WESTBOURNE PRIMARY SCHOOL

THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM – YEAR 1

SEPTEMBER 2014

Spoken language – years 1 to 6

Statutory requirements
Pupils should be taught to: ▪ listen and respond appropriately to adults and their peers ▪ ask relevant questions to extend their understanding and knowledge ▪ use relevant strategies to build their vocabulary ▪ articulate and justify answers, arguments and opinions ▪ give well-structured descriptions, explanations and narratives for different purposes, including for expressing feelings ▪ maintain attention and participate actively in collaborative conversations, staying on topic and initiating and responding to comments ▪ use spoken language to develop understanding through speculating, hypothesising, imagining and exploring ideas ▪ speak audibly and fluently with an increasing command of Standard English ▪ participate in discussions, presentations, performances, role play, improvisations and debates ▪ gain, maintain and monitor the interest of the listener(s) ▪ consider and evaluate different viewpoints, attending to and building on the contributions of others ▪ select and use appropriate registers for effective communication.

Year 1 Programme of Study

Reading – word reading

Statutory requirements
Pupils should be taught to: ■ apply phonic knowledge and skills as the route to decode words ■ respond speedily with the correct sound to graphemes (letters or groups of letters) for all 40+ phonemes, including, where applicable, alternative sounds for graphemes ■ read accurately by blending sounds in unfamiliar words containing GPCs that have been taught ■ read common exception words, noting unusual correspondences between spelling and sound and where these occur in the word ■ read words containing taught GPCs and –s, –es, –ing, –ed, –er and –est endings ■ read other words of more than one syllable that contain taught GPCs ■ read words with contractions [for example, I'm, I'll, we'll], and understand that the apostrophe represents the omitted letter(s) ■ read aloud accurately books that are consistent with their developing phonic knowledge and that do not require them to use other strategies to work out words ■ re-read these books to build up their fluency and confidence in word reading.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)
Pupils should revise and consolidate the GPCs and the common exception words taught in Reception. As soon as they can read words comprising the year 1 GPCs accurately and speedily, they should move on to the year 2 programme of study for word reading. The number, order and choice of exception words taught will vary according to the phonics programme being used. Ensuring that pupils are aware of the GPCs they contain, however unusual these are, supports spelling later. Young readers encounter words that they have not seen before much more frequently than experienced readers do, and they may not know the meaning of some of these. Practice at reading such words by sounding and blending can provide opportunities not only for pupils to develop confidence in their decoding skills, but also for teachers to explain the meaning and thus develop pupils' vocabulary. Daily phonics session, Bug Club, guided reading, shared reading, interventions and push groups, use of TAs etc.
Pupils should be taught how to read words with suffixes by being helped to build on the root words that they can read already. Pupils' reading and re-reading of books that are closely matched to their developing phonic knowledge and knowledge of common exception words supports their fluency, as well as increasing their confidence in their reading skills. Fluent word reading greatly assists comprehension, especially when pupils come to read longer books. Daily phonics session, Bug Club, guided reading, shared reading, interventions and push groups, use of TAs etc.

Reading – comprehension

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:
 	
- develop pleasure in reading, motivation to read, vocabulary and understanding by:
 	
    - listening to and discussing a wide range of poems, stories and non-fiction at a level beyond that at which they can read independently
 	
    - being encouraged to link what they read or hear read to their own experiences
 	
    - becoming very familiar with key stories, fairy stories and traditional tales, retelling them and considering their particular characteristics
 	
    - recognising and joining in with predictable phrases
 	
    - learning to appreciate rhymes and poems, and to recite some by heart
 	
    - discussing word meanings, linking new meanings to those already known
 	
- understand both the books they can already read accurately and fluently and those they listen to by:
 	
    - drawing on what they already know or on background information and vocabulary provided by the teacher
 	
    - checking that the text makes sense to them as they read and correcting inaccurate reading
 	
    - discussing the significance of the title and events
 	
    - making inferences on the basis of what is being said and done
 	
    - predicting what might happen on the basis of what has been read so far
 	
- participate in discussion about what is read to them, taking turns and listening to what others say
 	
- explain clearly their understanding of what is read to them.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils should have extensive experience of listening to, sharing and discussing a wide range of high-quality books with the teacher, other adults and each other to engender a love of reading at the same time as they are reading independently.

