

Year 5-6 programme of study (statutory requirements)	Notes and guidance (non-statutory)
<p data-bbox="147 210 521 240"><i>Grammar and punctuation</i></p> <p data-bbox="147 284 528 314">Pupils should be taught to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li data-bbox="197 363 1104 1066"> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li data-bbox="241 363 1104 443">▪ develop their understanding of the concepts set out in Appendix 2 by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li data-bbox="297 459 1077 587">▪ recognising vocabulary and structures that are appropriate for formal speech and writing, including the subjunctive <li data-bbox="297 603 1077 683">▪ using the passive voice to affect the presentation of information in a sentence <li data-bbox="297 699 1104 778">▪ using expanded noun phrases to convey complicated information concisely <li data-bbox="297 794 1077 874">▪ using modal verbs or adverbs to indicate degrees of possibility <li data-bbox="297 890 1043 1018">▪ using relative clauses beginning with <i>who</i>, <i>which</i>, <i>where</i>, <i>why</i>, <i>whose</i>, <i>that</i> or with an implied (i.e. omitted) relative pronoun <li data-bbox="297 1034 1104 1066">▪ learning the grammar of word structure in Appendix 2 <li data-bbox="197 1082 1084 1367"> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li data-bbox="241 1082 1084 1367">▪ indicate grammatical and other features by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li data-bbox="297 1137 1084 1217">▪ using commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity in writing <li data-bbox="297 1233 824 1265">▪ using hyphens to avoid ambiguity <li data-bbox="297 1281 999 1367">▪ using brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis 	<p data-bbox="1135 210 1509 240"><i>Grammar and punctuation</i></p> <p data-bbox="1135 284 2089 411">Pupils should continue to add to their knowledge of linguistic terms, including those to describe grammar, so that they can discuss their writing and reading.</p>

Year 5-6 programme of study (statutory requirements)	Notes and guidance (non-statutory)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ using semi-colons, colons or dashes to mark boundaries between independent clauses ▪ using a colon to introduce a list ▪ punctuating bullet points consistently ▪ use and understand the grammatical terminology in Appendix 2 accurately and appropriately in discussing their writing and reading. 	

Appendix 1: Spelling

Most people read words more accurately than they spell them. The younger pupils are, the truer this is.

By the end of Year 1, pupils should be able to read a large number of different words containing the grapheme-phoneme correspondences (GPCs) that they have learnt, whether or not they have seen these words before. Spelling, however, is a very different matter. Once pupils have learnt more than one way of spelling particular sounds, choosing the right letter or letters depends on their either having made a conscious effort to learn the words or having absorbed them less consciously through their reading. Younger pupils have not had enough time to learn or absorb the accurate spelling of all the words that they may want to write.

This appendix provides examples of words embodying each pattern which is taught. Many of the words listed as 'example words' for Years 1 and 2, including almost all those listed as 'exception words', are used frequently in pupils' writing, and therefore it is worth pupils learning the correct spelling. The 'exception words' contain GPCs which have not yet been taught as widely applicable, but this may be because they are applicable in very few age-appropriate words rather than because they are rare in English words in general.

The statutory word-lists for Years 3 and 4 and Years 5 and 6 contain a mixture of words frequently used in pupils' writing and words which are often misspelt. Some of the words in these lists may be thought of as quite challenging, but the 100 words in each list can be covered in fewer than two school years if teachers simply add words each week to the words they choose for their pupils to learn.

The rules and guidelines are intended to support the teaching of spelling. Phonic knowledge should continue to underpin spelling after Key Stage 1 but, increasingly, pupils also need to understand the role of morphology and etymology. Although many root words simply have to be learnt, teachers can help pupils to understand relationships between meaning and spelling where these are relevant. For example, understanding the relationship between *medical* and *medicine* may help pupils to spell the /s/ sound in *medicine* with the letter 'c'. Pupils can also be helped to spell words with prefixes and suffixes correctly if they understand some general principles for adding them.

The spelling appendix is structured in the same way as the programmes of study: the left-hand column is statutory; the middle and right-hand columns are non-statutory guidance.

Year 1

Work for Year 1		
Statutory requirements	Rules and guidelines (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
<p>Revision of Reception work</p> <p>The boundary between revision of work covered in Reception and the introduction of new work may vary according to the programme used, but basic revision should include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • all grapheme-phoneme correspondences which have been taught • the process of segmenting spoken words into sounds before choosing graphemes to represent the sounds • words with adjacent consonants; • rules and guidelines which have been taught • vowel digraphs which have been taught 		No example words are suggested because the selection will vary according to the programme used, particularly where vowel digraphs are concerned.
The sounds /f/, /l/, /s/, /z/ and /k/ spelt ff, ll, ss, zz and ck	The /f/, /l/, /s/, /z/ and /k/ sounds are usually spelt as ff, ll, ss, zz and ck if they come straight after a single vowel letter in short words. Exceptions: if, pal, us, bus, yes.	off, well, miss, buzz, back
The /ŋ/ sound spelt n before k		bank, think, honk, sunk
Division of words into syllables	Each syllable is like a 'beat' in the spoken word. Words of more than one syllable often have an unstressed syllable in which the vowel is unclear so the spelling of this vowel may need to be learnt.	pocket, rabbit, carrot, thunder, sunset
-tch	The /tʃ/ sound is usually spelt as tch if it comes straight after a single vowel letter. Exceptions: rich, which, much, such.	catch, fetch, kitchen, notch, hutch
The /v/ sound at the end of words	English words hardly ever end with the letter v , so if a word ends with a /v/ sound, the letter e usually needs to be added after the 'v'.	have, live, give
Adding s and es to words (plural of nouns and the third person singular of verbs)	If the ending sounds like /s/ or /z/, it is spelt as -s . If the ending sounds like /ɪz/ and forms an extra syllable or 'beat' in the word, it is spelt as -es .	cats, dogs, spends, rocks, thanks, catches

<p>Adding the endings –ing, –ed and –er to verbs where no change is needed to the root word</p>	<p>–ing and –er always add an extra syllable to the word and –ed sometimes does. The past tense of some verbs may sound as if it ends in /ɪd/ (extra syllable), /d/ or /t/ (no extra syllable), but all these endings are spelt –ed.</p> <p>If the verb ends in two consonant letters (the same or different), the ending is simply added on.</p>	<p>hunting, hunted, hunter, buzzing, buzzed, buzzer, jumping, jumped, jumper</p>
<p>Adding –er and –est to adjectives where no change is needed to the root word</p>	<p>As with verbs (see above), if the adjective ends in two consonant letters (the same or different), the ending is simply added on.</p>	<p>grander, grandest, fresher, freshest, quicker, quickest</p>
<p>Vowel digraphs and trigraphs</p> <p>ai oi ay oy a–e e–e i–e o–e u–e ar ee ea (/i:/) ea (/ɛ/) er (/ɜ:/) er (/ə/)</p> <p>ir ur oo oo oa oe</p>	<p>Some may already be known, depending on the programmes used in reception, but some will be new. The endings –ing, –ed, –er and –est, if relevant, can be added straight on to all the words which can function as verbs or adjectives, except for those in italics.</p> <p>The digraphs ai and oi are never used at the end of English words.</p> <p>ay and oy are used for those sounds at the end of words and at the end of syllables.</p> <p>Both the /u:/ and /ju:/ sounds can be spelt u–e</p> <p>Very few words end with the letters oo.</p> <p>The digraph oa is very rare at the end of an English word.</p>	<p>rain, wait, train, paid, afraid oil, join, coin, point, soil day, play, say, way, stay boy, toy, enjoy, annoy made, came, same, take, safe these, theme, complete five, ride, like, time, side home, those, woke, hope, hole June, rule, rude, use, tube, tune car, start, park, arm, garden see, tree, green, meet, week sea, dream, meat, each, read (present tense) head, bread, meant, instead, read (past tense) (stressed sound): her, term, verb, person (unstressed <i>schwa</i> sound): better, under, summer, winter, sister girl, bird, shirt, first, third turn, hurt, church, burst, Thursday food, pool, moon, zoo, soon book, took, foot, wood, good boat, coat, road, coach, goal toe, goes</p>

ou ow (/aʊ/) ow (/əʊ/) ue ew ie (/aɪ/) ie (/i:/) igh or ore aw au air ear ear (/ɛə/) are (/ɛə/)	<p>The only common English word ending in ou is <i>you</i>.</p> <p>Both the /u:/ and /ju:/ (“oo” and “yoo”) sounds can be spelt as u–e, ue and ew. If words end in the /oo/ sound, ue and ew are more common spellings than oo.</p>	<p>out, about, mouth, around, sound</p> <p>now, how, brown, down, town</p> <p>own, blow, snow, grow, show</p> <p>blue, clue, true, rescue, Tuesday</p> <p>new, few, grew, flew, drew, threw</p> <p>lie, tie, pie, cried, tried, dried</p> <p>chief, field, thief</p> <p>high, night, light, bright, right</p> <p>for, short, born, horse, morning</p> <p>more, score, before, wore, shore</p> <p>saw, draw, yawn, crawl</p> <p>author, August, dinosaur, astronaut</p> <p>air, fair, pair, hair, chair</p> <p>dear, hear, beard, near, year</p> <p>bear, pear, wear</p> <p>bare, dare, care, share, scared</p>
Words ending –y (/i:/ or /ɪ/ depending on accent)		very, happy, funny, party, family
New consonant spellings ph and wh	The /f/ sound is not usually spelt as ph in short everyday words (e.g. <i>fat, fill, fun</i>).	dolphin, alphabet, phonics, elephant when, where, which, wheel, while
Using k for the /k/ sound	The /k/ sound is spelt as k rather than as c before e , i and y .	Kent, sketch, kit, skin, frisky
Adding the prefix –un	The prefix un– is added to the beginning of a word without any change to the spelling of the root word.	unhappy, undo, unload, unfair, unlock
Compound words	Compound words are two words joined together. Each part of the longer word is spelt as it would be if it were on its own.	football, playground, farmyard, bedroom, blackberry
Common exception words		the, a, do, to, today, of, said, says, are, were, was, is, his, has, I, you, your, they, be, he, me, she, we, no, go, so, by, my, here, there, where, love, come, some, one, once, ask, friend, school, put, push, pull, full, house, our, and/or others, according to the programme used

