

# Writing – vocabulary, grammar and punctuation

Year 1		
Statutory requirements		Notes and guidance (non-statutory)
<p><b>Pupils should be taught to:</b>  <i>develop their understanding of the concepts set out in English Appendix 2 by:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ leaving spaces between words</li> <li>○ joining words</li> <li>○ joining clauses</li> <li>○ beginning to punctuate sentences using a capital letter and a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark</li> <li>○ using a capital letter for names of people, places, the days of the week, and the personal pronoun ‘I’</li> <li>○ English Appendix 2</li> <li>○ use the grammatical terminology when their writing.</li> </ul>		<p>Pupils should be taught to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• recognise sentence boundaries in spoken sentences</li> <li>• Use the vocabulary listed in <a href="#">English Appendix 2</a> ('Terminology for pupils') when their writing is discussed.</li> </ul> <p><i>Pupils should begin to use some of the distinctive features of Standard English in their writing. 'Standard English' is defined in the <a href="#">Glossary</a>.</i></p>
English Appendix 2		
Year 1: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)		
English Appendix 2	<b>Word</b>	<p>Regular <b>plural noun suffixes</b> –s or –es [for example, <i>dog, dogs; wish, wishes</i>], including the effects of these suffixes on the meaning of the noun.</p> <p><b>Suffixes</b> that can be added to <b>verbs</b> where no change is needed in the spelling of root words (e.g. <i>helping, helped, helper</i>).</p> <p>How the <b>prefix un–</b> changes the meaning of <b>verbs</b> and <b>adjectives</b> [negation, for example, <i>unkind, or undoing: untie the boat</i>].</p>
	<b>Sentence</b>	<p>How <b>words</b> can combine to make <b>sentences</b>.</p> <p>Joining <b>words</b> and joining <b>clauses</b> using <i>and</i>.</p>
	<b>Text</b>	<p>Sequencing <b>sentences</b> to form short narratives.</p>
	<b>Punctuation</b>	<p><b>Separation of words with spaces.</b></p> <p><b>Introduction to capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences.</b></p> <p><b>Capital letters for names and for the personal pronoun I.</b></p>
	<b>Terminology for</b>	<p>letter, capital letter</p>

	<b>pupils</b>	word, singular, plural sentence punctuation, full stop, question mark, exclamation mark
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## Year 2

Statutory requirements	Notes and guidance (non-statutory)
<p><b>Pupils should be taught to:</b></p> <p><i>develop their understanding of the concepts set out in English Appendix 2 by:</i></p> <p>learning how to use both familiar and new punctuation correctly (see English Appendix 2), including full stops, capital letters, exclamation marks, question marks, commas for lists and apostrophes for contracted forms and the possessive (singular).</p> <p><b>Learn how to use:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ sentences with different forms: statement, question, exclamation, command</li> <li>○ expanded noun phrases to describe and specify [for example, the blue butterfly]</li> <li>○ the present and past tenses correctly and consistently including the progressive form</li> <li>○ subordination (using when, if, that, or because) and co-ordination (using or, and, or but)</li> <li>○ the grammar for Year 2 in English Appendix 2</li> <li>○ some features of written Standard English</li> <li>○ use and understand the grammatical terminology in English Appendix 2 in discussing their writing.</li> </ul>	<p><i>The terms for discussing language should be embedded for pupils in the course of discussing their writing with them. Their attention should be drawn to the technical terms they need to learn.</i></p>

## English Appendix 2

### Year 2: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)

<b>English Appendix 2</b>	<b>Word</b>	Formation of <b>nouns</b> using <b>suffixes</b> such as <i>-ness, -er</i> and by compounding [for example, <i>whiteboard, superman</i> ]. Formation of <b>adjectives</b> using <b>suffixes</b> such as <i>-ful, -less</i> . (A fuller list of <b>suffixes</b> can be found on page <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> in the Year 2 spelling section in English Appendix 1.) Use of the <b>suffixes</b> <i>-er, -est</i> in <b>adjectives</b> and the use of <i>-ly</i> in Standard English to turn adjectives into <b>adverbs</b> .
	<b>Sentence</b>	<b>Subordination</b> (using <i>when, if, that, because</i> ) and <b>co-ordination</b> (using <i>or, and, but</i> ).

	Expanded <b>noun phrases</b> for description and specification [for example, <i>the blue butterfly, plain flour, the man in the moon</i> ]. <b>How the grammatical patterns in a sentence indicate its function as a statement, question, exclamation or command.</b>
<b>Text</b>	Correct choice and consistent use of <b>present tense</b> and <b>past tense</b> throughout writing. Use of the <b>progressive</b> form of <b>verbs</b> in the <b>present</b> and <b>past tense</b> to mark actions in progress [for example, <i>she is drumming, he was shouting</i> ].
<b>Punctuation</b>	Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate <b>sentences</b> . Commas to separate items in a list. <b>Apostrophes</b> to mark where letters are missing in spelling and to mark singular possession in nouns [for example, <i>the girl's name</i> ].
<b>Terminology for pupils</b>	noun, noun phrase statement, question, exclamation, command compound, suffix adjective, adverb, verb tense (past, present) apostrophe, comma

<b>Years 3 and 4</b>	
<b>Statutory requirements</b>	<b>Notes and guidance (non-statutory)</b>
<p><b>Pupils should be taught to:</b> <i>develop their understanding of the concepts set out in English Appendix 2 by:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ extending the range of sentences with more than one clause by using a wider range of conjunctions, including <b>when, if, because, although</b></li> <li>○ using the present perfect form of verbs in contrast to the past tense</li> <li>○ choosing nouns or pronouns appropriately for clarity and cohesion and to avoid repetition</li> <li>○ using conjunctions, adverbs and prepositions to express time and cause</li> <li>○ using fronted adverbials</li> <li>○ learning the grammar for Year 3 and Year 4 in English Appendix 2.</li> </ul> <p>Indicate grammatical and other features by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ using commas after fronted adverbials</li> <li>○ indicating possession by using the possessive apostrophe with plural nouns</li> <li>○ using and punctuating direct speech</li> </ul>	<p><i>Grammar should be taught explicitly: pupils should be taught the terminology and concepts set out in English Appendix 2, and be able to apply them correctly to examples of real language, such as their own writing or books that they have read.</i></p> <p><i>At this stage, pupils should start to learn about some of the differences between Standard English and non-Standard English and begin to apply what they have learnt [for example, in writing dialogue for characters].</i></p>

- use and understand the grammatical terminology in English Appendix 2 accurately and appropriately when discussing their writing and reading.

