by conjunctions which indicate time, place, manner, reason or condition.
						• Statements, questions and commands can be used in unexpected ways, e.g. Command: "Close the window" compared with statements, "Gee, it's cold in here".
						• Questions can be used to reinforce potential power relationships, e.g. by someone asking a question who already knows the answer.
						• Commands can weaken the power of the writer or speaker, e.g. if a person issues a command that is ignored.
						• Different emphases can be created by changing the order of sentence elements.
						• Rhetorical questions imply a particular point of view and do not require an answer.

Clause level
 	
A clause is the basic unit of meaning in English. It conveys a message by providing information about what is happening, who is taking part, and the circumstances surrounding the activity.
	Clause
	
	Syntax
	(structure)
	
	Meaning
	
	Theme/rheme
			• A clause is a group of words containing a verb.
			• A simple sentence consists of a single clause.
				• A clause must include a verb.
				• Dependent clauses can consist of a verb, a subject and verb, or a subject, verb and object (or even two objects) and cannot stand alone.
				• Independent clauses can have a similar structure but can stand alone.
				• In terms of accuracy, the subject and the verb need to agree in number and person, e.g. "They were unhappy" rather than "They was unhappy".
				• In terms of meaning, we can refer to these different functions:
				  – With clauses containing an action verb, we can talk about who is doing the action (doer) and who is receiving the action (done to), e.g. The tennis player (doer) threw (action) the ball (done to).
				  – With clauses containing saying verbs, we can talk about who is the sayer, and what was said, e.g. Jess (sayer) whispered (saying) goodbye (what was said).
				  – With clauses containing thinking verbs, we can talk about who is the thinker and what was thought, e.g. John (thinker) remembered (thinking) his promise (what was thought).
				  – With clauses containing being/having verbs, we can talk about who is being/having, and the description, e.g. An insect (possessor) has (having) six legs (description).
					• The object of a verb can be a direct object or an indirect object, e.g. Marie (subject) gave (verb) her mum (indirect object) a hug (direct object).
					• Dependent and independent clauses can be used to extend and elaborate ideas and information.
					• The theme of a clause refers to the first idea or focus of the sentence, and therefore receives the most attention, e.g. "The dog bit the man", "The man was bitten by the dog".
					• The rheme is the part of the clause that follows the theme and generally adds most of the new information to the sentence.
					• In English, we use the beginning of the clause (theme) as the starting point for the message.
					• Changing the beginning focus (theme) of the clause from active to passive shifts the emphasis from "doer" to "done to", e.g. active voice: John (doer) finished (action) the homework (done to); passive voice: The homework (done to) was finished (action) by John (doer).
						• Different clause structures expand ideas or give foreground to certain information.
						• Passive voice can be used for specific purposes, including the hiding of responsibility, e.g. "Hundreds of people were injured" (passive), rather than "The soldiers injured hundreds of people" (active).
						• Knowledge of theme and rheme can help identify the flow of information through the text.
						• Different patterns of theme/rheme organisation can be found in different text types.
						• Clauses may be embedded within other clauses, e.g. The boy playing in the rain lives next door.

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Group level A clause consists of smaller "chunks" or groups which do certain jobs. At the core is the verb group. Involved in this action might be one or more persons or things, represented by a noun group.	**Noun group**		• A noun group is a group of one or more words consisting of a noun and words elaborating on the noun, e.g. article, adjective and noun — a sunny day. • Noun groups function as a participant in some activity, e.g. The vicious dog bit the gentle boy.	• Noun groups can be found in adjectival and adverbial phrases, e.g. The boy with red hair (adjectival phrase) played in the rain (adverbial phrase). • Noun groups may contain the definite article, e.g. "the", or the indefinite article, e.g. "a" or "an". • Other elements of the noun groups may include demonstratives, numeratives and adjectives.	• Adjectival phrases provide more information about nouns. They contain a preposition and a noun group, e.g. the book beside the pencil. • Adjectival (relative) clauses can be used to provide more information about nouns, e.g. the book that is next to the pencil. • Nouns can be formed from other words and phrases, e.g. "the trees were chopped down" can become "the felling of the trees".	• Verbs and verb groups may be changed into nouns (nominalisation), e.g. "People advertise their products so they can sell more" can become "Advertisements increase product sales". • Nominalisation is a technique for expressing more abstract ideas and arguments. • Nominalisation can cloak the writer's voice to represent opinion as fact.
	Verb group	• An activity (doing, thinking, sensing, saying) or a state (being, possessing) can be described positively or negatively, e.g. Bob is swimming, Bob is not swimming.	• A verb group represents an activity (doing, thinking, sensing, saying) — or a state (being or possessing). • A verb group can be just one word, e.g. "sleeps", or several words, "is sleeping"; "is trying to sleep".	• The verb group must "agree" with the subject of the clause, i.e. a plural subject must have a plural verb, e.g. "the boys were going to school", not "the boys was going to school". • Generally the tense should remain relatively consistent throughout the text.	• Verb groups are used to create complex tense structures, e.g. They *could have been going to* travel on the ship. • Auxiliary verbs help form future and past tenses, e.g. The cat will sleep until noon; The cat was sleeping until noon. • Auxiliary (or "helping" verbs) include: is, are, have, will, can, might.	• Tense can be varied within a single text to suit changing purposes, e.g. in narratives, past tense is used in narration and present tense in dialogue.