Year 2

Revision of work from Year 1	As words with new GPCs are introduced, many previously-taught GPCs can be revised at the same time as these words will usually contain them.
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New work for Year 2		
Statutory requirements	Rules and guidelines (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
The /dʒ/ sound spelt as ge and dge at the end of words, and sometimes spelt as g elsewhere in words before e , i and y	The letter j is never used for the /dʒ/ (“dge”) sound at the end of English words. At the end of a word, the /dʒ/ sound is spelt -dge straight after the /æ/, /ɛ/, /ɪ/, /ɒ/ and /ʌ/ sounds (sometimes called “short” vowels). After all other sounds, whether vowels or consonants, the /dʒ/ sound is spelt as -ge at the end of a word. In other positions in words, the /dʒ/ sound is often (but not always) spelt as g before e , i , and y . The /dʒ/ sound is always spelt as j before a , o and u .	badge, edge, bridge, dodge, fudge age, huge, change, charge, bulge, village gem, giant, magic, giraffe, energy
The /s/ sound spelt c before e , i and y		race, ice, cell, city, fancy
The /n/ sound spelt kn and (less often) gn at the beginning of words	The ‘k’ and ‘g’ at the beginning of these words was sounded hundreds of years ago.	knock, know, knee, gnat, gnaw
The /ɹ/ sound spelt wr at the beginning of words	This spelling probably also reflects an old pronunciation.	write, written, wrote, wrong, wrap
The // or /ə/ sound spelt -le at the end of words	The -le spelling is the most common spelling for this sound at the end of words.	table, apple, bottle, little, middle
The // or /ə/ sound spelt -el at the end of words	The -el spelling is much less common than -le . The -el spelling is used after m , n , r , s , v , w .	camel, tunnel, squirrel, tinsel, travel, towel
The // or /ə/ sound spelt -al at the end of words	Not many nouns end in -al , but many adjectives do.	metal, pedal, capital, hospital, animal
Words ending -il	There are not many of these words.	pencil, fossil, nostril
The /aɪ/ sound spelt -y at the end of words	This is by far the most common spelling for this sound at the end of words.	cry, fly, dry, try, reply, July
Adding -es to nouns and verbs ending in consonant-letter- y	The y is changed to i before -es is added.	flies, tries, replies, copies, babies, carries
Adding -ed , -ing , -er and -est to root words ending in consonant-letter- y	The y is changed to i before -ed , -er and -est are added, but not before -ing as this would result in ii . The only ordinary words with ii are <i>skiing</i> and <i>taxiing</i> .	copied, copier, happier, happiest, cried, replied ... but copying, crying, replying
Adding the endings -ing , -ed , -er , -est and -y to words ending in vowel-letter-consonant-letter- e	The -e at the end of the root word is dropped before -ing , -ed , -er , -est , -y or any other suffix beginning with a vowel letter is added.	hiking, hiked, hiker, nicer, nicest, shiny

Adding –ing, –ed, –er, –est and –y to words of one syllable ending in a single consonant letter after a single vowel letter	The last consonant letter of the root word is doubled to keep the /æ/, /ɛ/, /ɪ/, /ɒ/ and /ʌ/ sound (i.e. to keep the vowel ‘short’). Exception: The letter ‘x’ is never doubled: <i>mixing, mixed, boxer, sixes</i> .	patting, patted, humming, hummed, dropping, dropped, sadder, saddest, fatter, fattest, runner, runny
The /ɔ:/ sound spelt a before l and ll	The /ɔ:/ sound (“or”) is usually spelt as a before l and ll .	all, ball, call, walk, talk, always
The /ʌ/ sound spelt o		other, mother, brother, nothing, Monday
The /i:/ sound spelt –ey	The plural of these words is formed by the addition of –s (<i>donkeys, monkeys</i> etc.).	key, donkey, monkey, chimney, valley
The /ɒ/ sound spelt a after w and qu	a is the most common spelling for the /ɒ/ (“hot”) sound after w and qu .	want, watch, wander, quantity, squash
The /ɜ:/ sound spelt or after w	Very few words spell the /ɜ:/ sound (“burn”) this way.	word, work, worm, world, worth
The /ɔ:/ sound spelt ar after w	Very few words spell the /ɔ:/ sound (“or”) this way.	war, warm, towards
The /ʒ/ sound spelt s		television, treasure, usual
The suffixes –ment, –ness, –ful and –less	If a suffix starts with a consonant letter, it is added straight on to most root words without any change to the last letter of those words. Exceptions: (1) <i>argument</i> (2) root words ending in a consonant letter followed by y – see above.	enjoyment, sadness, careful, playful, hopeless, plainness (plain + ness)
Contractions	In contractions, the apostrophe shows where a letter or letters would be if the words were written in full (e.g. <i>can’t – cannot</i>). <i>It’s</i> means <i>it is</i> (e.g. <i>It’s</i> raining) or sometimes <i>it has</i> (e.g. <i>It’s</i> been raining), but <i>it’s</i> is never used for the possessive.	can’t, didn’t, hasn’t, couldn’t, it’s, I’ll
The possessive apostrophe (singular nouns)		Megan’s, Ravi’s, the girl’s, the child’s, the man’s
Words ending in –tion		station, fiction, motion, national, section
Homophones and near-homophones	It is important to know the difference in meaning between homophones.	there/their/they’re, here/hear, quite/quiet, see/sea, bare/bear, one/won, sun/son, to/too/two, be/bee, blue/blew, night/knight
Common exception words	Some words are exceptions in some accents but not in others – e.g. <i>past, last, fast, path</i> and <i>bath</i> are not exceptions in accents where the a in these words is pronounced /æ/, as in <i>cat</i> . <i>Great, break</i> and <i>steak</i> are the only common words where the /eɪ/ sound is spelt ea . Note ‘children’ is not an exception, but is included for convenience with ‘child’.	door, floor, poor, because, find, kind, mind, behind, child, children*, wild, climb, most, only, both, old, cold, gold, hold, told, every, everybody, even, great, break, steak, pretty, beautiful, after, fast, last, past, father, class, grass, pass, plant, path, bath, hour, move, prove, improve, sure, sugar, eye, could, should, would, who, whole, any, many, clothes, busy, people, water, again, half, money, Mr, Mrs, parents, Christmas – and/or others according to programme used.

Years 3 and 4

Revision of work from Years 1 and 2		Pay special attention to the rules for adding suffixes.
New work for Years 3 and 4		
Statutory requirements	Rules and guidelines (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Adding suffixes beginning with vowel letters to words of more than one syllable	If the last syllable of a word is stressed and ends with one consonant letter which has just one vowel letter before it, the final consonant letter is doubled before any ending beginning with a vowel letter is added. The consonant letter is not doubled if the syllable is unstressed.	forgetting, forgotten, beginning, beginner, prefer, preferred gardening, gardener, limiting, limited, limitation
The /ɪ/ sound spelt y elsewhere than at the end of words	These words should be learnt as needed.	myth, gym, Egypt, pyramid, mystery
The /ʌ/ sound spelt ou	These words should be learnt as needed.	young, touch, double, trouble, country
More prefixes	<p>Most prefixes are added to the beginning of root words without any changes in spelling, but see in- below. Like un-, the prefixes dis- and mis- have negative meanings.</p> <p>The prefix in- can mean both 'not' and 'in'/'into'. In the words given here it means 'not'. Before a root word starting with l, in- becomes il Before a root word starting with m or p, in- becomes im-. Before a root word starting with r, in- becomes ir-. re- means 'again' or 'back'. sub- means 'under'. inter- means 'between' or 'among'.</p> <p>super- means 'above'. anti- means 'against'. auto- means 'self' or 'own'.</p>	<p>dis-, mis-, in- disappoint, disagree, disobey misbehave, mislead, misspell (mis + spell) inactive, incorrect illegal, illegible immature, immortal, impossible, impatient, imperfect irregular, irrelevant, irresponsible re-: redo, refresh, return, reappear, redecorate sub-: subdivide, subheading, submarine, submerge inter-: interact, intercity, international, interrelated (inter + related) super-: supermarket, superman, superstar anti-: antiseptic, anti-clockwise, antidote auto-: automatic, autograph</p>
The suffix -ation	The suffix -ation is added to verbs to form nouns. The rules already learnt still apply.	information, adoration, sensation, preparation, admiration

<p>The suffix –ly</p>	<p>The suffix –ly is added to an adjective to form an adverb. The rules already learnt still apply.</p> <p>The –ly suffix starts with a consonant letter, so it is added straight on to most root words unless they end with y. If the root word ends with y, the y is changed to i.</p> <p>Exceptions:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If the root word ends with –le, the –le is changed to –ly. 2. If the root word ends with –ic, –ally is added rather than just –ly, except in the word <i>publicly</i>. 3. The words <i>truly</i>, <i>duly</i>, <i>wholly</i>. 	<p>sadly, completely, usually (usual + ly), finally (final + ly), comically (comical + ly) happily, angrily</p> <p>gently, simply, humbly, nobly basically, frantically, dramatically</p>
<p>Words with endings sounding like /ʒə/ or /tʃə/</p>	<p>The ending sounding like /ʒə/ is always spelt –sure.</p> <p>The ending sounding like /tʃə/ is often spelt –ture, but check that the word is not a root word ending in (t)ch with an er ending, e.g. <i>teacher</i>, <i>catcher</i>, <i>richer</i>, <i>stretcher</i>.</p>	<p>measure, treasure, pleasure, enclosure</p> <p>creature, furniture, picture, nature, adventure</p>
<p>Endings which sound like /ʒən/</p>	<p>If the ending sounds like /ʒən/, it is spelt as –sion.</p>	<p>division, invasion, confusion, decision, collision, television</p>
<p>The suffix –ous</p>	<p>Sometimes the root word is obvious and the usual rules apply for adding suffixes beginning with vowel letters. Sometimes there is no obvious root word.</p> <p>–our is changed to –or before –ous is added. A final ‘e’ must be kept if the /dʒ/ sound of ‘g’ is to be kept.</p> <p>If there is an /i:/ sound before the –ous ending, it is usually spelt as i, but a few words have e.</p>	<p>poisonous, dangerous, mountainous, famous, various</p> <p>tremendous, enormous, jealous</p> <p>humorous, glamorous, vigorous courageous, outrageous</p> <p>serious, obvious, curious hideous, spontaneous, courteous</p>
<p>Endings which sound like /jən/, spelt –tion, –sion, –ssion, –cian</p>	<p>Strictly speaking, the endings are –ion and –ian. Clues about whether to put t, s, ss or c before these endings often come from the last letter or letters of the root word.</p> <p>–tion is the most common spelling. It is used if the root word ends in t (invent) or te (hesitate).</p> <p>–ssion is used if the root word ends in ss or –mit.</p> <p>–sion is used if the root word ends in d or se.</p> <p>Exceptions: attend – attention, intend – intention</p> <p>–cian is used if the root word ends in c or cs.</p>	<p>invention, injection, action, hesitation, completion</p> <p>expression, discussion, confession, permission, admission expansion, extension, comprehension, tension</p> <p>musician, electrician, magician, politician, mathematician</p>
<p>Words with the /k/ sound spelt ch (Greek in origin)</p>		<p>scheme, chorus, chemist, echo, character</p>