## English Appendix 2

### Year 3: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)

English Appendix 2	<b>Word</b>	Formation of <b>nouns</b> using a range of <b>prefixes</b> [for example <i>super-</i> , <i>anti-</i> , <i>auto-</i> ]. Use of the <b>forms</b> <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> according to whether the next <b>word</b> begins with a <b>consonant</b> or a <b>vowel</b> [for example, <i>a rock</i> , <i>an open box</i> ]. <b>Word families</b> based on common <b>words</b> , showing how words are related in form and meaning [for example, <i>solve</i> , <i>solution</i> , <i>solver</i> , <i>dissolve</i> , <i>insoluble</i> ].
	<b>Sentence</b>	Expressing time, place and cause using <b>conjunctions</b> [for example, <i>when</i> , <i>before</i> , <i>after</i> , <i>while</i> , <i>so</i> , <i>because</i> ], <b>adverbs</b> [for example, <i>then</i> , <i>next</i> , <i>soon</i> , <i>therefore</i> ], or <b>prepositions</b> [for example, <i>before</i> , <i>after</i> , <i>during</i> , <i>in</i> , <i>because of</i> ].
	<b>Text</b>	Introduction to paragraphs as a way to group related material. Headings and sub-headings to aid presentation. Use of the <b>present perfect</b> form of <b>verbs</b> instead of the simple past [for example, <i>He has gone out to play</i> contrasted with <i>He went out to play</i> ].
	<b>Punctuation</b>	Introduction to inverted commas to <b>punctuate</b> direct speech.
	<b>Terminology for pupils</b>	preposition conjunction word family, prefix clause, subordinate clause direct speech consonant, consonant letter vowel, vowel letter inverted commas (or 'speech marks')

## English Appendix 2

### Year 4: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)

English Appendix 2	<b>Word</b>	The grammatical difference between <b>plural</b> and <b>possessive</b> <i>-s</i> . Standard English forms for <b>verb inflections</b> instead of local spoken forms [for example, <i>we were</i> instead of <i>we was</i> , or <i>I did</i> instead of <i>I done</i> ].
	<b>Sentence</b>	Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and preposition phrases (e.g. <i>the teacher</i> expanded to: <i>the strict maths teacher with curly hair</i> ). <b>Fronted adverbials</b> [for example, <i>Later that day</i> , <i>I heard the bad news.</i> ].
	<b>Text</b>	Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme. Appropriate choice of <b>pronoun</b> or <b>noun</b> within and across <b>sentences</b> to aid <b>cohesion</b> and avoid repetition.
	<b>Punctuation</b>	Use of inverted commas and other <b>punctuation</b> to indicate direct speech [for example, a comma after the reporting clause; end punctuation within

		inverted commas: <i>The conductor shouted, "Sit down!"</i> . <b>Apostrophes</b> to mark <b>plural</b> possession [for example, <i>the girl's name, the girls' names</i> ]. Use of commas after <b>fronted adverbials</b> .
	<b>Terminology for pupils</b>	determiner pronoun, possessive pronoun adverbial

<b>Year 5 and 6</b>		
<b>Statutory requirements</b>		<b>Notes and guidance (non-statutory)</b>
<p><b>Pupils should be taught to:</b> <i>develop their understanding of the concepts set out in English Appendix 2 by:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ recognising vocabulary and structures that are appropriate for formal speech and writing, including subjunctive forms</li> <li>○ using passive verbs to affect the presentation of information in a sentence</li> <li>○ using the perfect form of verbs to mark relationships of time and cause</li> <li>○ using expanded noun phrases to convey complicated information concisely</li> <li>○ using modal verbs or adverbs to indicate degrees of possibility</li> <li>○ using relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that or with an implied (i.e. omitted) relative pronoun</li> <li>○ learning the grammar for Year 5 and Year 6 in English Appendix 2.</li> </ul> <p>Indicate grammatical and other features by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ using commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity in writing</li> <li>○ using hyphens to avoid ambiguity</li> <li>○ using brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis</li> <li>○ using semi-colons, colons or dashes to mark boundaries between independent clauses</li> <li>○ using a colon to introduce a list</li> <li>○ punctuating bullet points consistently</li> <li>○ use and understand the grammatical terminology in English Appendix 2 accurately and appropriately in discussing their writing and reading.</li> </ul>		<p><i>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.</i></p>
<b>English Appendix 2</b>		
<b>Year 5: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)</b>		
<p>4 5 6 <b>Word</b></p>	<p>Converting <b>nouns</b> or <b>adjectives</b> into <b>verbs</b> using <b>suffixes</b> [for example, <i>-ate; -ise; -ify</i>].</p>	

		<b>Verb prefixes</b> [for example, <i>dis-</i> , <i>de-</i> , <i>mis-</i> , <i>over-</i> and <i>re-</i> ].
	<b>Sentence</b>	<b>Relative clauses</b> beginning with <i>who</i> , <i>which</i> , <i>where</i> , <i>when</i> , <i>whose</i> , <i>that</i> , or an omitted relative pronoun. Indicating degrees of possibility using <b>adverbs</b> [for example, <i>perhaps</i> , <i>surely</i> ] or <b>modal verbs</b> [for example, <i>might</i> , <i>should</i> , <i>will</i> , <i>must</i> ].
	<b>Text</b>	Devices to build <b>cohesion</b> within a paragraph [for example, <i>then</i> , <i>after that</i> , <i>this</i> , <i>firstly</i> ]. Linking ideas across paragraphs using <b>adverbials</b> of time [for example, <i>later</i> ], place [for example, <i>nearby</i> ] and number [for example, <i>secondly</i> ] or tense choices [for example, he <i>had</i> seen her before].
	<b>Punctuation</b>	Brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis. Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity.
	<b>Terminology for pupils</b>	modal verb, relative pronoun relative clause parenthesis, bracket, dash cohesion, ambiguity

## English Appendix 2

### Year 6: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)

English Appendix 2	<b>Word</b>	The difference between vocabulary typical of informal speech and vocabulary appropriate for formal speech and writing [for example, <i>find out</i> – <i>discover</i> ; <i>ask for</i> – <i>request</i> ; <i>go in</i> – <i>enter</i> ]. How words are related by meaning as synonyms and antonyms [for example, <i>big</i> , <i>large</i> , <i>little</i> ].
	<b>Sentence</b>	Use of the <b>passive</b> to affect the presentation of information in a <b>sentence</b> [for example, <i>I broke the window in the greenhouse</i> versus <i>The window in the greenhouse was broken (by me)</i> ]. The difference between structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing [for example, the use of question tags: <i>He's your friend, isn't he?</i> , or the use of <b>subjunctive</b> forms such as <i>If I <u>were</u></i> or <i><u>Were they</u> to come</i> in some very formal writing and speech].
	<b>Text</b>	Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of <b>cohesive devices</b> : repetition of a <b>word</b> or phrase, grammatical connections [for example, the use of <b>adverbials</b> such as <i>on the other hand</i> , <i>in contrast</i> , or <i>as a consequence</i> ], and <b>ellipsis</b> . Layout devices [for example, headings, sub-headings, columns, bullets, or tables, to structure text].
	<b>Punctuation</b>	Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent <b>clauses</b> [for example, <i>It's raining; I'm fed up</i> ]. Use of the colon to introduce a list and use of semi-colons within lists. <b>Punctuation</b> of bullet points to list information. How hyphens can be used to avoid ambiguity [for example, <i>man eating shark</i> versus <i>man-eating shark</i> , or <i>recover</i> versus <i>re-cover</i> ].
	<b>Terminology for pupils</b>	subject, object active, passive

		synonym, antonym ellipsis, hyphen, colon, semi-colon, bullet points
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## Terms in definitions

The grammatical terms that pupils should learn are labelled as 'terminology for pupils'. They should learn to recognise and use the terminology through discussion and practice.