	Adverbial group		• Adverbials can provide more information about an activity, e.g. where? when? how?
			• There are two main types of adverbials:
			  – an adverb (often a single word, e.g. softly)
			  – an adverbial phrase (consisting of a preposition and a noun group).
				• Adverbs modify not only verbs but adjectives and other adverbs.	• Adverbials can move around in the clause:
					  – Happily I went on my way.
					  – I happily went on my way.
					  – I went happily on my way.
					  – I went on my way happily.
						• Adverbials express fine distinctions and detail, e.g. occasionally, from time to time, hardly ever, instead of, sometimes".
						• The use of adverbials is a matter of style.

	Modality			• Modality can be expressed through verb groups. Writers can make information appear to be certain or uncertain, e.g. "Weipa is definitely in North Queensland" (high modality), compared to "I think Weipa might be in North Queensland" (low modality). • Modality can be expressed through *modal nouns*, e.g. possibility, requirement; *modal adjectives*, e.g. possible, required; and *modal adverbs*, e.g. possibly, always.	• By attaching one of the *modal auxiliaries*, e.g. can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, ought, will, would, a text user can give information about the degree of certainty, probability or obligation that attaches to a stated act. – e.g. I must go home (high modality). I might go home (low modality).	• Degrees of certainty, probability and obligation can be conveyed through modality to suit the text's purpose.
Word level **i) open word classes** Open word classes carry the key messages in a text.	**Nouns**	• Nouns are naming words. • Nouns are used to represent "who" or "what" — people, places, things feelings and ideas — in a sentence. • There are singular (frog) and plural nouns (frogs). Most nouns can be pluralised by adding "s".	• There are common nouns (cat, wombat, thought) and proper nouns (Sally, Brisbane, Australia). • Proper nouns generally begin with a capital letter. • Collective nouns label groups, e.g. flock; and singular nouns label individual things, e.g. bird. • Nouns can be formed by using prefixes and suffixes.	• Nouns and noun groups can be specific, e.g. Bob, or general, e.g. builders. • The selection of specific nouns add details and interest to a text, e.g. "the spaniel" is more specific than "the dog".	• Nouns can be concrete. • Nouns can be abstract, e.g. factors, effects, consequences, elements, aspects.	• Nouns can denote the literal meaning of a word and also provide connotation of emotions and feelings associated with it, e.g. wanderer/vagrant. • Common Latin and Greek roots give clues to the origins and history of particular nouns.