Words with the /ʃ/ sound spelt ch (mostly French in origin)		chef, chalet, machine, brochure
Words ending with the /g/ sound spelt –gue and the /k/ sound spelt –que (French in origin)		league, tongue, antique, unique
Words with the /s/ sound spelt sc (Latin in origin)		science, scene, discipline, fascinate, crescent
Words with the /eɪ/ sound spelt ei, eigh, or ey		vein, weigh, eight, neighbour, they, obey
Possessive apostrophe with plural words	The apostrophe is placed after the plural form of the word; –s is not added if the plural already ends in –s , but <i>is</i> added if the plural does not end in –s (i.e. is an irregular plural – e.g. <i>children’s</i>).	girls’, boys’, babies’, children’s, men’s, mice’s (Note: singular proper nouns ending in an s use the ’s suffix e.g. Cyprus’s population.)
Homophones or near-homophones		accept/except, affect/effect, ball/bawl, berry/bury, brake/break, fair/fare, grate/great, groan/grown, here/hear, heel/heal/he’ll, knot/not, mail/male, main/mane, meat/meet, medal/meddle, missed/mist, peace/piece, plain/plane, rain/rein/reign, scene/seen, weather/whether, whose/who’s

Word list for Years 3 and 4

accident(ally)	circle	famous	island	peculiar	sentence
actual(ly)	complete	favourite	knowledge	perhaps	separate
address	consider	February	learn	popular	special
answer	continue	forward(s)	length	position	straight
appear	decide	fruit	library	possess(ion)	strange
arrive	describe	grammar	material	possible	strength
believe	different	group	medicine	potatoes	suppose
bicycle	difficult	guard	mention	pressure	surprise
breath	disappear	guide	minute	probably	therefore
breathe	early	heard	natural	promise	though/although
build	earth	heart	naughty	purpose	thought
business	eight/eighth	height	notice	quarter	through
calendar	enough	history	occasion(ally)	question	various
caught	exercise	imagine	often	recent	weight
centre	experience	increase	opposite	regular	woman
century	experiment	important	ordinary	reign	women
certain	extreme	interest	particular	remember	

Many root words simply need to be learnt, but once they are learnt, and the rules and guidelines for adding prefixes and suffixes are known, many longer words can be spelt correctly. Examples:

business (**busy** + **ness**, with the **y** of **busy** changed to **i** according to the rule).
disappear (just add **dis-** to **appear**).

Understanding relationships between words can also help with spelling. Examples:

bicycle is *cycle* (from the Greek for *wheel*) with **bi-** (meaning *two*) before it.
medicine is related to *medical* so the /s/ sound is spelt as **c**.
opposite is related to *oppose*, so the schwa sound in *opposite* is spelt as **o**.

Years 5 and 6

Revise work done in previous years		
New work for Years 5 and 6		
Statutory requirements	Rules and guidelines (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Endings which sound like /ʃəs/ spelt –cious or –tious	Not many common words end like this. If the root word ends in –ce , the /ʃ/ sound is usually spelt as c – e.g. <i>vice</i> – <i>vicious</i> , <i>grace</i> – <i>gracious</i> , <i>space</i> – <i>spacious</i> , <i>malice</i> – <i>malicious</i> . Exception: <i>anxious</i>	vicious, precious, conscious, delicious, malicious, suspicious ambitious, cautious, fictitious, infectious, nutritious
Endings which sound like /ʃəl/	–cial is common after a vowel letter and –tial after a consonant letter, but there are some exceptions. Exceptions: initial, financial, commercial, provincial (the spelling of the last three is clearly related to <i>finance</i> , <i>commerce</i> and <i>province</i>).	official, special, artificial, partial, confidential, essential
Words ending in –ant, –ance/–ancy, –ent, –ence/–ency	Use –ant and –ance/–ancy if there is a related word with a /æ/ or /e/ sound in the right position; –ation endings are often a clue. Use –ent and –ence/–ency after soft c (/s/ sound), soft g (/dʒ/ sound) and qu , or if there is a related word with a clear /ɛ/ sound in the right position. There are many words, however, where the above guidelines don't help. These words just have to be learnt.	observant, observance, (observ <u>a</u> tion), expectant (expect <u>a</u> tion), hesitant, hesitancy (hesit <u>a</u> tion), tolerant, tolerance (toler <u>a</u> tion), substance (subst <u>a</u> ntial) innocent, innocence, decent, decency, frequent, frequency, confident, confidence (confidential) assistant, assistance, obedient, obedience, independent, independence
Words ending in –able and –ible	The –able ending is far more common than the –ible ending. As with –ant and –ance/–ancy , the –able ending is used if there is a related word ending in –ation . If the –able ending is added to a word ending in –ce or –ge , the e after the c or g must be kept as those letters would otherwise have their 'hard' sounds (as in <i>cap</i> and <i>gap</i>) before the a of the –able ending. The –able ending is usually but not always used if a complete root word can be heard before it, even if there is no related word ending in –ation . The first five examples opposite are obvious; in <i>reliable</i> , the complete word <i>rely</i> is heard, but the y changes to i in accordance with the rule. The –ible ending is common if a complete root word can't be heard before it but it also sometimes occurs when a complete word <i>can</i> be heard (e.g. <i>sensible</i>).	adorable (adoration), applicable (application), considerable (consideration), tolerable (toleration) changeable, noticeable, forcible, legible dependable, comfortable, understandable, reasonable, enjoyable, reliable possible, horrible, terrible, visible, incredible, sensible
Adding suffixes beginning with	The r is doubled if the –fer is still stressed when the ending is added.	referring, referred, referral, preferring, preferred, transferring,

vowel letters to words ending in -fer	The r is not doubled if the -fer is no longer stressed.	transferred reference, referee, preference, transference
Use of the hyphen	Hyphens can be used to join a prefix to a root word, especially if the prefix ends in a vowel letter and the root word also begins with one.	co-ordinate, re-enter, co-operate, co-own
Words with the /i:/ sound spelt ei after c	The 'i before e except after c' rule applies to words where the sound spelt by ei is /i:/. Exceptions: <i>protein, caffeine, seize</i> (and <i>either</i> and <i>neither</i> if pronounced with an initial /i:/ sound).	deceive, conceive, receive, perceive, ceiling
Words containing the letter-string ough	ough is one of the trickiest spellings in English – it can be used to spell a number of different sounds.	ought, bought, thought, nought, brought, fought rough, tough, enough cough though, although, dough through thorough, borough plough
Words with 'silent' letters (i.e. letters whose presence cannot be predicted from the pronunciation of the word)	Some letters which are no longer sounded used to be sounded hundreds of years ago: e.g. in <i>knight</i> , there was a /k/ sound before the /n/, and the gh used to represent the sound that 'ch' now represents in the Scottish word <i>loch</i> .	doubt, island, lamb, solemn, thistle, knight
Homophones and other words that are often confused	In these pairs of words, nouns end -ce and verbs end -se . <i>Advice</i> and <i>advise</i> provide a useful clue as the word <i>advise</i> (verb) is pronounced with a /z/ sound – which could not be spelt c . aisle: a gangway between seats (in a church, train, plane) isle: an island aloud: out loud allowed: permitted affect: usually a verb (e.g. <i>The weather may affect our plans.</i>) effect: usually a noun (e.g. <i>It may have an effect on our plans.</i>). If a verb, it means 'bring about' (e.g. <i>He will effect changes in the running of the business.</i>). altar: a table-like piece of furniture in a church alter: to change ascent: the act of ascending (going up) assent: to agree/agreement (verb and noun) bridal: to do with a bride at a wedding bridle: reins etc. for controlling a horse	advice/advise device/devise licence/license practice/practise prophecy/prophesy eligible: suitable to be chosen or elected illegible: not legible (i.e. unreadable) eliminate: get rid of/exclude illuminate: light up farther: further father: a male parent guessed: past tense of the verb <i>guess</i> guest: visitor heard: past tense of the verb <i>hear</i> herd: a group of animals led: past tense of the verb <i>lead</i> lead: present tense of that verb, or else the metal which is very heavy (<i>as heavy as lead</i>) morning: before noon