Story time, reading to an adult, independent reading time, reading with a buddy, library visits both in and out of school, reading at home, reading to each other, shared reading in lesson time etc.

Pupils' vocabulary should be developed when they listen to books read aloud and when they discuss what they have heard. Such vocabulary can also feed into their writing. Knowing the meaning of more words increases pupils' chances of understanding when they read by themselves. The meaning of some new words should be introduced to pupils before they start to read on their own, so that these unknown words do not hold up their comprehension.

5 new words a week, introducing new vocabulary at the beginning of a guided reading session, shared reading, reading with an adult, reading at home, story time etc.

However, once pupils have already decoded words successfully, the meaning of those that are new to them can be discussed with them, so contributing to developing their early skills of inference. By listening frequently to stories, poems and non-fiction that they cannot yet read for themselves, pupils begin to understand how written language can be structured in order, for example, to build surprise in narratives or to present facts in non-fiction. Listening to and discussing information books and other non-fiction establishes the foundations for their learning in other subjects. Pupils should be shown some of the processes for finding out information.

Talk for Learning, Think2Read activities in provision, using stories/texts as a focus for writing (Talk for Writing), features of texts, judicious use of immersive environments etc.

Through listening, pupils also start to learn how language sounds and increase their vocabulary and awareness of grammatical structures. In due course, they will be able to draw on such grammar in their own writing.

5 new words a week, story time, adults being excellent models of spoken English, texts and other media explored during shared time.

Rules for effective discussions should be agreed with and demonstrated for pupils. They should help to develop and evaluate them, with the expectation that everyone takes part. Pupils should be helped to consider the opinions of others. Role-play can help pupils to identify with and explore characters and to try out the language they have listened to.

Rules for talk, Talk for Learning, drama, 5 new words a week, use of immersive environment and activities to support this in provision.

Writing – transcription (spelling)

Statutory requirements

Spelling **(see English Appendix 1)**
Pupils should be taught to:
 	
▪ spell:
 	
   ▪ words containing each of the 40+ phonemes already taught
 	
   ▪ common exception words
 	
   ▪ the days of the week

▪ name the letters of the alphabet:
 	
   ▪ naming the letters of the alphabet in order
 	
   ▪ using letter names to distinguish between alternative spellings of the same sound
 	
▪ add prefixes and suffixes:
 	
   ▪ using the spelling rule for adding –s or –es as the plural marker for nouns and the third person singular marker for verbs
 	
   ▪ using the prefix un–
 	
   ▪ using –ing, –ed, –er and –est where no change is needed in the spelling of root words [for example, helping, helped, helper, eating, quicker, quickest]
 	
▪ apply simple spelling rules and guidance, as listed in **English Appendix 1**
 	
▪ write from memory simple sentences dictated by the teacher that include words using the GPCs and common exception words taught so far.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Reading should be taught alongside spelling, so that pupils understand that they can read back words they have spelt.

Pupils should be shown how to segment spoken words into individual phonemes and then how to represent the phonemes by the appropriate grapheme(s). It is important to recognise that phoneme-grapheme correspondences (which underpin spelling) are more variable than grapheme-phoneme correspondences (which underpin reading). For this reason, pupils need to do much more word-specific rehearsal for spelling than for reading.

At this stage pupils will be spelling some words in a phonically plausible way, even if sometimes incorrectly. Misspellings of words that pupils have been taught to spell should be corrected; other misspelt words should be used to teach pupils about alternative ways of representing those sounds.

Writing simple dictated sentences that include words taught so far gives pupils opportunities to apply and practise their spelling.

5 new words a week, other planned opportunities in provision

Handwriting

Statutory requirements
Handwriting Pupils should be taught to: - sit correctly at a table, holding a pencil comfortably and correctly - begin to form lower-case letters in the correct direction, starting and finishing in the right place - form capital letters - form digits 0-9 - understand which letters belong to which handwriting 'families' (i.e. letters that are formed in similar ways) and to practise these. Follow agreed school handwriting script (English Roundhand – see the Literacy Coordinator if unsure). **All** children must use the cursive script.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)
Handwriting requires frequent and discrete, direct teaching. Pupils should be able to form letters correctly and confidently. The size of the writing implement (pencil, pen) should not be too large for a young pupil's hand. Whatever is being used should allow the pupil to hold it easily and correctly so that bad habits are avoided. Left-handed pupils should receive specific teaching to meet their needs. Follow school's handwriting guidance

Writing – composition

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- write sentences by:
    - saying out loud what they are going to write about
    - composing a sentence orally before writing it
    - sequencing sentences to form short narratives
    - re-reading what they have written to check that it makes sense
- discuss what they have written with the teacher or other pupils
- read aloud their writing clearly enough to be heard by their peers and the teacher.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

At the beginning of year 1, not all pupils will have the spelling and handwriting skills they need to write down everything that they can compose out loud.