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	Adjectives	• An adjective is a describing word.	• Adjectives describe nouns in particular ways (size, colour, shape, number) e.g. blue, round, four. • Adjectives generally are included within the noun group, though they can also be used after a being/having verb, e.g. Mother is happy.	• Pointing adjectives answer the question "which", e.g. this. • Possessive adjectives answer the question "whose", e.g. your. • Comparing adjectives answer the question "how much", e.g. larger. • Some adjectives convey opinion (wonderful, respectable) and others are factual (nutritious, smooth).	• Classifying adjectives are used to describe type, e.g. the *trapdoor* spider. • Opinion adjectives are used to evaluate and express a particular point of view, e.g. the *exhausting* trip. • Factual adjectives can be abstract or technical. • Extended groups of adjectives are used in descriptions.	• Adjective types are selected to express fine distinction, detail and nuances of meaning in texts. • Adjectives express attitudes, evoke emotions and express judgments.
	Verbs	• A verb indicates what is happening.	• Different types of verbs express different aspects of one's experience, e.g. action verbs (scratch); saying verbs (shout); thinking verbs (wonder), and being/having verbs (is). • Verbs can be inflected to show when something occurred or will occur (present, past or future), e.g. She likes (liked, will like) walking her dog. • Tense describes time (present, past or future), e.g. when an action takes place, and is used consistently across a text.	• The selection of specific verbs adds detail and interest to a text, e.g. "moan" compared with "said". • Verbs can be inflected to show first, second or third person, e.g. I jump, you jump, she jumps. • Plural verb forms are used when the answer to "who" or "what" before the verb group is a compound noun group, e.g. The cat and dog are playing in the yard. • Plural verb forms are used when a collective noun refers to the many individual members of a group, e.g. The staff were ... • Singular verb forms are used when a collective noun refers to a group as a unit (the team plays on Saturday).	• Purpose and text type determines appropriate tense of the verb. • Thinking/feeling or action verbs can be used to express opinions, evaluate ideas and information, portray people, places, events and things in ways that may appeal to certain groups, and present an issue in a way to persuade a particular audience, e.g. "The boy paced outside the office", compared with "The boy skulked outside the office".	• Knowledge about the selection of specific verbs assists with the composition, comprehension, interpretation and critical evaluation of texts. • Tense usually should be consistent across a multi-paragraph text with subject-verb agreement.
	Adverbs	• An adverb provides more information about the words that indicate what is happening. • Adverbs often end in "ly".	• Adverbs indicate the circumstances surrounding the activity and answer questions such as how, when, where, why.	• Extended groups of adverbs elaborate on subject matter.	• Adverbs may be placed in different positions in a sentence, e.g. "Slowly, the dog ate its dinner" or "The dog ate its dinner slowly". • Viewpoint and comment adverbs express the writer/speaker's attitude towards the topic, e.g. Personally, I think he was rude.	• Adverbs have main sub-classes that: – provide circumstantial information, e.g. She swam *strongly* across the lake. – express a viewpoint, e.g. *Surprisingly,* he passed his exam. – decrease or increase emphasis, e.g. She was *dreadfully* late.
ii) closed word classes Closed word classes act as structural markers in the text and show logical relations between ideas. They do not carry the key message.	**Pronouns**		• A pronoun refers back to something previously mentioned in the text. • A pronoun can also refer outside the text to something in the surrounding context, e.g. I, me, her, it (personal); and mine, yours (possessive). It is used so that the noun does not need to be repeated in a sentence.	• There are four sub-classes of pronouns: – personal and possessive (see Year 3) – reflexive, e.g. myself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves – relative, e.g. who, whom, whose, that, which. • The tracking of relative pronouns back to the referent noun is important to fully comprehend texts.	• There is a difference between subject and object pronouns used in Standard Australian English, e.g. He and his mate went fishing *not* Him and his mate went fishing. • The tracking of relative pronouns back to the referent noun is important to fully comprehend texts.	• The choice of pronouns establishes the relationship with the listener/reader, e.g. using the first person to invite the reader/listener to get "inside the head" of the main character; knowing when it is appropriate to use "I" in an argument.

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	Prepositions		• Prepositions can be placed in front of a noun group to show where or when in adverbial phrases, e.g. over the fence, on the table. • Prepositions can be placed in front of a noun group to show "which" in adjectival phrases, e.g. the fence near the tree.	• Specific prepositions are used in common Standard Australian English phrases, e.g. to believe *in* someone or something; to confide *in* someone; to complain *about*.	• Specific prepositions are used in common Standard Australian English phrases to indicate relationships, e.g. to sympathise *with* someone; to make a choice *between*; to confide something *to* someone; to compare *a with b* (contrast) or to compare *a to b* (similarity); to contrast *a with b*.	• Specific prepositions are used in more formal and academic Standard Australian English phrases, e.g. to accede *to* a request; to preface a speech *with* certain remarks; to militate *against*.
	Conjunctions		• Conjunctions are joining words, e.g. and, but, so. They can join words, word groups and clauses.	• Conjunctions (and, nor, but, or, yet, so) show relationships between two independent clauses.	• Subordinating conjunctions join a dependent (or subordinate) clause to an independent clause. • Different relationships between clauses are signalled by conjunctions, e.g. time, cause, contrast.	
Figurative language			• Alliteration • Onomatopoeia	• Similes	• Metaphor • Idiom • Personification • Irony	
Evaluative language			• Speakers and writers can use words that indicate whether an idea, object or performance is good or bad, e.g. Milly mouse was silly; the rude boy apologised for his hurtful comment.	• Speakers and writers can use words to indicate degree, e.g. the first family, very fast, smallest pig.	• Evaluative language can be used to comment on the significance of an event, e.g. it was like a bad dream. • Evaluations are intensified or softened by making direct evaluative statements, e.g. *It was a devastating flood* or by making subtle references through choice of adjectives, verbs and adverbs, e.g. *The water gushed over everything.*	• Speakers and writers express the force of their evaluation through adverbials. They indicate how good or bad something or someone is, e.g. that was totally amazing; adjectives, e.g. the long, dark tea-time of the soul; repetition, e.g. Yes! Yes! Yes!; and exclamations, e.g. What! • Adjectives describing quotations indicate the degree of trustworthiness of a source, e.g. the woman said/the woman claimed.