Term	Guidance	Example
<b>active voice</b>	An active <u>verb</u> has its usual pattern of <u>subject</u> and <u>object</u> (in contrast with the <u>passive</u> ).	Active: <i>The school arranged a visit.</i> Passive: <i>A visit was arranged by the school.</i>
<b>adjective</b>	The surest way to identify adjectives is by the ways they can be used: before a noun, to make the noun's meaning more specific (i.e. to <u>modify</u> the noun), or after the verb <i>be</i> , as its <u>complement</u> . Adjectives cannot be modified by other adjectives. This distinguishes them from <u>nouns</u> , which can be. 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 <u>verbs</u> , <u>nouns</u> and <u>adverbs</u> can do the same thing.	<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] Not adjectives: <i>The lamp <u>glowed</u>.</i> [verb] <i>It was such a bright <u>red</u>!</i> [noun] <i>He spoke <u>loudly</u>.</i> [adverb] <i>It was a French <u>grammar</u> book.</i> [noun]
<b>adverb</b>	The surest way to identify adverbs is by the ways they can be used: they can <u>modify</u> a <u>verb</u> , an <u>adjective</u> , another adverb or even a whole clause. 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 that can be used as <u>adverbials</u> , such as <u>preposition phrases</u> , <u>noun phrases</u> and <u>subordinate clauses</u> .	<i>Usha <u>soon</u> started snoring <u>loudly</u>.</i> [adverbs modifying the verbs <i>started</i> and <i>snoring</i> ] <i>That match was <u>really</u> exciting!</i> [adverb modifying the adjective <i>exciting</i> ] <i>We don't get to play games <u>very</u> often.</i> [adverb modifying the other adverb, <i>often</i> ] <i><u>Fortunately</u>, it didn't rain.</i> [adverb modifying the whole clause 'it didn't rain' by commenting on it] Not adverbs:

Term	Guidance	Example
		<p><i>Usha went <u>up the stairs</u>.</i> [preposition phrase used as adverbial]</p> <p><i>She finished her work <u>this evening</u>.</i> [noun phrase used as adverbial]</p> <p><i>She finished <u>when the teacher got cross</u>.</i> [subordinate clause used as adverbial]</p>
<b>adverbial</b>	An adverbial is a word or phrase that is used, like an adverb, to modify a verb or clause. Of course, <u>adverbs</u> can be used as adverbials, but many other types of words and phrases can be used this way, including <u>preposition phrases</u> and <u>subordinate clauses</u> .	<p>The <i>bus</i> leaves <u>in five minutes</u>. [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies <i>leaves</i>]</p> <p><i>She promised to see him <u>last night</u>.</i> [noun phrase modifying either <i>promised</i> or <i>see</i>, according to the intended meaning]</p> <p><i>She worked <u>until she had finished</u>.</i> [subordinate clause as adverbial]</p>
<b>antonym</b>	Two words are antonyms if their meanings are opposites.	<p><i>hot – cold</i></p> <p><i>light – dark</i></p> <p><i>light – heavy</i></p>
<b>apostrophe</b>	Apostrophes have two completely different uses: showing the place of missing letters (e.g. <i>I'm</i> for <i>I am</i> ) marking <u>possessives</u> (e.g. <i>Hannah's mother</i> ).	<p><i><u>I'm</u> 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> [marking possessives]</p>
<b>article</b>	The articles <i>the</i> (definite) and <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> (indefinite) are the most common type of <u>determiner</u> .	<i><u>The</u> dog found <u>a</u> bone in <u>an</u> old box.</i>
<b>auxiliary verb</b>	The auxiliary <u>verbs</u> are: <i>be</i> , <i>have</i> , <i>do</i> and the <u>modal verbs</u> . They can be used to make questions and negative statements. In addition: <i>be</i> is used in the <u>progressive</u> and <u>passive</u> <i>have</i> is used in the <u>perfect</u> <i>do</i> is used to form 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 progressive]</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 about the other person's willingness]</p>
<b>clause</b>	A clause is a special type of <u>phrase</u> whose <u>head</u> is a <u>verb</u> . Clauses can sometimes be complete sentences. Clauses may	<i>It was raining.</i> [single-clause sentence]