Pupils should understand, through demonstration, the skills and processes essential to writing: that is, thinking aloud as they collect ideas, drafting, and re-reading to check their meaning is clear.

Talk for Writing, Talk for Learning, use of immersive environment and other provision, shared and guided work, appropriate use of TAs, cross-curricular opportunities, use of phonic knowledge

Writing – vocabulary, grammar and punctuation

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:
 	
▪ develop their understanding of the concepts set out in **English Appendix 2** by:
 	
    ▪ leaving spaces between words
 	
    ▪ joining words and joining clauses using and
 	
    ▪ beginning to punctuate sentences using a capital letter and a full stop, question mark or exclamation mark
 	
    ▪ using a capital letter for names of people, places, the days of the week, and the personal pronoun 'I'
 	
    ▪ learning the grammar for year 1 in **English Appendix 2**
 	
▪ use the grammatical terminology in **English Appendix 2** in discussing their writing.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)
Pupils should be taught to recognise sentence boundaries in spoken sentences and to use the vocabulary listed in **English Appendix 2** ('Terminology for pupils') when their writing is discussed. Pupils should begin to use some of the distinctive features of Standard English in their writing. 'Standard English' is defined in the **Glossary**. Talk for Writing, Talk for Learning, use of immersive environment and other provision, shared and guided work, appropriate use of TAs, cross-curricular opportunities, use of phonic knowledge

English Appendix 1: spelling work: Year 1

Revision of reception work

Statutory requirements
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:

- all letters of the alphabet and the sounds which they most commonly represent

- consonant digraphs which have been taught and the sounds which they represent

- vowel digraphs which have been taught and the sounds which they represent

- the process of segmenting spoken words into sounds before choosing graphemes to represent the sounds

- words with adjacent consonants

- guidance and rules which have been taught

Statutory requirements		Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
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 sound is unclear.	pocket, rabbit, carrot, thunder, sunset

Statutory requirements		Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
-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
Adding the endings –ing, –ed and –er to verbs where no change is needed to the root word		–**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**. If the verb ends in two consonant letters (the same or different), the ending is simply added on.	hunting, hunted, hunter, buzzing, buzzed, buzzer, jumping, jumped, jumper
Adding –er and –est to adjectives where no change is needed to the root word		As with verbs (see above), if the adjective ends in two consonant letters (the same or different), the ending is simply added on.	grander, grandest, fresher, freshest, quicker, quickest

Vowel digraphs and trigraphs

Some may already be known, depending on the programmes used in Reception, but some will be new.

Vowel digraphs and trigraphs		Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
ai, oi		The digraphs ai and oi are virtually never used at the end of English words.	rain, wait, train, paid, afraid oil, join, coin, point, soil
ay, oy		**ay** and **oy** are used for those sounds at the end of words and at the end of syllables.	day, play, say, way, stay boy, toy, enjoy, annoy
a–e			made, came, same, take, safe
e–e			these, theme, complete
i–e			five, ride, like, time, side
o–e			home, those, woke, hope, hole
u–e		Both the /u:/ and /ju:/ ('oo' and 'yoo') sounds can be spelt as **u–e**.	June, rule, rude, use, tube, tune
ar			car, start, park, arm, garden
ee			see, tree, green, meet, week
ea (/i:/)			sea, dream, meat, each, read (present tense)
ea (/ɛ/)			head, bread, meant, instead, read (past tense)
er (/ɜ:/)			(stressed sound): her, term, verb, person
er (/ə/)			(unstressed *schwa* sound): better, under, summer, winter, sister
ir			girl, bird, shirt, first, third
ur			turn, hurt, church, burst, Thursday
Vowel digraphs and trigraphs		Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
oo (/u:/)		Very few words end with the letters oo, although the few that do are often words that primary children in	food, pool, moon, zoo, soon