	<p>cereal: made from grain (e.g. breakfast cereal)</p> <p>serial: adjective from the noun <i>series</i> – a succession of things one after the other</p> <p>compliment: to make nice remarks about someone (verb) or the remark that is made (noun)</p> <p>complement: related to the word <i>complete</i> – to make something complete or more complete (e.g. <i>her scarf complemented her outfit</i>)</p> <p>descent: the act of descending (going down)</p> <p>dissent: to disagree/disagreement (verb and noun)</p> <p>desert: as a noun – a barren place (stress on first syllable); as a verb – to abandon (stress on second syllable)</p> <p>dessert: (stress on second syllable) a sweet course after the main course of a meal</p> <p>disinterested: not having a personal stake in the matter (a World Cup referee must be disinterested – i.e. must not be from one of the countries playing in the match)</p> <p>uninterested: not interested, bored (a referee should be interested, not uninterested, in football)</p> <p>draft: noun – a first attempt at writing something; verb – to make the first attempt; also, to draw in someone (e.g. <i>to draft in extra help</i>)</p> <p>draught: a current of air</p>	<p>mourning: grieving for someone who has died</p> <p>past: noun or adjective referring to a previous time (e.g. <i>In the past</i>) or preposition or adverb showing place (e.g. <i>he walked past me</i>)</p> <p>passed: past tense of the verb 'pass' (e.g. <i>I passed him in the road</i>)</p> <p>precede: go in front of or before</p> <p>proceed: go on</p> <p>principal: adjective – most important (e.g. <i>principal ballerina</i>) noun – important person (e.g. <i>principal of a college</i>)</p> <p>principle: basic truth or belief</p> <p>profit: money that is made in selling things</p> <p>prophet: someone who foretells the future</p> <p>stationary: not moving</p> <p>stationery: paper, envelopes etc.</p> <p>steal: take something that does not belong to you</p> <p>steel: metal</p> <p>wary: cautious</p> <p>weary: tired</p> <p>who's: contraction of <i>who is</i> or <i>who has</i></p> <p>whose: belonging to someone (e.g. <i>Whose jacket is that?</i>)</p>
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Word list for Years 5 and 6

accommodate	communicate	equip (–ped, –ment)	interrupt	profession	symbol
accompany	community	especially	language	programme	system
according	competition	exaggerate	leisure	pronunciation	temperature
achieve	conscience*	excellent	lightning	queue	thorough
aggressive	conscious*	existence	marvellous	recognise	twelfth
amateur	controversy	explanation	mischievous	recommend	variety
ancient	convenience	familiar	muscle	relevant	vegetable
apparent	correspond	foreign	necessary	restaurant	vehicle
appreciate	criticise (critic + ise)	forty	neighbour	rhyme	yacht
attached	curiosity	frequently	nuisance	rhythm	
available	definite	government	occupy	sacrifice	
average	desperate	guarantee	occur	secretary	
awkward	determined	harass	opportunity	shoulder	
bargain	develop	hindrance	parliament	sincere(ly)	
bruise	dictionary	identity	persuade	soldier	
category	disastrous	immediate(ly)	physical	stomach	
cemetery	embarrass	individual	prejudice	sufficient	
committee	environment	interfere	privilege	suggest	

Many of these words can be used for practice in adding suffixes.

**Conscience* and *conscious* are related to *science* – all come from the Latin word meaning ‘to know’. *Conscience* is simply *science* with the prefix *con-* added. *Conscious* also contains the ‘sci’ of *science*.

Appendix 2: Grammar and punctuation

The grammar of our first language is learnt naturally and implicitly through interactions with other speakers and from reading. Explicit knowledge of grammar is, however, very important, as it gives us more conscious control and choice in our language. Building this knowledge is best achieved through a focus on grammar within the teaching of reading, writing and speaking. Once pupils have been introduced to a grammatical concept, they should be encouraged to apply their learning by using that grammar in their own speech and writing and noting where it is used in the speech and writing of others. Young pupils, in particular, use more complex language in speech than in writing, and teachers should build on this, aiming for a smooth transition to sophisticated writing.

The table below focuses on Standard English and should be read in conjunction with the programme of study as it sets out statutory requirements. The table shows when concepts should be introduced first, not necessarily when they should be completely understood. It is very important, therefore, that the content in earlier years be revisited in subsequent years to consolidate knowledge and build on pupils' understanding. Teachers should also go beyond the content set out here if they feel it is appropriate.

The grammatical terms that pupils should learn are set out in the final column. They should learn to recognise and use the terminology through discussion and practice. All terms in **bold** should be understood with the meanings set out in the glossary.

Years 1 to 6

Year	Word structure	Sentence structure	Text structure	Punctuation	Terminology for pupils
1	<p>Regular plural noun suffixes –s or –es (e.g. <i>dog, dogs; wish, wishes</i>)</p> <p>Suffixes that can be added to verbs (e.g. <i>helping, helped, helper</i>)</p> <p>How the prefix un– changes the meaning of verbs and adjectives (negation, e.g. <i>unkind</i>, or undoing, e.g. <i>untie the boat</i>)</p>	<p>How words can combine to make sentences</p> <p>Joining words and joining sentences using <i>and</i></p>	<p>Sequencing sentences to form short narratives</p>	<p>Separation of words with spaces</p> <p>Introduction to capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences</p> <p>Capital letters for names and for the personal pronoun I</p>	<p>word, sentence, letter, capital letter, full stop, punctuation, singular, plural, question mark, exclamation mark</p>
2	<p>Formation of nouns using suffixes such as –ness, –er</p> <p>Formation of adjectives using suffixes such as –ful, –less (A fuller list of suffixes can be found in the Year 2 spelling appendix.)</p> <p>Use of the suffixes –er and –est to form comparisons of adjectives and adverbs</p>	<p>Subordination (using <i>when, if, that, or because</i>) and co-ordination (using <i>or, and, or but</i>)</p> <p>Expanded noun phrases for description and specification (e.g. <i>the blue butterfly, plain flour, the man in the moon</i>)</p> <p>Sentences with different forms: statement, question, exclamation, command</p>	<p>Correct choice and consistent use of present tense and past tense throughout writing</p> <p>Use of the continuous form of verbs in the present and past tense to mark actions in progress (e.g. <i>she is drumming, he was shouting</i>)</p>	<p>Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences</p> <p>Commas to separate items in a list</p> <p>Apostrophes to mark contracted forms in spelling</p>	<p>verb, tense (past, present), adjective, noun, suffix, apostrophe, comma</p>
3	<p>Formation of nouns using a range of prefixes, such as <i>super–, anti–, auto–</i></p> <p>Use of the determiners a or <i>an</i> according to whether the next word begins with a consonant or a vowel (e.g. <i>a rock, an open box</i>)</p>	<p>Expressing time and cause using conjunctions (e.g. <i>when, so, before, after, while, because</i>), adverbs (e.g. <i>then, next, soon, therefore</i>, or prepositions (e.g. <i>before, after, during, in, because of</i>)</p>	<p>Introduction to paragraphs as a way to group related material</p> <p>Headings and sub-headings to aid presentation</p> <p>Use of the perfect form of verbs to mark relationships of time and cause (e.g. <i>I</i></p>	<p>Introduction to inverted commas to punctuate direct speech</p>	<p>word family, conjunction, adverb, preposition, direct speech, inverted commas (or “speech marks”), prefix, consonant, vowel, consonant letter, vowel letter, clause, subordinate clause</p>

Year	Word structure	Sentence structure	Text structure	Punctuation	Terminology for pupils
	Word families based on common words		<i>have written it down so we can check what he said.)</i>		
4	The grammatical difference between plural and possessive -s Standard English forms for verb inflections instead of local spoken forms (e.g. <i>we were</i> instead of <i>we was</i> , or <i>I did</i> instead of <i>I done</i>)	Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within a sentence to avoid ambiguity and repetition Fronted adverbials (e.g. <i>Later that day, I heard the bad news.</i>)	Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition	Use of inverted commas to punctuate direct speech Apostrophes to mark singular and plural possession (e.g. <i>the girl's name, the boys' boots</i>) Use of commas after fronted adverbials	pronoun, possessive pronoun, adverbial
5	Converting nouns or adjectives into verbs using suffixes (e.g. <i>-ate; -ise; -ify</i>) Verb prefixes (e.g. <i>dis-, de-, mis-, over- and re-</i>)	Relative clauses beginning with <i>who, which, where, why, whose, that</i> , or an omitted relative pronoun Indicating degrees of possibility using modal verbs (e.g. <i>might, should, will, must</i>) or adverbs (e.g. <i>perhaps, surely</i>)	Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph (e.g. <i>then, after that, this, firstly</i>) Linking ideas across paragraphs using adverbials of time (e.g. <i>later</i>), place (e.g. <i>nearby</i>) and number (e.g. <i>secondly</i>)	Brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity	relative clause, modal verb, relative pronoun, parenthesis, bracket, dash, determiner, cohesion, ambiguity

Year	Word structure	Sentence structure	Text structure	Punctuation	Terminology for pupils
6	The difference between vocabulary typical of informal speech and vocabulary appropriate for formal speech and writing (e.g. <i>said</i> versus <i>reported</i> , <i>alleged</i> , or <i>claimed</i> in formal speech or writing)	<p>Use of the passive voice to affect the presentation of information in a sentence (e.g. <i>I broke the window in the greenhouse</i> versus <i>The window in the greenhouse was broken</i>)</p> <p>Expanded noun phrases to convey complicated information concisely (e.g. <i>the boy that jumped over the fence is over there</i>, or <i>the fact that it was raining meant the end of sports day</i>)</p> <p>The difference between structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing (such as the use of question tags, e.g. <i>He's your friend, isn't he?</i>, or the use of the subjunctive in some very formal writing and speech)</p>	<p>Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: semantic cohesion (e.g. repetition of a word or phrase), grammatical connections (e.g. the use of adverbials such as <i>on the other hand</i>, <i>in contrast</i>, or <i>as a consequence</i>), and ellipsis</p> <p>Layout devices, such as headings, sub-headings, columns, bullets, or tables, to structure text</p>	<p>Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses (e.g. <i>It's raining; I'm fed up.</i>)</p> <p>Use of the colon to introduce a list</p> <p>Punctuation of bullet points to list information</p> <p>How hyphens can be used to avoid ambiguity (e.g. <i>man eating shark</i> versus <i>man-eating shark</i>, or <i>recover</i> versus <i>re-cover</i>)</p>	active and passive voice, subject and object, hyphen, colon, semi-colon, bullet points, synonym and antonym

Phonemic transcription examples using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)

Vowels							
ʌ	b <u>u</u> t, c <u>u</u> p	ɜ:	sh <u>i</u> r <u>t</u> , b <u>u</u> r <u>n</u>	ʊ	p <u>u</u> ll, sh <u>o</u> u <u>l</u> d	əʊ	sh <u>o</u> w, g <u>o</u>
ɑ:	<u>a</u> r <u>m</u> , b <u>a</u> r	ɪ	s <u>i</u> t, f <u>i</u> t <u>t</u> i <u>n</u> g	u:	gl <u>u</u> e, f <u>o</u> o <u>d</u>	ɔɪ	b <u>o</u> y, j <u>o</u> i <u>n</u>
æ	c <u>a</u> t, n <u>a</u> p	i:	b <u>e</u> e, b <u>e</u> a <u>t</u>	aɪ	l <u>i</u> e, s <u>k</u> y	ɛə	f <u>a</u> r <u>e</u> , <u>a</u> i <u>r</u>
ɛ	l <u>e</u> t, b <u>e</u> d	ɒ	n <u>o</u> t, l <u>o</u> ck	aʊ	c <u>o</u> w, sh <u>o</u> u <u>t</u>	ɪə	h <u>e</u> r <u>e</u> , <u>e</u> a <u>r</u>
ə	<u>a</u> l <u>o</u> n <u>e</u> , <u>u</u> p <u>o</u> n	ɔ:	c <u>a</u> ll, l <u>a</u> w	eɪ	<u>e</u> i <u>g</u> h <u>t</u> , s <u>a</u> y	ʊə	s <u>u</u> r <u>e</u> , t <u>o</u> u <u>r</u>