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>be <u>main</u> or <u>subordinate</u>.</p> <p>Traditionally, a clause had to have a <u>finite verb</u>, but most modern grammarians also recognise non-finite clauses.</p>	<p><i>It was raining but we were indoors.</i> [two finite clauses]</p> <p><i>If you are coming to the party, please let us know.</i> [finite subordinate clause inside a finite main clause]</p> <p><i>Usha went upstairs <u>to play on her computer</u>.</i> [non-finite clause]</p>
<b>cohesion</b>	<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 style pairings), and the logical relations, such as time and cause, between different parts are clear.</p>	<p><b>A visit</b> has been arranged for <u>Year 6</u>, to the <u>Mountain Peaks Field Study Centre</u>, leaving school at 9.30am. <b>This</b> is <b>an overnight visit</b>. <u>The centre</u> has beautiful grounds and a <i>nature trail</i>. During the afternoon, <u>the children</u> will follow <i>the trail</i>.</p>
<b>cohesive device</b>	<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"> <li>- <u>determiners</u> and <u>pronouns</u>, which can refer back to earlier words</li> <li>- <u>conjunctions</u> and <u>adverbs</u>, which can make relations between words clear</li> <li>- <u>ellipsis</u> of expected words.</li> </ul>	<p><i>Julia's dad bought her a football. <u>The football</u> was expensive!</i> [determiner; refers us back to a particular football]</p> <p><i>Joe was given a bike for Christmas. <u>He</u> liked <u>it</u> very much.</i> [the pronouns refer back to Joe and the bike]</p> <p><i>We'll be going shopping <u>before</u> we go to the park.</i> [<u>conjunction</u>; makes a relationship of time clear]</p> <p><i>I'm afraid we're going to have to wait for the next train. <u>Meanwhile</u>, we could have a cup of tea.</i> [<u>adverb</u>; refers back to the time of waiting]</p> <p><i>Where are you going? [<u>  </u>] To school!</i> [ellipsis of the expected words <i>I'm going</i>; links the answer back to the question]</p>
<b>complement</b>	<p>A verb's subject complement adds more information about its <u>subject</u>, and its object complement does the same for its <u>object</u>.</p> <p>Unlike the verb's object, its complement may be an adjective. The verb <i>be</i> normally has a complement.</p>	<p><i>She is <u>our teacher</u>.</i> [adds more information about the subject, <i>she</i>]</p> <p><i>They seem very competent.</i> [adds more information about the subject, <i>they</i>]</p> <p><i>Learning makes me <u>happy</u>.</i> [adds more information about the object, <i>me</i>]</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
<b>compound, compounding</b>	A compound word contains at least two <u>root words</u> in its <u>morphology</u> ; e.g. <i>whiteboard</i> , <i>superman</i> . Compounding is very important in English.	<i>blackbird</i> , <i>blow-dry</i> , <i>bookshop</i> , <i>ice-cream</i> , <i>English teacher</i> , <i>inkjet</i> , <i>one-eyed</i> , <i>bone-dry</i> , <i>baby-sit</i> , <i>daydream</i> , <i>outgrow</i>
<b>conjunction</b>	A conjunction links two words or phrases together. There are two main types of conjunctions: - <u>co-ordinating</u> conjunctions (e.g. <i>and</i> ) link two words or phrases together as an equal pair - <u>subordinating</u> conjunctions (e.g. <i>when</i> ) introduce a <u>subordinate clause</u> .	<i>James bought a bat <u>and</u> ball.</i> [links the words <i>bat</i> and <i>ball</i> as an equal pair] <i>Kylie is young <u>but</u> she can kick the ball hard.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair] <i>Everyone watches <u>when</u> Kyle does back-flips.</i> [introduces a subordinate clause] <i>Joe can't practise kicking <u>because</u> he's injured.</i> [introduces a subordinate clause]
<b>consonant</b>	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. Most of the letters of the alphabet represent consonants. Only the letters <i>a</i> , <i>e</i> , <i>i</i> , <i>o</i> , <i>u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent <u>vowel</u> sounds.	/p/ [flow of air stopped by the lips, then released] /t/ [flow of air stopped by the tongue touching the roof of the mouth, then released] /f/ [flow of air obstructed by the bottom lip touching the top teeth] /s/ [flow of air obstructed by the tip of the tongue touching the gum line]
<b>continuous</b>	See <u>progressive</u> .	
<b>co-ordinate, co-ordination</b>	Words or phrases are co-ordinated if they are linked as an equal pair by a co-ordinating <u>conjunction</u> (i.e. <i>and</i> , <i>but</i> , <i>or</i> ). In the examples on the right, the co-ordinated elements are shown in bold, and the conjunction is underlined. The difference between co-ordination and <u>subordination</u> is that, in subordination, the two linked elements are not equal.	<i><b>Susan</b> <u>and</u> <b>Amra</b> met in a café.</i> [links the words <i>Susan</i> and <i>Amra</i> as an equal pair] <i><b>They talked</b> <u>and</u> <b>drank tea</b> for an hour.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair] <i><b>Susan got a bus</b> <u>but</u> <b>Amra walked</b>.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair] Not co-ordination: <i>They ate <u>before</u> they met.</i> [ <i>before</i> introduces a subordinate clause]
<b>determiner</b>	A determiner specifies a noun as known or unknown, and it goes before any modifiers (e.g. adjectives or other nouns). Some examples of determiners are: - <u>articles</u> ( <i>the</i> , <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> )	<i><u>the</u> home team</i> [article, specifies the team as known] <i><u>a</u> good team</i> [article, specifies the team as unknown] <i><u>that</u> pupil</i> [demonstrative, known]

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	demonstratives (e.g. <i>this, those</i> ) - <u>possessives</u> (e.g. <i>my, your</i> ) quantifiers (e.g. <i>some, every</i> ).	<i>Julia's parents</i> [possessive, known] <i>some big boys</i> [quantifier, unknown] Contrast: <i>home <u>the</u> team, big <u>some</u> boys</i> [both incorrect, because the determiner should come before other modifiers]
<b>digraph</b>	A type of <u>grapheme</u> where two letters represent one <u>phoneme</u> .  Sometimes, these two letters are not next to one another; this is called a split digraph.	The digraph <u>ea</u> in <i>each</i> is pronounced /i:/. The digraph <u>sh</u> in <i>shed</i> is pronounced /ʃ/. The split digraph <u>i-e</u> in <i>line</i> is pronounced /aɪ/.
<b>ellipsis</b>	Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.	<i>Frankie waved to Ivana and <u>she</u> watched her drive away.</i> <i>She did it because she wanted to <del>do it</del>.</i>
<b>etymology</b>	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. Many words in English have come from Greek, Latin or French.	The word <i>school</i> was borrowed from a Greek word <i>σχολή</i> ( <i>skholé</i> ) meaning 'leisure'. The word <i>verb</i> comes from Latin <i>verbum</i> , meaning 'word'. The word <i>mutton</i> comes from French <i>mouton</i> , meaning 'sheep'.
<b>finite verb</b>	Every sentence typically has at least one verb which is either past or present tense. Such verbs are called 'finite'. The imperative verb in a command is also finite.  Verbs that are not finite, such as participles or infinitives, cannot stand on their own: they are linked to another verb in the sentence.	<i>Lizzie <u>does</u> the dishes every day.</i> [ <u>present tense</u> ] <i>Even Hana <u>did</u> the dishes yesterday.</i> [ <u>past tense</u> ] <i><u>Do</u> the dishes, Naser!</i> [imperative] Not finite verbs: <i>I have <u>done</u> them.</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>have</i> ] <i>I will <u>do</u> them.</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>will</i> ] <i>I want to <u>do</u> them!</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>want</i> ]
<b>fronting, fronted</b>	A word or phrase that normally comes after the <u>verb</u> may be moved before the verb: when this happens, we say it has	<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> ]

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>been 'fronted'. For example, a fronted adverbial is an <u>adverbial</u> which has been moved before the verb.</p> <p>When writing fronted phrases, we often follow them with a comma.</p>	<p><i>The day after tomorrow, I'm visiting my granddad.</i></p> <p>[Without fronting: <i>I'm visiting my granddad the day after tomorrow.</i>]</p>
<b>future</b>	<p>Reference to future time can be marked in a number of different ways in English. All these ways involve the use of a <u>present-tense verb</u>.</p> <p>See also <u>tense</u>.</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 <u>present</u> and <u>past</u> tenses.</p>	<p><i>He <u>will leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>will</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]</p> <p><i>He <u>may leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>may</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]</p> <p><i>He <u>leaves</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>leaves</i>]</p> <p><i>He <u>is going to leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense <i>is</i> followed by <i>going to</i> plus the infinitive <i>leave</i>]</p>
<b>gpc</b>	See <u>grapheme-phoneme correspondences</u> .	
<b>grapheme</b>	A letter, or combination of letters, that corresponds to a single <u>phoneme</u> within a word.	<p>The grapheme <u>t</u> in the words <u>ten</u>, <u>bet</u> and <u>ate</u> corresponds to the phoneme /t/.</p> <p>The grapheme <u>ph</u> in the word <u>dolphin</u> corresponds to the phoneme /f/.</p>
<b>grapheme-phoneme correspondences</b>	<p>The links between letters, or combinations of letters (<u>graphemes</u>) and the speech sounds (<u>phonemes</u>) that they represent.</p> <p>In the English writing system, graphemes may correspond to different phonemes in different words.</p>	<p>The grapheme <u>s</u> corresponds to the phoneme /s/ in the word <u>see</u>, but...</p> <p>...it corresponds to the phoneme /z/ in the word <u>easy</u>.</p>
<b>head</b>	See <u>phrase</u> .	
<b>homonym</b>	Two different words are homonyms if they both look exactly the same when written, and sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<p><i>Has he <u>left</u> yet? Yes – he went through the door on the <u>left</u>.</i></p> <p><i>The noise a dog makes is called a <u>bark</u>. Trees have <u>bark</u>.</i></p>
<b>homophone</b>	Two different words are homophones if they sound exactly	<i><u>hear</u>, <u>here</u></i>