		year 1 will encounter, for example, zoo	
oo (/ʊ/)			book, took, foot, wood, good
oa		The digraph oa is very rare at the end of an English word.	boat, coat, road, coach, goal
oe			toe, goes
ou		The only common English word ending in ou is you.	out, about, mouth, around, sound
ow (/aʊ/) ow (/əʊ/) ue ew		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.	now, how, brown, down, town own, blow, snow, grow, show blue, clue, true, rescue, Tuesday new, few, grew, flew, drew, threw
ie (/aɪ/)			lie, tie, pie, cried, tried, dried
ie (/i:/)			chief, field, thief
igh			high, night, light, bright, right
or			for, short, born, horse, morning
ore			more, score, before, wore, shore
aw			saw, draw, yawn, crawl
au			author, August, dinosaur, astronaut
air			air, fair, pair, hair, chair
ear			dear, hear, beard, near, year
ear (/ɛə/)			bear, pear, wear
are (/ɛə/)			bare, dare, care, share, scared
Statutory requirements		Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Words ending – y (/i:/ or /ɪ/)			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. fat, fill, fun).	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		Pupils' attention should be drawn to the grapheme-phoneme correspondences that do and do not fit in with what has been taught so far.	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

English Appendix 2: vocabulary, grammar and punctuation

Year 1: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Word	Regular **plural noun suffixes** –*s* or –*es* [for example, *dog*, *dogs; wish*, *wishes*], including the effects of these suffixes on the meaning of the noun
	Suffixes that can be added to **verbs** where no change is needed in the spelling of root words (e.g. *helping*, *helped*, *helper*)
	How the **prefix** *un*– changes the meaning of **verbs** and **adjectives** [negation, for example, *unkind*, or *undoing*: *untie the boat*]
Sentence	How **words** can combine to make **sentences**
	Joining **words** and joining **clauses** using *and*
Text	Sequencing **sentences** to form short narratives
Punctuation	Separation of **words** with spaces
	Introduction to capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate **sentences**
	Capital letters for names and for the personal **pronoun** *I*
Terminology for pupils	letter, capital letter
	word, singular, plural
	sentence
	punctuation, full stop, question mark, exclamation mark

Changes to the Year 1 English Curriculum

What's gone	What's been added
- Requirement to write non-narrative texts - Chronological & non-chronological texts - Typing skills	- Reading of phonically-suitable texts - Reading words with contractions - Reading words with regular endings - Making inferences from texts - Learning and reciting poetry - Re-reading own writing to check for sense - Using capital letters for proper nouns - Name the letters of the alphabet - Spell the names of the days of the week - Adopt a suitable writing position - Form capital letters and digits 0-9 - Practise handwriting letter 'families'

Glossary for the programmes of study for English (non-statutory)

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

		▪ *Usha went <u>up the stairs</u>.* [preposition phrase used as adverbial]
		▪ *She finished her work <u>this evening</u>.* [noun phrase used as adverbial]
		▪ *She finished <u>when the teacher got cross</u>.* [subordinate clause used as adverbial]
adverbial	An adverbial is a word or phrase that is used, like an adverb, to modify a verb or clause. Of course, adverbs can be used as adverbials, but many other types of words and phrases can be used this way, including preposition phrases and subordinate clauses.	The *bus leaves <u>in five minutes</u>.* [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies *leaves*] *She promised to see him <u>last night</u>.* [noun phrase modifying either *promised* or *see,* according to the intended meaning] *She worked until she had finished.* [subordinate clause as adverbial]
antonym	Two words are antonyms if their meanings are opposites.	*hot – cold* *light – dark* *light – heavy*
apostrophe	Apostrophes have two completely different uses: ▪ showing the place of missing letters (e.g. *I'm* for *I am*) ▪ marking possessives (e.g. *Hannah's mother*).	*<u>I'm</u> going out and I <u>won't</u> be long.* [showing missing letters] *<u>Hannah's</u> mother went to town in <u>Justin's</u> car.* [marking possessives]
article	The articles *the* (definite) and *a* or *an* (indefinite) are the most common type of determiner.	*<u>The</u> dog found <u>a</u> bone in <u>an</u> old box.*
auxiliary verb	The auxiliary verbs are: *be, have, do* and the modal verbs. They can be used to make questions and negative statements. In addition: ▪ *be* is used in the progressive and passive ▪ *have* is used in the perfect	*They <u>are</u> winning the match.* [*be* used in the progressive] *<u>Have</u> you finished your picture?* [*have* used to make a question, and the perfect] *No, I <u>don't</u> know him.* [*do* used to make a negative; no other auxiliary is present]