Consonants							
b	<u>b</u> all, d <u>a</u> b	k	<u>c</u> at, l <u>u</u> ck	ɹ	r <u>e</u> ad, c <u>r</u> y	ð	<u>t</u> he, f <u>a</u> th <u>e</u> r
d	<u>d</u> o, sh <u>a</u> d <u>e</u>	l	l <u>i</u> t, s <u>i</u> l <u>l</u> y	s	s <u>e</u> e, k <u>i</u> ss	v	<u>v</u> ase, <u>a</u> l <u>i</u> v <u>e</u>
f	<u>f</u> all, <u>i</u> f	m	<u>m</u> an, <u>i</u> mp	ʃ	<u>s</u> he, st <u>a</u> sh	w	<u>w</u> all, <u>w</u> in <u>d</u> ow
g	<u>g</u> o, s <u>a</u> g	n	<u>n</u> o, <u>o</u> n	t	<u>t</u> oo, s <u>e</u> t	z	<u>z</u> oo, c <u>r</u> a <u>z</u> y
h	<u>h</u> ave, <u>h</u> old	ŋ	r <u>i</u> ng, f <u>i</u> ng <u>e</u> r	tʃ	<u>ch</u> ea <u>p</u> , <u>i</u> t <u>ch</u>	ʒ	m <u>e</u> as <u>u</u> r <u>e</u> , t <u>e</u> l <u>e</u> v <u>i</u> s <u>i</u> o <u>n</u>
j	<u>y</u> es, <u>y</u> ank	p	<u>p</u> al, s <u>t</u> o <u>p</u>	θ	<u>th</u> istle, b <u>o</u> th	dʒ	<u>j</u> am, b <u>a</u> r <u>g</u> e

Glossary for the programmes of study for English at Key Stages 1 and 2

The following glossary includes all the technical grammatical terms used in the programmes of study for English at Key Stages 1 and 2. It is intended as an aid for teachers, not as the body of knowledge that should be learnt by pupils. Apart from a few which are used only in schools (e.g. *connective*, *root word*), the terms below are used with the meanings defined here in most modern books on English grammar. For further details, teachers should consult the many books that are available.

Terms in definitions

As in any tightly structured area of knowledge, grammar and spelling involve a network of technical concepts that help to define each other. Consequently, the definition of one concept builds on other concepts that are equally technical. Concepts that are defined elsewhere in the glossary appear in [blue](#), and are hyperlinked. For some concepts, the technical definition may be slightly different from the meaning that some teachers may have learnt at school themselves; in these cases, the more familiar meaning is also discussed.

active voice	A verb in the active voice has its usual pattern of subject and object (in contrast with the passive voice).	<i>The school arranged a visit.</i> Passive voice: <i>A visit was arranged.</i>
adjective	<p>The surest way to identify adjectives is by the ways they can be used:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • before a noun, to make the noun's meaning more specific (i.e. to modify the noun), or • after the verb <i>be</i>, as its complement. <p>Adjectives cannot be modified by other adjectives. This distinguishes them from nouns, which can be.</p> <p>Adjectives are sometimes called “describing words” because they pick out single characteristics such as size or colour. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adjectives from other word classes, because verbs, nouns and adverbs can do the same thing.</p>	<p><i>The pupils did some really <u>good</u> work.</i> [adjective used before a noun, to modify it] <i>Their work was <u>good</u>.</i> [adjective used after the verb <i>be</i>, as its complement]</p> <p>Not adjectives:</p> <p><i>The lamp <u>glowed</u>.</i> [verb] <i>It was such a bright <u>red</u>!</i> [noun] <i>He walked <u>clumsily</u>.</i> [adverb] <i>It was a French <u>grammar</u> book.</i> [noun]</p>

adverb	<p>The surest way to identify adverbs is by the ways they can be used: they can modify a verb, an adjective, or even another adverb. Put another way, adverbs can make the meanings of these other words more specific.</p> <p>Adverbs are sometimes said to describe manner or time. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adverbs from other word classes, because prepositions, nouns and subordinate clauses can also do this.</p>	<p><i>Usha went <u>upstairs</u> to play on her computer.</i> [adverb modifying the verb <i>went</i>]</p> <p><i>That match was <u>really</u> exciting!</i> [adverb modifying the adjective <i>exciting</i>]</p> <p><i>We don't get to play games <u>very</u> often.</i> [adverb modifying the other adverb, <i>often</i>]</p> <p>Not adverbs:</p> <p><i>Usha went <u>up</u> the stairs.</i> [preposition]</p> <p><i>She finished her work this <u>evening</u>.</i> [noun]</p> <p><i>She finished <u>when the teacher got cross</u>.</i> [subordinate clause]</p>
adverbial	<p>An adverbial is a word or phrase that makes the meaning of a verb more specific (i.e. it modifies the verb).</p> <p>Of course, adverbs can be used as an adverbial, but many types of words and phrases can be used this way, including preposition phrases and subordinate clauses.</p>	<p><i>The bus leaves <u>in five minutes</u>.</i> [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies <i>leaves</i>]</p> <p><i>Alex forgot <u>to buy Easter eggs</u>.</i> [subordinate clause as adverbial: modifies <i>forgot</i>]</p> <p><i>Priscila complained <u>constantly</u>.</i> [adverb: modifies <i>complained</i>]</p>
apostrophe	<p>Apostrophes have two completely different uses:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • showing the place of missing letters (e.g. <i>I'm</i> for <i>I am</i>) • showing possession (e.g. <i>Hannah's mother</i>). 	<p><i>I'm going out and I <u>won't</u> be long.</i> [showing missing letters]</p> <p><i><u>Hannah's</u> mother went to town in <u>Justin's</u> car.</i> [showing possession]</p>
article	<p>The articles are <i>the</i> (definite) and <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> (indefinite). Articles are a type of determiner.</p>	<p><i><u>The</u> dog found <u>a</u> bone in <u>an</u> old box.</i></p>
auxiliary verb	<p>The auxiliary verbs are <i>be</i>, <i>have</i> and <i>do</i>, plus all the modal verbs. They can all be used to make questions and negative statements. In addition:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>be</i> is used in the continuous and passive • <i>have</i> is used in the perfect • <i>do</i> is used to make questions and negative statements if no other auxiliary verb is present. 	<p><i>They <u>are</u> winning the match.</i> [<i>be</i> used in the continuous]</p> <p><i><u>Have</u> you finished your picture?</i> [<i>have</i> used to make a question, and the perfect]</p> <p><i>No, I <u>don't</u> know him.</i> [<i>do</i> used to make a negative; no other auxiliary is present]</p> <p><i><u>Will</u> you come with me or not?</i> [modal verb <i>will</i> used to make a question]</p>
clause	<p>A clause is a special type of phrase, whose main word (or "head") is a verb that describes an event or state of affairs. Clauses can sometimes be complete sentences.</p> <p>Traditionally, a clause had to have a finite verb, but most modern grammarians also recognise non-finite clauses.</p>	<p><i><u>Eleni's mother was out</u> so <u>Eleni was left in charge</u>.</i></p> <p><i>Eleni's mother went out so <u>Eleni was left in charge</u>.</i></p> <p><i>Usha went upstairs <u>to play on her computer</u>.</i> [non-finite clause]</p>

cohesion	<p>A text has cohesion if it is clear how the meanings of its parts fit together. <u>Cohesive devices</u> can help to do this.</p> <p>In the example, there are repeated references to the same thing (shown by the different colours and underlines), and the logical relations, such as time and cause, between different parts are clear.</p>	<p><u>A visit</u> has been arranged for Year 6, to the <u>Mountain Peaks Field Study Centre</u>, leaving school at 9.30am. <u>This</u> is <u>an overnight visit</u>. <u>The centre</u> has beautiful grounds and <u>a nature trail</u>. During the afternoon, the children will follow <u>the trail</u>.</p>
cohesive device	<p>Cohesive devices are words used to show how the different parts of a text fit together. In other words, they create <u>cohesion</u>.</p> <p>Some examples of cohesive devices are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>determiners</u> and <u>pronouns</u>, which can refer back to earlier words • <u>prepositions</u>, <u>conjunctions</u> and <u>adverbs</u>, which can make relations between words clear • <u>ellipsis</u> of expected words. 	<p><u>Julia's dad</u> bought her a football. <u>The</u> football was expensive! [determiner; refers us back to a particular football]</p> <p>We'll be going shopping <u>before</u> we go to the park. [conjunction; makes a relationship of time clear]</p> <p>Where are you going? [<u> </u>] To school! [ellipsis of the expected words <i>I'm going</i>; links the answer back to the question]</p>
complement	<p>A <u>verb's</u> complement adds more information about the verb's subject (or, in some cases, its object).</p> <p>Unlike the verb's object, its complement may be an adjective. The verb <i>be</i> normally has a complement.</p>	<p>She is <u>our teacher</u>. [adds more information about the subject, <i>she</i>]</p> <p>Today is <u>Wednesday</u>. [adds more information about the subject, <i>today</i>]</p> <p>Learning makes me <u>happy</u>. [adds more information about the object, <i>me</i>]</p>
conjunction	<p>A conjunction links two words or phrases together.</p> <p>There are two main types of conjunctions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>co-ordinating</u> conjunctions (e.g. <i>and</i>) link two words or phrases together as an equal pair • subordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>when</i>) introduce a <u>subordinate clause</u>. 	<p>James bought a top <u>and</u> gloves. [links the words <i>top</i> and <i>gloves</i> as an equal pair]</p> <p>Ali is strong <u>but</u> he is also very fast. [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p>Everyone watches <u>when</u> Kyle does back-flips. [introduces a subordinate clause]</p> <p>Joe can't practise kicking <u>because</u> he's injured. [introduces a subordinate clause]</p>
connective	<p>This is an informal name for words that connect the ideas expressed in different <u>clauses</u>; connectives may be <u>prepositions</u>, <u>conjunctions</u> or <u>adverbs</u>.</p>	<p>It rained on sports day, <u>so</u> we had to run <u>without</u> worrying <u>about</u> getting wet, <u>but</u> it was great fun <u>because</u> we got really muddy.</p>
consonant	<p>A sound which is produced when the speaker closes off or obstructs the flow of air through the vocal tract, usually using lips, tongue or teeth.</p> <p>Most of the letters of the alphabet represent consonants. Only the letters <i>a, e, i, o, u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent <u>vowel</u> sounds.</p>	<p>/p/ [flow of air stopped by the lips, then released]</p> <p>/t/ [flow of air stopped by the tongue touching the roof of the mouth, then released]</p> <p>/f/ [flow of air obstructed by the top teeth touching the bottom lip]</p> <p>/s/ [flow of air obstructed by the tip of the tongue touching the gum line]</p>