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Punctuation		• All sentences begin with a capital letter. • Statements and commands end in a full stop, questions with a question mark and exclamations with an exclamation mark.	• A comma is used in compound noun groups, i.e. a list of things, containing more than two items, e.g. Henry bought a lettuce, two bananas, some milk and four apples. • No comma is needed before the "and" that precedes the final item in the list. • A comma is used in a list of adjectives containing more than two items, e.g. The painting was blue, pink, yellow and red. No comma is needed before the "and" that precedes the final item in the list. • A comma is used in a list of adverbs containing more than two items, e.g. Swiftly, silently and sneakily, the cat followed the bird. No comma is needed before the "and" that precedes the final item in the list.	• A comma is often used to separate two clauses joined together with "and", "or", "but", "while" and "yet", e.g. I thought the balloon floated away, but I was wrong. • A comma can be used after an adverbial (including adverbial clauses) that is placed at the beginning of a sentence, e.g. after a while, the seal swam away; when we had finished eating, we watched television.	• Knowledge of typical sentence structure helps with decisions about where to place full stops, question marks and exclamation marks. • The conventional punctuation of dialogue in narrative and quotations in news reports and recounts uses quotation marks and commas. • There is a specific convention for punctuation of dialogue when the attribution occurs in the middle of the dialogue, e.g. "Yesterday," she said, "I went to the beach". • Possession can be indicated with a possessive pronoun, e.g. their, your, or by adding an apostrophe + s to the end of a singular noun, e.g. the cat's whiskers, the princess's crown. When the possessor is plural and has had an "es/s" added to the end of the word, only an apostrophe is used, e.g. the elephants' tusks. Note: there are exceptions to these guidelines.	• The colon and semi-colon can be used in combination to give clarity to lists containing items consisting of multiple words, e.g. For Christmas, she was given: a partridge in a pear tree; two turtle doves; three French hens; four calling birds; and five golden rings. • The semi-colon can be used to join closely related sentences, e.g. Nobody knew he could sing; now he's lead singer in the most popular band in the world. • A single dash can be used to create dramatic and comedic disjunction, e.g. She peered over the edge of the ravine, noted the steepness of the sides, put her foot to the floor – and then drove over the edge. • Double em dashes can be used as a form of bracketing, e.g. Pluto — I still can't believe this — was downgraded to the status of planetoid. • There is a specific convention for punctuation of short quotations inserted into factual texts, e.g. The researcher claims that "the Egyptians may have sailed to South America"; Thor Heyerdahl once claimed that "Egyptians sailed to South America".
Metalanguage		sentence, paragraph, simple sentence, statement, question, command, capital letter, naming word, happening word, describing words, words, full stop, question mark, capital letter	clause, topic sentence, synonym, compound sentence, noun groups, verb groups, tense (past, present and future), number, plural, singular, auxiliary verb, noun, proper noun, collective, common noun, verb, saying verb, thinking verb, having/being verb, preposition, conjunction, alliteration, comma, pronoun, adverb	pronoun reference, demonstrative, comparative, complex sentence, dependent and independent clauses/relationships, person, antonyms, collocation, personal pronoun, relative pronoun, reflexive pronoun, possessive adjective, cause/effect connectives, compare/contrast connectives	evaluative language, active and passive voice, class/sub-classes, whole/part, agreement, theme/rheme, clarifying connectives, direct/indirect object, adjectival clause, modal verb, auxiliary verb, subordinate conjunctions, metaphor personification, irony	modality, thematise, nominalisation, ellipsis, colon, dash, semi-colon, rhetorical question, embedded clauses

Books

Butt, D 2000, *Using Functional Grammar: An explorer's guide*, Macquarie University: Sydney.

A popular text among those using Functional grammar, it contains not only the usual descriptions of the grammar, but also exercises with answers and a section at the end of each chapter outlining implications for teaching grammar.

Christie, F & Soosai, A 2000, *Language and Meaning (Books 1 and 2)*, Macmillan: Australia.

Written for "junior secondary" students, these textbooks contain a history of the English language and explore how it has developed and changed. They also build up a systematic knowledge of grammar — based on Functional grammar. A colourful text with plenty of exercises, activities, discussion points and a detailed index. Teachers will recognise elements of both traditional and Functional grammar in this text.

Collerson, J (ed.), 1997, *Grammar in Teaching*, PETA: Sydney.