	▪ *do* is used to form questions and negative statements if no other auxiliary verb is present	*Will you come with me or not?* [modal verb *will* used to make a question about the other person's willingness]
clause	A clause is a special type of phrase whose head is a verb. Clauses can sometimes be complete sentences. Clauses may be main or subordinate. Traditionally, a clause had to have a finite verb, but most modern grammarians also recognise non-finite clauses.	*It was raining.* [single-clause sentence] *It was raining but we were indoors.* [two finite clauses] *If you are coming to the party, please let us know.* [finite subordinate clause inside a finite main clause] *Usha went upstairs <u>to play on her computer</u>.* [non-finite clause]
cohesion	A text has cohesion if it is clear how the meanings of its parts fit together. Cohesive devices can help to do this. 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.	**A visit** has been arranged for ***Year 6***, to the <u>Mountain Peaks Field Study Centre</u>, leaving school at 9.30am. **This** is **an overnight visit**. <u>The centre</u> has beautiful grounds and *a nature trail*. During the afternoon, ***the children*** will follow *the trail*.
cohesive device	Cohesive devices are words used to show how the different parts of a text fit together. In other words, they create cohesion. Some examples of cohesive devices are: ▪ determiners and pronouns, which can refer back to earlier words ▪ conjunctions and adverbs, which can make relations between words clear ▪ ellipsis of expected words.	*Julia's dad bought her a football. <u>The</u> football was expensive!* [determiner; refers us back to a particular football] *Joe was given a bike for Christmas. <u>He</u> liked <u>it</u> very much.* [the pronouns refer back to Joe and the bike] *We'll be going shopping <u>before</u> we go to the park.* [conjunction; makes a relationship of time clear] *I'm afraid we're going to have to wait for the next train. <u>Meanwhile</u>, we could have a cup of tea.* [adverb; refers back to the time of waiting] *Where are you going? [_] To school!* [ellipsis of the expected

		words *I'm going*; links the answer back to the question]
complement	A verb's subject complement adds more information about its subject, and its object complement does the same for its object. Unlike the verb's object, its complement may be an adjective. The verb *be* normally has a complement.	*She is <u>our teacher</u>.* [adds more information about the subject, *she*] *They seem <u>very competent</u>.* [adds more information about the subject, *they*] *Learning makes me <u>happy</u>.* [adds more information about the object, *me*]
compound, compounding	A compound word contains at least two root words in its morphology; e.g. *whiteboard, superman.* Compounding is very important in English.	*blackbird, blow-dry, bookshop, ice-cream, English teacher, inkjet, one-eyed, bone-dry, baby-sit, daydream, outgrow*
conjunction	A conjunction links two words or phrases together. There are two main types of conjunctions: ▪ co-ordinating conjunctions (e.g. *and*) link two words or phrases together as an equal pair ▪ subordinating conjunctions (e.g. *when*) introduce a subordinate clause.	*James bought a bat <u>and</u> ball.* [links the words *bat* and *ball* as an equal pair] *Kylie is young <u>but</u> she can kick the ball hard.* [links two clauses as an equal pair] *Everyone watches <u>when</u> Kyle does back-flips.* [introduces a subordinate clause] *Joe can't practise kicking <u>because</u> he's injured.* [introduces a subordinate clause]
consonant	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 *a, e, i, o, u* and *y* can represent vowel 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]
continuous	See progressive	
co-ordinate, co-ordination	Words or phrases are co-ordinated if they are linked as an equal pair by a	***Susan <u>and</u> Amra*** *met in a café.* [links the words *Susan* and *Amra* as an equal pair]