<p>continuous</p>	<p>The continuous (also known as the “progressive”) form of a verb generally describes actions in progress. It is formed by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • taking the <i>-ing</i> form of the verb (e.g. <i>singing</i>, <i>reading</i>) • adding the verb <i>be</i> before it (e.g. <i>he was reading</i>). <p>The continuous can also be combined with the perfect (e.g. <i>he has been reading</i>).</p>	<p><i>Michael <u>is singing</u> in the store room.</i> [present continuous] <i>Amanda <u>was making</u> a patchwork quilt.</i> [past continuous] <i>Usha <u>had been practising</u> for an hour when I called.</i> [past perfect continuous]</p>
<p>co-ordinate, co-ordination</p>	<p>Words or phrases are co-ordinated if they are linked as an equal pair by a co-ordinating conjunction (e.g. <i>and</i>).</p> <p>In the examples on the right, the co-ordinated elements are shown in the same colour, and the conjunction is underlined.</p> <p>The difference between co-ordination and subordination is that, in subordination, the two linked elements are not equal.</p>	<p><i>Susan <u>and</u> Amra met in a café.</i> [links the words <i>Susan</i> and <i>Amra</i> as an equal pair] <i>They <u>talked and drank</u> tea for an hour.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair] <i>Susan got a bus <u>but</u> Amra walked.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p>Not co-ordination: <i>They ate <u>before</u> they met.</i> [<i>before</i> introduces a subordinate clause]</p>
<p>determiner</p>	<p>A determiner modifies a noun, but it goes before any other modifiers (e.g. adjectives or other nouns).</p> <p>Some examples of determiners are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • articles (<i>the</i>, <i>a</i> or <i>an</i>) • demonstratives (e.g. <i>this</i>, <i>those</i>) • possessives (e.g. <i>my</i>, <i>your</i>) • quantifiers (e.g. <i>some</i>, <i>every</i>) • numerals (e.g. <i>thirty-one</i>) 	<p><i>the best team</i> [article] <i>that pupil</i> [demonstrative] <i>Julia’s parents</i> [possessive] <i>some boys</i> [quantifier] <i>eleven strong players</i> [numeral]</p> <p>Contrast: <i>best <u>the</u> team</i> <i>strong <u>eleven</u> players</i> [both incorrect, because the determiner should come before other modifiers]</p>
<p>digraph</p>	<p>A type of grapheme where two letters represent one phoneme.</p> <p>Sometimes, these two letters are not next to one another; this is called a split digraph.</p>	<p>The digraph <u>ea</u> in <u>ea</u>ch is pronounced /i:/. The digraph <u>sh</u> in <u>sh</u>ed is pronounced /ʃ/. The split digraph <u>i-e</u> in <u>li</u>ne is pronounced /aɪ/.</p>
<p>ellipsis</p>	<p>Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.</p>	<p><i>Frankie waved to Ivana and <u>she</u> watched her drive away.</i> <i>She did it because she wanted to <u>do it</u>.</i></p>
<p>etymology</p>	<p>A word’s etymology is its history: its origins in earlier forms of English or other languages, and how its form and meaning have changed.</p>	<p>The word <i>school</i> was borrowed from a Greek word <i>σχολή</i> (<i>skholé</i>) meaning “leisure”.</p>

finite verb	<p>Finite verbs can stand on their own as the only verb in a sentence. They can be in the present tense, the past tense, or imperatives.</p> <p>Verbs that are not finite, such as participles or infinitives, cannot stand on their own: they depend on another verb in the sentence.</p>	<p><i>Lizzie <u>does</u> the dishes every day.</i> [present tense] <i>Even Hana <u>did</u> the dishes yesterday.</i> [past tense] <i><u>Do</u> the dishes, Naser!</i> [imperative]</p> <p>Not finite verbs: <i>I have <u>done</u> them.</i> [depends on the finite verb <i>have</i>] <i>I will <u>do</u> them.</i> [depends on the finite verb <i>will</i>] <i>I want to <u>do</u> them!</i> [depends on the finite verb <i>want</i>]</p>
fronting, fronted	<p>A word or phrase that normally comes after the verb may be moved before the verb: when this happens, we say it has been “fronted”. For example, a fronted adverbial is an adverbial which has been moved before the verb.</p> <p>When writing fronted phrases, we often follow them with a comma.</p>	<p><i><u>Before we begin</u>, make sure you’ve got a pencil.</i> [Without fronting: <i>Make sure you’ve got a pencil before we begin.</i>]</p> <p><i><u>The day after tomorrow</u>, I’m visiting my granddad.</i> [Without fronting: <i>I’m visiting my granddad the day after tomorrow.</i>]</p>
future	<p>Reference to future time can be marked in a number of different ways in English. All these ways involve the use of a present-tense verb.</p> <p>See also tense.</p> <p>Unlike many other languages (such as French, Spanish or Italian), English has no distinct “future tense” form of the verb comparable with its present and past tenses.</p>	<p><i>He <u>will leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>will</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>] <i>He <u>may leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>may</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>] <i>He <u>leaves</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>leaves</i>]</p>
GPC	See grapheme-phoneme correspondences .	
grapheme	A letter, or combination of letters, that corresponds to a single phoneme within a word.	<p>The grapheme <i>t</i> in the words <i>t<u>e</u>n</i>, <i>b<u>e</u>t</i> and <i>a<u>t</u>e</i> corresponds to the phoneme /t/. The grapheme <i>ph</i> in the word <i>dol<u>ph</u>in</i> corresponds to the phoneme /f/.</p>
grapheme-phoneme correspondences	<p>The links between letters, or combinations of letters, (graphemes) and the speech sounds (phonemes) that they represent.</p> <p>In the English writing system, graphemes may correspond to different phonemes in different words.</p>	<p>The grapheme <i>s</i> corresponds to the phoneme /s/ in the word <i><u>s</u>ee</i>, but... ...it corresponds to the phoneme /z/ in the word <i>ea<u>s</u>y</i>.</p>
homograph	Two different words are homographs if they look exactly the same when written.	<p><i>A female pig is called a <u>sow</u>. The farmer has to <u>sow</u> the seeds.</i> <i>This animal is called a <u>bear</u>. I can’t <u>bear</u> to look at it!</i></p>

homonym	Two different words are homonyms if they both look exactly the same when written, and sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<i>Has he <u>left</u> yet? Yes – he went through the door on the <u>left</u>.</i> <i>The noise a dog makes is called a <u>bark</u>. Trees have <u>bark</u>.</i>
homophone	Two different words are homophones if they sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<i><u>hear</u>, <u>here</u></i> <i><u>some</u>, <u>sum</u></i>
infinitive	A verb's infinitive is its bare root-word (e.g. walk, be). It is the form that is usually found in the dictionary. Infinitives are often used: • after <i>to</i> • after modal verbs .	<i>I want to <u>walk</u>.</i> <i>I will be <u>quiet</u>.</i>
inflection	Inflection is a change ('bending') of morphology which signals a special grammatical classification of the word. Inflection is sometimes thought of as a change of ending, but, in fact, some words can have all their parts inflected.	<i>dogs</i> is the plural inflection of <i>dog</i> . <i>went</i> is the past-tense inflection of <i>go</i> .
modal verb	Modal verbs are used to change the meaning of other verbs. They can express degrees of certainty, ability, or obligation. The main modal verbs are <i>will, would, can, could, may, might, shall, should, must</i> and <i>ought</i> . A modal verb only has finite forms and has no suffixes (e.g. <i>I sing</i> → <i>he sings</i> , but not <i>I must</i> → <i>he musts</i>).	<i>I <u>can</u> do this maths work by myself.</i> <i>This ride <u>may</u> be too scary for you!</i> <i>You <u>should</u> help your little brother.</i> <i>Is it going to rain? Yes, it <u>might</u>.</i>
modify	One word or phrase modifies another by making its meaning more specific. Because the two words make a phrase , the "modifier" is normally close to the modified word.	In the phrase <i>primary-school teacher</i> : • <i>teacher</i> is modified by <i>primary-school</i> (to mean a specific kind of teacher) • <i>school</i> is modified by <i>primary</i> (to mean a specific kind of school).
morphology	A word's morphology is its internal make-up, consisting of a root word plus any changes (e.g. the addition of suffix). Dictionaries normally give only the root word.	<i>dogs</i> has the morphological make-up: <i>dog</i> + <i>s</i> .