Term	Guidance	Example
	the same when pronounced.	<i>some, sum</i>
<b>infinitive</b>	A verb's infinitive is the basic form used as the head-word in a dictionary (e.g. <i>walk, be</i> ).  Infinitives are often used: after <i>to</i> after <u>modal verbs</u> .	<i>I want to <u>walk</u>.</i>  <i>I will <u>be</u> quiet.</i>
<b>inflection</b>	When we add <i>-ed</i> to <i>walk</i> , or change <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i> , this change of <u>morphology</u> produces an inflection ('bending') of the basic word which has special grammar (e.g. <u>past tense</u> or <u>plural</u> ). In contrast, adding <i>-er</i> to <i>walk</i> produces a completely different word, <i>walker</i> , which is part of the same <u>word family</u> . Inflection is sometimes thought of as merely a change of ending, but, in fact, some words change completely when inflected.	<i>dogs</i> is an inflection of <i>dog</i> .  <i>went</i> is an inflection of <i>go</i> .  <i>better</i> is an inflection of <i>good</i> .
<b>intransitive verb</b>	A verb which does not need an object in a sentence to complete its meaning is described as intransitive. See ' <u>transitive verb</u> '.	<i>We all <u>laughed</u>.</i>  <i>We would like to stay longer, but we must <u>leave</u>.</i>
<b>main clause</b>	A <u>sentence</u> contains at least one <u>clause</u> which is not a <u>subordinate clause</u> ; such a clause is a main clause. A main clause may contain any number of subordinate clauses.	<i>It was <u>raining</u> but <u>the sun was shining</u>.</i> [two main clauses]  <i><u>The man who wrote it</u> told me <u>that it was true</u>.</i> [one main clause containing two subordinate clauses.]  <i>She said, "It rained all day."</i> [one main clause containing another.]
<b>modal verb</b>	Modal verbs are used to change the meaning of other <u>verbs</u> . They can express meanings such as 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 <u>finite</u> forms and has no <u>suffixes</u> (e.g. <i>I</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>

Term	Guidance	Example
	<i>sing – he sings, but not I must – he musts).</i>	<i>Canning swim is important.</i> [not possible because <i>can</i> must be finite; contrast: <i>Being able to swim is important</i> , where <i>being</i> is not a modal verb]
<b>modify, modifier</b>	<p>One word or phrase modifies another by making its meaning more specific.</p> <p>Because the two words make a <u>phrase</u>, the ‘modifier’ is normally close to the modified word.</p>	<p>In the phrase <i>primary-school teacher</i>:</p> <p><i>teacher</i> is modified by <i>primary-school</i> (to mean a specific kind of teacher)</p> <p><i>school</i> is modified by <i>primary</i> (to mean a specific kind of school).</p>
<b>morphology</b>	<p>A word’s morphology is its internal make-up in terms of <u>root words</u> and <u>suffixes</u> or <u>prefixes</u>, as well as other kinds of change such as the change of <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i>.</p> <p>Morphology may be used to produce different <u>inflections</u> of the same word (e.g. <i>boy – boys</i>), or entirely new words (e.g. <i>boy – boyish</i>) belonging to the same <u>word family</u>.</p> <p>A word that contains two or more root words is a <u>compound</u> (e.g. <i>news+paper, ice+cream</i>).</p>	<p><i>dogs</i> has the morphological make-up: <i>dog</i> + <i>s</i>.</p> <p><i>unhelpfulness</i> has the morphological make-up:</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;"><i>unhelpful</i> + <i>ness</i></p> <p>where <i>unhelpful</i> = <i>un</i> + <i>helpful</i></p> <p>and <i>helpful</i> = <i>help</i> + <i>ful</i></p>
<b>noun</b>	<p>The surest way to identify nouns is by the ways they can be used after <u>determiners</u> such as <i>the</i>: for example, most nouns will fit into the frame “The ___ matters/matter.”</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 <u>word classes</u>. For example, <u>prepositions</u> can name places and <u>verbs</u> can name ‘things’ such as actions.</p> <p>Nouns may be classified as <b>common</b> (e.g. <i>boy, day</i>) or <b>proper</b> (e.g. <i>Ivan, Wednesday</i>), and also as <b>countable</b> (e.g. <i>thing, boy</i>) or <b>non-countable</b> (e.g. <i>stuff, money</i>). These classes can be recognised by the determiners they combine with.</p>	<p><i>Our <u>dog</u> bit the <u>burglar</u> on his <u>behind</u>!</i></p> <p><i>My big <u>brother</u> did an amazing <u>jump</u> on his <u>skateboard</u>.</i></p> <p><i><u>Actions</u> speak louder than <u>words</u>.</i></p> <p>Not nouns:</p> <p><i>He’s <u>behind</u> you!</i> [this names a place, but is a preposition, not a noun]</p> <p><i>She can <u>jump</u> so high!</i> [this names an action, but is a verb, not a noun]</p> <p>common, countable: <i>a <u>book</u>, <u>books</u>, two <u>chocolates</u>, one <u>day</u>, fewer <u>ideas</u></i></p> <p>common, non-countable: <i><u>money</u>, some <u>chocolate</u>, less <u>imagination</u></i></p> <p>proper, countable: <i><u>Marilyn</u>, <u>London</u>, <u>Wednesday</u></i></p>