	co-ordinating conjunction (i.e. *and*, *but*, *or*). 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 subordination is that, in subordination, the two linked elements are not equal.	***They talked*** <u>and</u> ***drank tea*** *for an hour.* [links two clauses as an equal pair] ***Susan got a bus*** <u>but</u> ***Amra walked***. [links two clauses as an equal pair] Not co-ordination: *They ate <u>before</u> they met*. [*before* introduces a subordinate clause]
determiner	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: ▪ articles (*the*, *a* or *an*) ▪ demonstratives (e.g. *this*, *those*) ▪ possessives (e.g. *my*, *your*) ▪ quantifiers (e.g. *some*, *every*).	<u>*the*</u> *home team* [article, specifies the team as known] <u>*a*</u> *good team* [article, specifies the team as unknown] <u>*that*</u> *pupil* [demonstrative, known] <u>*Julia's*</u> *parents* [possessive, known] <u>*some*</u> *big boys* [quantifier, unknown] Contrast: *home <u>the</u> team, big <u>some</u> boys* [both incorrect, because the determiner should come before other modifiers]
digraph	A type of grapheme where two letters represent one phoneme. Sometimes, these two letters are not next to one another; this is called a split digraph.	The digraph *<u>ea</u>* in *<u>ea</u>ch* is pronounced /iː/. The digraph *<u>sh</u>* in *<u>sh</u>ed* is pronounced /ʃ/. The split digraph *<u>i–e</u>* in *l<u>i</u>n<u>e</u>* is pronounced /aɪ/.
ellipsis	Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.	*Frankie waved to Ivana and ~~she~~ watched her drive away.* *She did it because she wanted to ~~do it~~.*
etymology	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 *school* was borrowed from a Greek word *ó÷ïëÞ* (*skholé*) meaning 'leisure'. The word *verb* comes from Latin *verbum*, meaning 'word'. The word *mutton* comes from French *mouton*, meaning 'sheep'.

finite verb	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.	*Lizzie does the dishes every day.* [present tense] *Even Hana did the dishes yesterday.* [past tense] *Do the dishes, Naser!* [imperative] Not finite verbs: *I have done them.* [combined with the finite verb *have*] *I will do them.* [combined with the finite verb *will*] *I want to do them!* [combined with the finite verb *want*]
fronting, fronted	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. When writing fronted phrases, we often follow them with a comma.	*Before we begin, make sure you've got a pencil.* [Without fronting: *Make sure you've got a pencil before we begin.*] *The day after tomorrow, I'm visiting my granddad.* [Without fronting: *I'm visiting my granddad the day after tomorrow.*]
future	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. See also tense. 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.	*He will leave tomorrow.* [present-tense *will* followed by infinitive *leave*] *He may leave tomorrow.* [present-tense *may* followed by infinitive *leave*] *He leaves tomorrow*. [present-tense *leaves*] *He is going to leave tomorrow.* [present tense *is* followed by *going to* plus the infinitive *leave*]
GPC	See grapheme-phoneme correspondences.	
grapheme	A letter, or combination of letters, that corresponds to a single phoneme within a word.	The grapheme *t* in the words *ten*, *bet* and *ate* corresponds to the phoneme /t/.

		The grapheme *ph* in the word *dolphin* corresponds to the phoneme /f/.
grapheme-phoneme correspondences	The links between letters, or combinations of letters (graphemes) and the speech sounds (phonemes) that they represent. In the English writing system, graphemes may correspond to different phonemes in different words.	The grapheme *s* corresponds to the phoneme /s/ in the word *see*, but… …it corresponds to the phoneme /z/ in the word *easy*.
head	See phrase.	
homonym	Two different words are homonyms if they both look exactly the same when written, and sound exactly the same when pronounced.	*Has he left yet? Yes – he went through the door on the left.* *The noise a dog makes is called a bark. Trees have bark.*
homophone	Two different words are homophones if they sound exactly the same when pronounced.	*hear, here* *some, sum*
infinitive	A verb's infinitive is the basic form used as the head-word in a dictionary (e.g. *walk, be*). Infinitives are often used: ▪ after *to* ▪ after modal verbs.	*I want to walk.* *I will be quiet.*
inflection	When we add *-ed* to *walk*, or change *mouse* to *mice*, this change of morphology produces an inflection ('bending') of the basic word which has special grammar (e.g. past tense or plural). In contrast, adding *-er* to *walk* produces a completely different word, *walker*, which is part of the same word family. Inflection is sometimes thought of as merely a change of ending, but, in fact, some words change completely when inflected.	*dogs* is an inflection of *dog.* *went* is an inflection of *go.* *better* is an inflection of *good*.
intransitive verb	A verb which does not need an object in a sentence to complete its meaning is described as intransitive. See 'transitive verb'.	*We all laughed.* *We would like to stay longer, but we must leave.*