An excellent, practical survey of ways of using grammar in the classroom.

Crystal, D 2005, *How Language Works*, Penguin Books: UK.

Every teacher of English and literacy should have a copy of this close by. Much more than just a book about grammar, Crystal explains *how* language works. This is an excellent background to what goes on when we use language — including a discussion of the social and cultural aspects of language use.

Derewianka, B 1990, *Exploring How Texts Work*, Primary English Teaching Association: NSW.

One of the first popular books showing how Functional grammar can be used to help students write more effectively, this is still a very worthwhile reference.

Derewianka, B 1992, *Language Assessment in Primary Classrooms*, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich: Sydney.

Although an older book and much has changed in the world of assessment since 1992, the advice about the role of grammar in assessing students is still very relevant and practical. Of particular interest from a grammar perspective are Chapters 7 through to the Epilogue.

Derewianka, B 1994, *A Grammar Companion for Primary Teachers*, Primary English Teaching Association: Newtown.

Another popular title, this book provides a useful introduction to grammar — a workable hybrid of traditional and Functional.

Droga, L & Humphrey, S 2003, *Grammar and Meaning: An introduction for primary teachers*, Target texts: NSW.

This excellent introduction to Functional grammar served as one of the main reference texts in the development of the grammar scope and sequence. As well as explanations of grammar, it contains exercises with answers and plenty of suggestions about how this approach to grammar might be useful in the classroom.

Halliday, MAK and Matthiessen, C 2004, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*, 3rd edn, Arnold: London.

The original source book for Functional grammar — not for the absolute beginner. Once you are ready to move beyond the basic texts and get serious about Functional grammar, this is a good reference to have on your bookshelf.

Ludwig, C 2000, *Why Wait: A way into critical literacies in the early years*, Education Queensland: Brisbane.

A very practical book, its detailed unit plans demonstrate how grammar can be used as a tool for teaching critical literacy in the primary school. Although directed at early childhood teachers, the units are quite challenging and may better suit older students.

Truss, L 2003, *Eats Shoots and Leaves*, Profile Books: UK.

A worldwide bestseller, Truss's book contains both straightforward explanations of the rules for conventional uses of punctuation, along with brief histories of the various punctuation marks. There is also a picture book version of *Eats, Shoots and Leaves*, which would be suitable for younger students.

Unsworth, L (ed.) 1993, *Literacy Learning and Teaching: Language as social practice in the primary school*, MacMillan Education Australia: Melbourne.

In addition to a great deal of other useful information, Chapter 5 is a brief, accessible introduction to Functional grammar.

Unsworth, L 2001, *Teaching Multiliteracies Across the Curriculum*, Open University Press: Buckingham.

Chapter 2 contains a summary of Systemic functional grammar. However, more importantly, this book makes it clear that in a contemporary classroom, written grammar is just one of the meaning making systems we should be studying — visual grammar is one of the other systems explained in some detail.

Yallow, C et al 2005, *Macquarie Dictionary*, 4th edn, The Macquarie Library Pty Ltd: NSW.

This is Australia's own dictionary and contains a great deal of up to date information on contemporary uses of English. One of the appendices is a "Guide to Punctuation" — very useful if you require information about Australia usage.

Websites

http://aliscot.com/bigdog/

A basic guide to traditional grammar that is suitable, with teacher guidance, for upper primary and lower secondary students. It contains interactive exercises and a sense of humour.

www.bartleby.com/reference/

This site provides access to classic reference books on English usage that can be downloaded free and legally. Books available include William Strunk's *The Elements of Style* from 1918 and H W Fowler's *The King's English* from 1908. These books are widely regarded as classics and still worth a read — if only for historical interest.

http://grammar.ccc.commnet.edu/grammar/index2.htm

This page contains links to 427 traditional grammar topics. (Interesting and fascinating, worth putting in your web browser Favourites for quick reference.)

www.grammatics.com/appraisal/

This is the pre-eminent site for information on the appraisal system. The text is written by Dr Peter White. In addition to plenty of information, at both an introductory and advanced level, this site contains analysis of texts using the system and provokes plenty of ideas for use in the classroom.

http://minerva.ling.mq.edu.au/network/SystemicInfo/SysInfoSource.html

A great site for links to online resources about Functional grammar.

www.sjc.uq.edu.au/interactive/grammar.html

How much do you know about grammar? Try your hand at this quiz developed by the School of Journalism at the University of Queensland.

www.unisanet.unisa.edu.au/07118/grammar.htm

This site by Jack Lynch at the University of South Australia contains a great deal of information on a wide range of topics related to grammar and written style. Comprehensive and easy to navigate.