Term	Guidance	Example
<b>noun phrase</b>	A noun phrase is a <u>phrase</u> with a noun as its <u>head</u> , e.g. <i>some foxes, foxes with bushy tails</i> . Some grammarians recognise one-word phrases, so that <i>foxes are multiplying</i> would contain the noun <i>foxes</i> acting as the head of the noun phrase <i>foxes</i> .	<i>Adult foxes can jump.</i> [ <i>adult</i> modifies <i>foxes</i> , so <i>adult</i> belongs to the noun phrase]  <i>Almost all healthy adult foxes in this area can jump.</i> [all the other words help to modify <i>foxes</i> , so they all belong to the noun phrase]
<b>object</b>	An object is normally a <u>noun</u> , <u>pronoun</u> or <u>noun phrase</u> that comes straight after the <u>verb</u> , and shows what the verb is acting upon.  Objects can be turned into the <u>subject</u> of a <u>passive</u> verb, and cannot be <u>adjectives</u> (contrast with <u>complements</u> ).	<i>Year 2 designed puppets.</i> [noun acting as object]  <i>I like that.</i> [pronoun acting as object]  Some people suggested <u>a pretty display</u> . [noun phrase acting as object]  Contrast:  <i>A display was suggested.</i> [object of active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb]  <i>Year 2 designed pretty.</i> [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]
<b>participle</b>	Verbs in English have two participles, called ‘present participle’ (e.g. <i>walking, taking</i> ) and ‘past participle’ (e.g. <i>walked, taken</i> ).  Unfortunately, these terms can be confusing to learners, because:  they don’t necessarily have anything to do with present or past time  although past participles are used as <u>perfects</u> (e.g. <i>has eaten</i> ) they are also used as <u>passives</u> (e.g. <i>was eaten</i> ).	<i>He is walking to school.</i> [present participle in a <u>progressive</u> ]  <i>He has taken the bus to school.</i> [past participle in a <u>perfect</u> ]  <i>The photo was taken in the rain.</i> [past participle in a <u>passive</u> ]
<b>passive</b>	The sentence <i>It was eaten by our dog</i> is the passive of <i>Our dog ate it</i> . A passive is recognisable from:  - the past <u>participle</u> form <i>eaten</i>  - the normal <u>object</u> ( <i>it</i> ) turned into the <u>subject</u>  - the normal subject ( <i>our dog</i> ) turned into an optional	<i>A visit was arranged by the school.</i>  <i>Our cat got run over by a bus.</i>  Active versions:  <i>The school arranged a visit.</i>

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p><u>preposition phrase</u> with <i>by</i> as its <u>head</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- the verb <i>be(was)</i>, or some other verb such as <i>get</i>.</li> </ul> <p>Contrast <u>active</u>.</p> <p>A verb is not ‘passive’ just because it has a passive meaning: it must be the passive version of an active verb.</p>	<p><i>A bus ran over our cat.</i></p> <p>Not passive:</p> <p><i>He received a warning.</i> [past tense, active <i>received</i>]</p> <p><i>We had an accident.</i> [past tense, active <i>had</i>]</p>
<b>past tense</b>	<p><u>Verbs</u> in the past tense are commonly used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- talk about the past</li> <li>- talk about imagined situations</li> <li>- make a request sound more polite.</li> </ul> <p>Most verbs take a <u>suffix</u> <i>-ed</i>, to form their past tense, but many commonly-used verbs are irregular.</p> <p>See also <u>tense</u>.</p>	<p><i>Tom and Chris <u>showed</u> me their new TV.</i> [names an event in the past]</p> <p><i>Antonio <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>
<b>perfect</b>	<p>The perfect form of a <u>verb</u> generally calls attention to the consequences of a prior event; for example, <i>he has gone to lunch</i> implies that he is still away, in contrast with <i>he went to lunch</i>. ‘Had gone to lunch’ takes a past time point (i.e. when we arrived) as its reference point and is another way of establishing time relations in a text. The perfect tense is formed by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- turning the verb into its past <u>participle inflection</u></li> <li>- adding a form of the verb <i>have</i> before it.</li> </ul> <p>It can also be combined with the <u>progressive</u> (e.g. <i>he has been going</i>).</p>	<p><i>She <u>has downloaded</u> some songs.</i> [present perfect; now she has 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>
<b>phoneme</b>	<p>A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that signals a distinct, contrasting meaning. For example:</p>	<p>The word <i>cat</i> has three letters and three phonemes: /kæt/</p> <p>The word <i>catch</i> has five letters and three phonemes: /kætʃ/</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>/t/ contrasts with /k/ to signal the difference between <i>tap</i> and <i>cap</i></p> <p>/t/ contrasts with /l/ to signal the difference between <i>bought</i> and <i>ball</i>.</p> <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 <u>grapheme</u>.</p>	<p>The word <i>caught</i> has six letters and three phonemes: /kɔ:t/</p>
<b>phrase</b>	<p>A phrase is a group of words that are grammatically connected so that they stay together, and that expand a single word, called the ‘head’. The phrase is a <u>noun phrase</u> if its head is a noun, a <u>preposition phrase</u> if its head is a preposition, and so on; but if the head is a <u>verb</u>, the phrase is called a <u>clause</u>. Phrases can be made up of other phrases.</p>	<p><i>She waved to <u>her mother</u></i>. [a noun phrase, with the noun <i>mother</i> as its head]</p> <p><i>She waved <u>to her mother</u></i>. [a preposition phrase, with the preposition <i>to</i> as its head]</p> <p><i><u>She waved to her mother</u></i>. [a clause, with the verb <i>waved</i> as its head]</p>
<b>plural</b>	<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><i><u>dogs</u></i> [more than one dog]; <i><u>boxes</u></i> [more than one box]</p> <p><i><u>mice</u></i> [more than one mouse]</p>
<b>possessive</b>	<p>A possessive can be:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- a <u>noun</u> followed by an <u>apostrophe</u>, with or without s</li> <li>- a possessive <u>pronoun</u>.</li> </ul> <p>The relation expressed by a possessive goes well beyond ordinary ideas of ‘possession’. A possessive may act as a <u>determiner</u>.</p>	<p><i><u>Tariq’s</u> book</i> [Tariq has the book]</p> <p><i>The <u>boys’</u> arrival</i> [the boys arrive]</p> <p><i><u>His</u> obituary</i> [the obituary is about him]</p> <p><i>That essay is <u>mine</u></i>. [I wrote the essay]</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
<b>prefix</b>	A prefix is added at the beginning of a <u>word</u> in order to turn it into another word.  Contrast <u>suffix</u> .	<i><u>overtake</u>, <u>disappear</u></i>
<b>preposition</b>	A preposition links a following <u>noun</u> , <u>pronoun</u> or <u>noun phrase</u> to some other word in the sentence. Prepositions often describe locations or directions, but can describe other things, such as relations of time.  Words like <i>before</i> or <i>since</i> can act either as prepositions or as <u>conjunctions</u> .	<i>Tom waved goodbye <u>to</u> Christy. She'll be back <u>from</u> Australia <u>in</u> two weeks.</i> <i>I haven't seen my dog <u>since</u> this morning.</i>  Contrast: <i>I'm going, <u>since</u> no-one wants me here!</i> [conjunction: links two clauses]
<b>preposition phrase</b>	A preposition phrase has a preposition as its head followed by a noun, pronoun or noun phrase.	<i>He was <u>in bed</u>.</i> <i>I met them <u>after the party</u>.</i>
<b>present tense</b>	<u>Verbs</u> in the present tense are commonly used to: - talk about the present - talk about the <u>future</u> .  They may take a suffix –s (depending on the <u>subject</u> ).  See also <u>tense</u> .	<i>Jamal <u>goes</u> to the pool every day.</i> [describes a habit that exists now] <i>He <u>can</u> swim.</i> [describes a state that is true now] <i>The bus <u>arrives</u> at three.</i> [scheduled now] <i>My friends <u>are</u> coming to play.</i> [describes a plan in progress now]
<b>progressive</b>	The progressive (also known as the 'continuous') form of a <u>verb</u> generally describes events in progress. It is formed by combining the verb's present <u>participle</u> (e.g. <i>singing</i> ) with a form of the verb <i>be</i> (e.g. <i>he was singing</i> ). The progressive can also be combined with the <u>perfect</u> (e.g. <i>he has been singing</i> ).	<i>Michael <u>is singing</u> in the store room.</i> [present progressive] <i>Amanda <u>was making</u> a patchwork quilt.</i> [past progressive] <i>Usha <u>had been practising</u> for an hour when I called.</i> [past perfect progressive]
<b>pronoun</b>	Pronouns are normally used like <u>nouns</u> , except that: - they are grammatically more specialised - it is harder to <u>modify</u> them	<i><b>Amanda</b> waved to <b>Michael</b>.</i> <i><b>She</b> waved to <b>him</b>.</i> <i><b>John's</b> mother is over there. <b>His</b> mother is over there.</i>