<p>noun</p>	<p>The surest way to identify nouns is by the ways they can be used: they can go with a verb to act as its subject, and can usually be singular or plural.</p> <p>Nouns are sometimes called “naming words” because they name people, places and “things”; this is often true, but it doesn’t help to distinguish nouns from other word classes. For example, prepositions can name places and verbs can name actions.</p>	<p><i>Our <u>dog</u> bit the <u>burglar</u> on his <u>behind</u>!</i> <i>My big <u>brother</u> did an amazing <u>jump</u> on his <u>skateboard</u>.</i></p> <p>Not nouns: <i>He’s <u>behind</u> you!</i> [this names a place, but is a preposition, not a noun] <i>She can <u>jump</u> so high!</i> [this names an action, but is a verb, not a noun]</p>
<p>noun phrase</p>	<p>A noun phrase is a phrase (i.e. a group of grammatically connected words) with a noun as its “head” (main word). A noun phrase can normally be used in place of a noun.</p> <p>The noun is called the “head” of the phrase because all the other words help to modify the noun.</p>	<p><i><u>Foxes</u> can jump.</i> [noun phrase consisting of just a noun] <i><u>Adult foxes</u> can jump.</i> [<i>adult</i> modifies <i>foxes</i>, so <i>adult</i> belongs to the noun phrase] <i><u>Almost all healthy adult foxes</u> can jump.</i> [all the other words help to modify <i>foxes</i>, so they all belong to the noun phrase]</p>
<p>object</p>	<p>An object is normally a noun, pronoun or noun phrase that comes straight after the verb, and shows what the verb is acting upon.</p> <p>Objects can be turned into the subject of a passive verb, and cannot be adjectives. (Contrast with complements.)</p>	<p><i>Year 2 designed <u>that</u>.</i> [pronoun <i>that</i> acting as object] <i>Year 2 designed <u>a pretty display</u>.</i> [noun phrase <i>a pretty display</i> acting as object]</p> <p>Contrast: <i>A display was designed.</i> [object of active verb → subject of passive verb] <i>Year 2 designed pretty.</i> [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]</p>
<p>participle</p>	<p>Verbs in English have two participles, called “present participle” (e.g. walking, taking) and “past participle” (e.g. walked, taken).</p> <p>Unfortunately, these terms can be confusing to learners, because:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • they don’t necessarily have anything to do with present or past time • “past participles” are also used as passives. 	<p><i>He is <u>walking</u> to school.</i> [present participle] <i>He has <u>taken</u> the bus to school.</i> [past participle] <i>The photo was <u>taken</u> in the rain.</i> [past participle]</p>
<p>passive voice</p>	<p>A verb in the passive voice:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • is in its past-participle form (e.g. <i>thrown</i>, <i>taken</i>, <i>helped</i>) • follows the verb <i>be</i> • has its normal (active) object and subject reversed. <p>Contrast active voice.</p> <p>A verb is not “passive” just because it has a passive meaning: it must be the passive-voice version of an active-voice verb.</p>	<p><i><u>A visit was arranged</u> by the school.</i> <i><u>The ball was thrown</u>.</i></p> <p>Active-voice versions: <i>The school arranged a visit.</i> <i>He threw the ball.</i></p> <p>Not passive voice: <i>He received a warning.</i> <i>We had an accident.</i></p>

<p>past tense</p>	<p>Verbs in the past tense are commonly used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • talk about the past • talk about imagined situations • make a request sound more polite. <p>Most verbs take a suffix –<i>ed</i>, to form their past tense, but many commonly used verbs are irregular.</p> <p>See also tense.</p>	<p><i>Tom and Cristy <u>showed</u> me their new TV.</i> [names an event in the past]</p> <p><i>Alex <u>went</u> on holiday to Brazil.</i> [names an event in the past; irregular past of <i>go</i>]</p> <p><i>I wish I <u>had</u> a puppy.</i> [names an imagined situation, not a situation in the past]</p> <p><i>I <u>was</u> hoping you'd help tomorrow.</i> [makes an implied request sound more polite]</p>
<p>perfect</p>	<p>The perfect form of a verb generally calls attention to the consequences of a prior situation. It is formed by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • taking the past participle of the verb (e.g. <i>thrown, taken, helped</i>) • adding the verb <i>have</i> before it (e.g. <i>she has helped</i>). <p>It can also be combined with the continuous (e.g. <i>he has been reading</i>).</p>	<p><i>She <u>has downloaded</u> some songs.</i> [present perfect; now we have some songs]</p> <p><i>I <u>had eaten</u> lunch when you came.</i> [past perfect; I wasn't hungry when you came]</p>
<p>phoneme</p>	<p>A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that signals a distinct, contrasting meaning. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • /t/ contrasts with /k/ to signal the difference between <i>tap</i> and <i>cap</i> • /t/ contrasts with /l/ to signal the difference between <i>bought</i> and <i>ball</i>. <p>It is this contrast in meaning that tells us there are two distinct phonemes at work.</p> <p>There are around 44 phonemes in English; the exact number depends on regional accents. A single phoneme may be represented in writing by one, two, three or four letters constituting a single grapheme.</p>	<p>The word <i>cat</i> has three letters and three phonemes.</p> <p>The word <i>catch</i> has five letters and three phonemes.</p> <p>The word <i>caught</i> has six letters and three phonemes.</p>
<p>phrase</p>	<p>A phrase is a group of words that are grammatically connected.</p> <p>Technically speaking, they are connected because all the words in the phrase help to modify the main word of the phrase (called the “head”). If this main word is a verb, then the phrase is a clause or a sentence. Phrases can be made up of other phrases.</p>	<p><i>She waved to <u>her mother</u>.</i> [The main word is <i>mother</i>, a noun.]</p> <p><i>Always cross <u>on the zebra crossing!</u></i> [The main word is <i>on</i>, a preposition.]</p> <p><i><u>Nadia waved to her mother.</u></i> [The main word is <i>waved</i>, a verb. This phrase is also a sentence.]</p>

<p>plural</p>	<p>A plural <u>noun</u> normally has a <u>suffix</u> –s or –es and means “more than one”.</p> <p>There are a few nouns with different <u>morphology</u> in the plural (e.g. <i>mice</i>, <i>formulae</i>).</p>	<p><u>dogs</u> [more than one dog]</p> <p><u>boxes</u> [more than one box]</p> <p><u>mice</u> [more than one mouse]</p>	
<p>possessive</p>	<p>A possessive can be:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a <u>noun</u> followed by an <u>apostrophe</u> (and sometimes s) • a possessive <u>pronoun</u>. <p>A possessive names the “possessor” of the noun that it <u>modifies</u>. A possessive also acts as a <u>determiner</u>.</p>	<p><u>Tariq’s</u> book [Tariq has the book]</p> <p><u>her</u> basketball [she has the basketball]</p>	
<p>prefix</p>	<p>A prefix is added at the beginning of a <u>word</u> in order to turn it into another word.</p> <p>Contrast <u>suffix</u>.</p>	<p><u>overnight</u></p> <p><u>disappear</u></p>	
<p>preposition</p>	<p>A preposition links a <u>noun</u> or <u>pronoun</u> to some other word in the sentence. Prepositions often describe locations or directions, but can describe other things, such as relations of time.</p> <p>Words like <i>before</i> or <i>since</i> act as prepositions when they link a noun, but <u>conjunctions</u> when they link <u>clauses</u>.</p>	<p><i>Tom waved goodbye <u>to</u> Cristy. She’ll be back from Australia <u>in</u> two weeks.</i></p> <p><i>I haven’t seen my dog <u>since</u> this morning.</i></p> <p>Contrast: <i>I’m going, <u>since</u> no-one wants me here!</i> [conjunction: links two clauses]</p>	
<p>present tense</p>	<p><u>Verbs</u> in the present tense are commonly used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • talk about the present • talk about the future (see also <u>future</u>). <p>They may take a suffix –s (depending on the <u>subject</u>).</p> <p>See also <u>tense</u>.</p>	<p><i>Jamal <u>goes</u> to the pool every day.</i> [names a regular event]</p> <p><i>He <u>can</u> swim.</i> [names a state that is true now]</p> <p><i>The bus <u>arrives</u> at three.</i> [names a future event]</p>	
<p>pronoun</p>	<p>Pronouns are normally used like <u>nouns</u>, except that:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • they are grammatically more specialised • it is harder to <u>modify</u> them (i.e. it is harder to make their meaning more specific). <p>In the examples, each sentence is written twice: once with pronouns (<u>underlined</u>), and once with nouns. The colours show where the same thing is being talked about.</p>	<p><u>She</u> waved to <u>him</u>. Amanda waved to <u>Michael</u>.</p> <p><u>His</u> mother is over there. John’s mother is over there.</p> <p><u>This</u> will be an overnight <u>visit</u>. The visit will be an overnight <u>visit</u>.</p> <p><u>He</u> is the one <u>who</u> broke it. Simon is the one: <u>Simon</u> broke it.</p>	

punctuation	<p>Punctuation includes any conventional features of written presentation other than spelling and general layout: the standard punctuation marks (. , ; : ? ! - - () “ ” ‘ ’), and also word-spaces, capital letters, apostrophes, paragraph breaks and bullet points.</p> <p>One important role of punctuation is to indicate sentence boundaries.</p>	<p><u>“I’m going out, Usha, and I won’t be long.” Mum said.</u></p>
relative clause	<p>A relative clause is a special type of subordinate clause that makes the meaning of a noun more specific (i.e. it modifies the noun). It does this by using a special pronoun to refer back to that noun.</p> <p>In the examples, the relative clauses are underlined, and the colour-coding pairs the pronouns with the nouns they refer back to.</p> <p>It is sometimes possible for the pronoun to refer back to the main clause as a whole, rather than referring back to a noun. It is also possible for the pronoun to be omitted.</p>	<p>That’s the boy <u>who lives near school</u>. [<i>who</i> refers back to <i>boy</i>]</p> <p>The prize <u>that I won</u> was a book. [<i>that</i> refers back to <i>prize</i>]</p> <p>Tom broke the game, <u>which annoyed Ali</u>. [<i>which</i> refers back to the whole clause]</p> <p>The prize <u>that I won</u> was a book. [the pronoun is omitted]</p>
root word	<p>A root word is a word which is not made up of any smaller root words, or prefixes or suffixes. When looking in a dictionary, we sometimes have to look for the root word of the word we are interested in.</p>	<p><u>played</u> [the root word is <i>play</i>]</p> <p><u>unfair</u> [the root word is <i>fair</i>]</p>
schwa	<p>The name of a vowel sound that is found only in unstressed positions in English. It is the most common vowel sound in English.</p> <p>It is written as /ə/ in the International Phonetic Alphabet. In the English writing system, it can be written in many different ways.</p>	<p>/ə lɒŋ/ [<u>a</u>long]</p> <p>/bʌtə/ [<u>u</u>tter]</p> <p>/dɒktə/ [<u>o</u>ctor]</p>
sentence	<p>A sentence is a group of words which are grammatically connected, and where nothing is grammatically missing. In other words, a sentence must be grammatically complete.</p>	<p><u>John went to his friend’s house.</u></p> <p>Contrast: <i>John went to.</i> [The preposition <i>to</i> should be linked to a noun, but the noun is missing. This is not grammatically complete, and so it is not a sentence.]</p>
split digraph	<p>See digraph.</p>	