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	In the examples, each sentence is written twice: once with nouns, and once with pronouns (underlined). Where the same thing is being talked about, the words are shown in bold.	<i>The <b>visit</b> will be an overnight <b>visit</b>. <u>This</u> will be an overnight <b>visit</b>.</i> <i><u>Simon</u> is the person: <b>Simon</b> broke it. <u>He</u> is the one <b>who</b> broke it.</i>
<b>punctuation</b>	Punctuation includes any conventional features of writing other than spelling and general layout: the standard punctuation marks . , ; : ? ! - - ( ) " " ' ' , and also word-spaces, capital letters, apostrophes, paragraph breaks and bullet points. One important role of punctuation is to indicate <u>sentence</u> boundaries.	<i><u>"I'm going out, Usha, and I won't be long," Mum said.</u></i>
<b>received pronunciation</b>	Received Pronunciation (often abbreviated to RP) is an accent which is used only by a small minority of English speakers in England. It is not associated with any one region. Because of its regional neutrality, it is the accent which is generally shown in dictionaries in the UK (but not, of course, in the USA). RP has no special status in the national curriculum.	
<b>register</b>	Classroom lessons, football commentaries and novels use different registers of the same language, recognised by differences of vocabulary and grammar. Registers are 'varieties' of a language which are each tied to a range of uses, in contrast with dialects, which are tied to groups of users.	<i>I regret to inform you that Mr Joseph Smith has passed away. [formal letter]</i> <i>Have you heard that Joe has died? [casual speech]</i> <i>Joe falls down and dies, centre stage. [stage direction]</i>
<b>relative clause</b>	A relative clause is a special type of <u>subordinate clause</u> that modifies a <u>noun</u> . It often does this by using a relative <u>pronoun</u> such as <i>who</i> or <i>that</i> to refer back to that noun, though the relative pronoun <i>that</i> is often omitted.  A relative clause may also be attached to a <u>clause</u> . In that	<i>That's the <b>boy who</b> lives near school. [who refers back to boy]</i> <i>The <b>prize that</b> I won was a book. [that refers back to prize]</i> <i>The <b>prize</b> I won was a book. [the pronoun that is omitted]</i> <i><b>Tom broke the game, which</b> annoyed Ali. [which refers back to the whole clause]</i>

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	<p>case, the pronoun refers back to the whole clause, rather than referring back to a noun.</p> <p>In the examples, the relative clauses are underlined, and both the pronouns and the words they refer back to are in bold.</p>	
<b>root word</b>	<p><u>Morphology</u> breaks words down into root words, which can stand alone, and <u>suffixes</u> or <u>prefixes</u> which can't. For example, <i>help</i> is the root word for other words in its <u>word family</u> such as <i>helpful</i> and <i>helpless</i>, and also for its <u>inflections</u> such as <i>helping</i>. <u>Compound</u> words (e.g. <i>help-desk</i>) contain two or more root words. When looking in a dictionary, we sometimes have to look for the root word (or words) of the word we are interested in.</p>	<p><i><u>played</u></i> [the root word is <i>play</i>]  <i><u>unfair</u></i> [the root word is <i>fair</i>]  <i><u>football</u></i> [the root words are <i>foot</i> and <i>ball</i>]</p>
<b>schwa</b>	<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>/əlon/ [<i><u>a</u>long</i>]  /bʌtə/ [<i><u>u</u>tter</i>]  /dɒktə/ [<i><u>o</u>ctor</i>]</p>
<b>sentence</b>	<p>A sentence is a group of <u>words</u> which are grammatically connected to each other but not to any words outside the sentence.</p> <p>The form of a sentence's main clause shows whether it is being used as a statement, a question, a command or an exclamation.</p> <p>A sentence may consist of a single clause or it may contain several clauses held together by subordination or co-ordination. Classifying sentences as 'simple', 'complex' or</p>	<p><i><u>John went to his friend's house. He stayed there till tea-time.</u></i></p> <p><i>John went to his friend's house, he stayed there till tea-time.</i> [This is a 'comma splice', a common error in which a comma is used where either a full stop or a semi-colon is needed to indicate the lack of any grammatical connection between the two clauses.]</p> <p><i>You are my friend.</i> [statement]  <i>Are you my friend?</i> [question]  <i>Be my friend!</i> [command]  <i>What a good friend you are!</i> [exclamation]</p>

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	'compound' can be confusing, because a 'simple' sentence may be complicated, and a 'complex' one may be straightforward. The terms ' <b>single-clause sentence</b> ' and ' <b>multi-clause sentence</b> ' may be more helpful.	<i>Ali went home on his bike to his goldfish and his current library book about pets.</i> [single-clause sentence]  <i>She went shopping but took back everything she had bought because she didn't like any of it.</i> [multi-clause sentence]
<b>split digraph</b>	See <u>digraph</u> .	
<b>standard english</b>	Standard English can be recognised by the use of a very small range of forms such as <i>those books</i> , <i>I did it</i> and <i>I wasn't doing anything</i> (rather than their non-Standard equivalents); it is not limited to any particular accent. It is the variety of English which is used, with only minor variation, as a major world language. Some people use Standard English all the time, in all situations from the most casual to the most formal, so it covers most <u>registers</u> . The aim of the national curriculum is that everyone should be able to use Standard English as needed in writing and in relatively formal speaking.	<i>I did it because they were not willing to undertake any more work on those houses.</i> [formal Standard English]  <i>I did it cos they wouldn't do any more work on those houses.</i> [casual Standard English]  <i>I done it cos they wouldn't do no more work on them houses.</i> [casual non-Standard English]
<b>stress</b>	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>
<b>subject</b>	The subject of a verb is normally the <u>noun</u> , <u>noun phrase</u> or <u>pronoun</u> that names the 'do-er' or 'be-er'. The subject's normal position is: - just before the <u>verb</u> in a statement - just after the <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> ).	<u>Rula's mother</u> went out.  <u>That</u> is uncertain.  <u>The children</u> will study the animals.  Will <u>the children</u> study the animals?
<b>subjunctive</b>	In some languages, the <u>inflections</u> of a <u>verb</u> include a large range of special forms which are used typically in <u>subordinate</u>	<i>The school requires that all pupils <u>be</u> honest.</i>

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	<p><u>clauses</u>, and are called ‘subjunctives’. English has very few such forms and those it has tend to be used in rather formal styles.</p>	<p><i>The school rules demand that pupils not <u>enter</u> the gym at lunchtime.</i></p> <p><i>If Zoë <u>were</u> the class president, things would be much better.</i></p>
<p><b>subordinate, subordination</b></p>	<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"> <li>- an adjective is subordinate to the noun it <u>modifies</u></li> <li>- <u>subjects</u> and <u>objects</u> are subordinate to their <u>verbs</u>.</li> </ul> <p>Subordination is much more common than the equal relationship of <u>co-ordination</u>.</p> <p>See also <u>subordinate clause</u>.</p>	<p><i><u>big</u> dogs [big is subordinate to dogs]</i></p> <p><i><u>Big dogs</u> need <u>long</u> walks. [big dogs and long walks are subordinate to need]</i></p> <p><i>We can watch TV <u>when we’ve finished</u>. [when we’ve finished is subordinate to watch]</i></p>
<p><b>subordinate clause</b></p>	<p>A clause which is <u>subordinate</u> to some other part of the same <u>sentence</u> is a subordinate clause; for example, in <i>The apple that I ate was sour</i>, the clause <i>that I ate</i> is subordinate to <i>apple</i> (which it <u>modifies</u>). Subordinate clauses contrast with <u>co-ordinate</u> clauses as in <i>It was sour but looked very tasty</i>. (Contrast: <u>main clause</u>)</p> <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>. [relative clause; modifies street]</i></p> <p><i>He watched her <u>as she disappeared</u>. [adverbial; modifies watched]</i></p> <p><i><u>What you said</u> was very nice. [acts as subject of was]</i></p> <p><i>She noticed <u>an hour had passed</u>. [acts as object of noticed]</i></p> <p>Not subordinate: <i>He shouted, “<u>Look out!</u>”</i></p>
<p><b>suffix</b></p>	<p>A suffix is an ‘ending’, used at the end of one word to turn it into another word. Unlike <u>root words</u>, suffixes cannot stand on their own as a complete word.</p> <p>Contrast <u>prefix</u>.</p>	<p><i>call – <u>called</u></i></p> <p><i>teach – <u>teacher</u> [turns a verb into a noun]</i></p> <p><i>terror – <u>terrorise</u> [turns a noun into a verb]</i></p> <p><i>green – <u>greenish</u> [leaves word class unchanged]</i></p>
<p><b>syllable</b></p>	<p>A syllable sounds like a beat in a <u>word</u>. Syllables consist of at</p>	<p><i>Cat</i> has one syllable.</p>

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	least one <u>vowel</u> , and possibly one or more <u>consonants</u> .	<i>Fairy</i> has two syllables. <i>Hippopotamus</i> has five syllables.
<b>synonym</b>	Two words are synonyms if they have the same meaning, or similar meanings. Contrast <u>antonym</u> .	<i>talk</i> – <i>speak</i> <i>old</i> – <i>elderly</i>
<b>tense</b>	In English, tense is the choice between <u>present</u> and <u>past verbs</u> , which is special because it is signalled by <u>inflections</u> and normally indicates differences of time. In contrast, languages like French, Spanish and Italian, have three or more distinct tense forms, including a future tense. (See also: <u>future</u> .)  The simple tenses (present and past) may be combined in English with the <u>perfect</u> and <u>progressive</u> .	<i>He studies</i> . [present tense – present time] <i>He studied yesterday</i> . [past tense – past time] <i>He studies tomorrow, or else!</i> [present tense – future time] <i>He may study tomorrow</i> . [present tense + infinitive – future time] <i>He plans to study tomorrow</i> . [present tense + infinitive – future time] <i>If he studied tomorrow, he'd see the difference!</i> [past tense – imagined future]  Contrast three distinct tense forms in Spanish: <i>Estudia</i> . [present tense] <i>Estudió</i> . [past tense] <i>Estudiará</i> . [future tense]
<b>transitive verb</b>	A transitive verb takes at least one object in a sentence to complete its meaning, in contrast to an <u>intransitive verb</u> , which does not.	<i>He loves Juliet</i> . <i>She understands English grammar</i> .
<b>trigraph</b>	A type of <u>grapheme</u> where three letters represent one <u>phoneme</u> .	<i>High, pure, patch, hedge</i>
<b>unstressed</b>	See <u>stressed</u> .	
<b>verb</b>	The surest way to identify verbs is by the ways they can be used: they can usually have a <u>tense</u> , either <u>present</u> or <u>past</u> (see also <u>future</u> ).  Verbs are sometimes called 'doing words' because many	<i>He lives in Birmingham</i> . [present tense] <i>The teacher wrote a song for the class</i> . [past tense] <i>He likes chocolate</i> . [present tense; not an action]

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	<p>verbs name an action that someone does; while this can be a way of recognising verbs, it doesn't distinguish verbs from <u>nouns</u> (which can also name actions). Moreover many verbs name states or feelings rather than actions.</p> <p>Verbs can be classified in various ways: for example, as <u>auxiliary</u>, or <u>modal</u>; as <u>transitive</u> or <u>intransitive</u>; and as states or events.</p>	<p><i>He <u>knew</u> my father.</i> [past tense; not an action]</p> <p>Not verbs:</p> <p><i>The <u>walk</u> to Halina's house will take an hour.</i> [noun]</p> <p><i>All that <u>surfing</u> makes Morwenna so sleepy!</i> [noun]</p>
<b>vowel</b>	<p>A vowel is a speech sound which is produced without any closure or obstruction of the vocal tract.</p> <p>Vowels can form <u>syllables</u> by themselves, or they may combine with <u>consonants</u>.</p> <p>In the English writing system, the letters <i>a, e, i, o, u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent vowels.</p>	
<b>word</b>	<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, a sequence that appears grammatically to be two words is collapsed into a single written word, indicated with a hyphen or apostrophe (e.g. <i>well-built, he's</i>).</p>	<p><i><u>headteacher</u> or <u>head teacher</u></i> [can be written with or without a space]</p> <p><i><u>I'm</u> going out.</i></p> <p><i><u>9.30 am</u></i></p>
<b>word class</b>	<p>Every <u>word</u> belongs to a word class which summarises the ways in which it can be used in grammar. The major word classes for English are: <u>noun</u>, <u>verb</u>, <u>adjective</u>, <u>adverb</u>, <u>preposition</u>, <u>determiner</u>, <u>pronoun</u>, <u>conjunction</u>. Word classes are sometimes called 'parts of speech'.</p>	
<b>word family</b>	<p>The <u>words</u> in a word family are normally related to each other by a combination of <u>morphology</u>, grammar and meaning.</p>	<p><i>teach – teacher</i></p> <p><i>extend – extent – extensive</i></p> <p><i>grammar – grammatical – grammarian</i></p>