Standard English	Standard English is the variety of the English language that is generally used for formal purposes in speech and writing. It is not the English of any particular region and it can be spoken with any accent.	
stressed	A <u>syllable</u> is stressed if it is pronounced more forcefully than the syllables next to it. The other syllables are unstressed.	<u>about</u> <u>visit</u>
subject	The subject of a <u>verb</u> is normally the <u>noun</u> or <u>pronoun</u> that names the “do-er” or “be-er”. The subject’s normal position is: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • just before the verb in a statement • just after the verb, or an <u>auxiliary verb</u>, in a question. Unlike the verb’s <u>object</u> and <u>complement</u> , the subject can determine the form of the verb (e.g. <i>I am</i> , <i>you are</i>).	<i><u>Rula’s mother</u> went out.</i> <i><u>That</u> is uncertain.</i> <i><u>The children</u> will study the animals.</i> <i>Will <u>the children</u> study the animals?</i>
subjunctive	What is sometimes called the subjunctive of a <u>verb</u> is occasionally used in very formal contexts to indicate unreality, uncertainty, wish, emotion, judgement, or necessity. It can be hard to recognise, because it does not always differ from non-subjunctive forms. It has a distinguishable form in the following cases: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the third person singular of any verb in the present tense does not have its usual –s ending • the verb <i>be</i> in the present tense always has the form “be” (not “am”, “are” or “is”) • the verb <i>be</i> in the past tense always has the form “were” (not “was”) • the negatives of verbs in the present are formed differently • some <u>modal verbs</u> have a different form. 	<i>The school requires that all pupils <u>be</u> honest.</i> [It’s possible for pupils not to be honest, but the school wants them to be.] <i>If Zoë <u>were</u> the class president, things would be much better.</i> [But Zoë isn’t the class president.] <i>The school rules demand that pupils <u>not enter</u> the gym at lunchtime.</i> [But it still might happen.] <i>I wish you <u>would stop!</u></i> [not “will stop”] <i>I insist that he <u>come</u> to visit every week.</i> [He doesn’t actually come to visit, but I would like him to.] Not subjunctive: <i>I insist that he comes to visit every week.</i> [I am insisting that it’s actually the case that he does visit.]

subordinate, subordination	<p>A subordinate word or phrase tells us more about the meaning of the word it is subordinate to. Subordination can be thought of as an unequal relationship between a subordinate word and a main word. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • an adjective is subordinate to the noun it modifies • subjects and objects are subordinate to their verbs. <p>Subordination is much more common than the equal relationship of co-ordination.</p> <p>See also subordinate clause.</p>	<p><i><u>big</u> dogs</i> [<i>big</i> is subordinate to <i>dogs</i>]</p> <p><i><u>Big dogs</u> need <u>long</u> walks.</i> [<i>big dogs</i> and <i>long walks</i> are subordinate to <i>need</i>]</p> <p><i>We can watch TV <u>when we've finished</u>.</i> [<i>when we've finished</i> is subordinate to <i>watch</i>]</p>
subordinate clause	<p>A subordinate clause is subordinate to some word outside itself:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • it may modify this word (e.g. as a relative clause or as an adverbial), or • it may be used as a verb's subject or object. <p>However, clauses that are directly quoted as direct speech are not subordinate clauses.</p>	<p><i>That's the street <u>where Ben lives</u>.</i> [relative clause; modifies <i>street</i>]</p> <p><i>He watched her <u>as she disappeared</u>.</i> [adverbial; modifies <i>watched</i>]</p> <p><i><u>What you said</u> was very nice.</i> [acts as subject of <i>was</i>]</p> <p><i>She noticed <u>an hour had passed</u>.</i> [acts as object of <i>noticed</i>]</p>
suffix	<p>A suffix is an “ending”, something used at the end of one word to turn it into another word. Suffixes can often change one word class into another.</p> <p>Contrast prefix.</p>	<p><i>call</i> → <i>call<u>ed</u></i></p> <p><i>teach</i> → <i>teach<u>er</u></i> [turns a verb into a noun]</p> <p><i>terror</i> → <i>terror<u>ise</u></i> [turns a noun into a verb]</p>
syllable	<p>A syllable sounds like a beat in a word. Syllables consist of at least one vowel, and possibly one or more consonants.</p>	<p><i>Cat</i> has one syllable.</p> <p><i>Fairy</i> has two syllables.</p> <p><i>Hippopotamus</i> has five syllables.</p>

<p>tense</p>	<p>Tense is the choice between different verb forms that is normally used to indicate time (although tense and time do not always match up).</p> <p>Verbs in English (and other Germanic languages) have two distinct tense forms: present and past. Verbs in languages like French, Spanish and Italian have three distinct tense forms: present, past and future.</p> <p>English uses a variety of verbs in the present tense to talk about future time, such as <i>may</i>, <i>will</i>, <i>intend</i>, or <i>plan</i>.</p> <p>English also uses verbs in the past tense to talk about imagined situations in the past, present or future.</p>	<p><i>He <u>studies</u>.</i> [present tense → present time] <i>He <u>studied</u> yesterday.</i> [past tense → past time] <i>He <u>studies</u> tomorrow, or else!</i> [present tense → future time] <i>He <u>may study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive → future time] <i>He <u>plans</u> to <u>study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive → future time] <i>If he <u>studied</u> tomorrow, he'd see the difference!</i> [past tense → imagined future]</p> <p>Contrast three distinct tense forms in Spanish: <i>Estudia.</i> [present tense] <i>Estudió.</i> [past tense] <i>Estudiará.</i> [future tense]</p>
<p>trigraph</p>	<p>A type of grapheme where three letters represent one phoneme.</p>	<p><i>high</i> <i>pure</i> <i>patch</i> <i>hedg<u>e</u></i></p>
<p>unstressed</p>	<p>See stressed.</p>	
<p>verb</p>	<p>The surest way to identify verbs is by the ways they can be used: they can usually have a tense, either present or past. (See also future.)</p> <p>Verbs are sometimes called “doing words” because many verbs name an action that someone does; while this can be a way of recognising verbs, it doesn’t distinguish verbs from nouns (which can also name actions), and moreover many verbs do not name actions.</p>	<p><i>He <u>looked</u> out of the school bus window.</i> [present tense] <i>The teacher <u>wrote</u> a song for the class.</i> [past tense] <i>We <u>will go</u> to the zoo soon!</i> [present tense + infinitive] <i>He <u>likes</u> chocolate.</i> [present tense]</p> <p>Not verbs: <i>The <u>walk</u> to Harriet’s house will take an hour.</i> [noun] <i><u>Surfing</u> makes Michelle so sleepy!</i> [noun]</p>
<p>vowel</p>	<p>A vowel is a speech sound which is produced without any closure or obstruction of the vocal tract.</p> <p>Vowels can form syllables by themselves, or they may combine with consonants.</p> <p>In the English writing system, the letters <i>a</i>, <i>e</i>, <i>i</i>, <i>o</i>, <i>u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent vowels.</p>	

word	<p>A word is a unit of grammar: it can be selected and moved around relatively independently, but cannot easily be split. In punctuation, words are normally separated by word spaces.</p> <p>Sometimes, what appears to be two words are grammatically treated as one. This may be indicated with a hyphen or apostrophe.</p>	<p><u>headteacher</u> or <u>head teacher</u> [can be written with or without a space]</p> <p><u>primary-school teacher</u> [normally written with a hyphen]</p> <p><u>I'm</u> going out.</p> <p><u>9.30 am</u></p>
word family	<p>The <u>words</u> in a word family are normally related to each other by a combination of form, grammar and meaning.</p>	<p><u>teacher</u> – <u>teach</u></p> <p><u>extensive</u> – <u>extend</u> – <u>extent</u></p>

Phonemic transcription examples using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)

Vowels							
ʌ	<u>b</u> ut, <u>c</u> up	ɜ:	sh <u>i</u> rt, <u>b</u> urn	ʊ	<u>p</u> ull, sh <u>o</u> uld	əʊ	sh <u>o</u> w, <u>g</u> o
ɑ:	<u>a</u> rm, <u>b</u> ar	ɪ	s <u>i</u> t, <u>f</u> it <u>ti</u> ng	u:	gl <u>u</u> e, <u>f</u> oo <u>d</u>	ɔɪ	<u>b</u> oy, <u>j</u> oin
æ	<u>c</u> at, <u>n</u> ap	i:	<u>b</u> ee, <u>b</u> eat	aɪ	<u>l</u> ie, sk <u>y</u>	ɛə	<u>f</u> are, <u>a</u> ir
ɛ	<u>l</u> et, <u>b</u> ed	ɒ	<u>n</u> ot, <u>l</u> ock	aʊ	<u>c</u> ow, sh <u>o</u> ut	ɪə	<u>h</u> ere, <u>e</u> ar
ə	<u>a</u> lone, <u>u</u> pon	ɔ:	<u>c</u> all, <u>l</u> aw	eɪ	<u>e</u> ight, <u>s</u> ay	ʊə	<u>s</u> ure, <u>t</u> our

Consonants							
b	<u>b</u> all, <u>d</u> ab	k	<u>c</u> at, <u>l</u> uck	ɹ	<u>r</u> ead, <u>c</u> ry	ð	<u>t</u> he, <u>f</u> ather
d	<u>d</u> o, sh <u>a</u> de	l	<u>l</u> it, <u>s</u> illy	s	<u>s</u> ee, <u>k</u> iss	v	<u>v</u> ase, <u>a</u> live
f	<u>f</u> all, <u>i</u> f	m	<u>m</u> an, <u>i</u> mp	ʃ	<u>s</u> he, <u>s</u> tash	w	<u>w</u> all, <u>w</u> indow
g	<u>g</u> o, <u>s</u> ag	n	<u>n</u> o, <u>o</u> n	t	<u>t</u> oo, <u>s</u> e <u>t</u>	z	<u>z</u> oo, <u>c</u> razy
h	<u>h</u> ave, <u>h</u> old	ŋ	<u>r</u> ing, <u>f</u> inger	tʃ	<u>c</u> heap, <u>i</u> t <u>ch</u>	ʒ	<u>m</u> ea <u>s</u> ure, <u>t</u> ele <u>v</u> ision
j	<u>y</u> es, <u>y</u> ank	p	<u>p</u> al, <u>s</u> top	θ	<u>t</u> histle, <u>b</u> oth	dʒ	<u>j</u> am, <u>b</u> ar <u>g</u> e



Department
for Education

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