main clause	A sentence contains at least one clause which is not a subordinate clause; such a clause is a main clause. A main clause may contain any number of subordinate clauses.	*It was raining but the sun was shining.* [two main clauses] *The man **who wrote it** told me **that it was true**.* [one main clause containing two subordinate clauses.] *She said, "It rained all day."* [one main clause containing another.]
modal verb	Modal verbs are used to change the meaning of other verbs. They can express meanings such as certainty, ability, or obligation. The main modal verbs are *will, would, can, could, may, might, shall, should, must* and *ought*. A modal verb only has finite forms and has no suffixes (e.g. *I sing – he sings*, but not *I must – he musts*).	*I can do this maths work by myself.* *This ride may be too scary for you!* *You should help your little brother.* *Is it going to rain? Yes, it might.* *Canning swim is important.* [not possible because *can* must be finite; contrast: *Being able to swim is important*, where *being* is not a modal verb]
modify, modifier	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 *primary-school teacher*: ▪ *teacher* is modified by *primary-school* (to mean a specific kind of teacher) ▪ *school* is modified by *primary* (to mean a specific kind of school).
morphology	A word's morphology is its internal make-up in terms of root words and suffixes or prefixes, as well as other kinds of change such as the change of *mouse* to *mice*. Morphology may be used to produce different inflections of the same word (e.g. *boy – boys*), or entirely new words (e.g. *boy – boyish*) belonging to the same word family. A word that contains two or more root words is a compound (e.g. *news+paper, ice+cream*).	*dogs* has the morphological make-up: *dog + s*. *unhelpfulness* has the morphological make-up: 　*unhelpful + ness* ▪ where *unhelpful = un + helpful* ▪ and *helpful = help + ful*
noun	The surest way to identify nouns is by the ways they can be used after	*Our dog bit the burglar on his behind!*

	<u>determiners</u> such as *the*: for example, most nouns will fit into the frame "The __ matters/matter."	*My big <u>brother</u> did an amazing <u>jump</u> on his <u>skateboard</u>.*
	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.	*<u>Actions</u> speak louder than <u>words</u>.*
		Not nouns:
		▪ *He's <u>behind</u> you!* [this names a place, but is a preposition, not a noun]
	Nouns may be classified as **common** (e.g. *boy, day*) or **proper** (e.g. *Ivan, Wednesday*), and also as **countable** (e.g. *thing, boy*) or **non-countable** (e.g. *stuff, money*). These classes can be recognised by the determiners they combine with.	▪ *She can <u>jump</u> so high!* [this names an action, but is a verb, not a noun]
		common, countable: *a <u>book</u>, <u>books</u>, two <u>chocolates</u>, one <u>day</u>, fewer <u>ideas</u>*
		common, non-countable: *<u>money</u>, some <u>chocolate</u>, less <u>imagination</u>*
		proper, countable: *<u>Marilyn</u>, <u>London</u>, <u>Wednesday</u>*
noun phrase	A noun phrase is a <u>phrase</u> with a noun as its <u>head</u>, e.g. *some foxes, foxes with bushy tails*. Some grammarians recognise one-word phrases, so that *foxes are multiplying* would contain the noun *foxes* acting as the head of the noun phrase *foxes*.	*<u>Adult foxes</u> can jump.* [*adult* modifies *foxes*, so *adult* belongs to the noun phrase]
		<u>Almost all healthy adult foxes in this area</u> can jump. [all the other words help to modify *foxes*, so they all belong to the noun phrase]
object	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.	*Year 2 designed <u>puppets</u>.* [noun acting as object]
		I like <u>that</u>. [pronoun acting as object]
	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>).	Some people suggested <u>a pretty display</u>. [noun phrase acting as object]
		Contrast:
		▪ *A display was suggested*. [object of active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb]
		▪ *Year 2 designed pretty*. [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]

participle	Verbs in English have two participles, called 'present participle' (e.g. *walking, taking*) and 'past participle' (e.g. *walked, taken*). 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 perfects (e.g. *has eaten*) they are also used as passives (e.g. *was eaten*).	*He is walking to school.* [present participle in a progressive] *He has taken the bus to school.* [past participle in a perfect] *The photo was taken in the rain.* [past participle in a passive]
passive	The sentence *It was eaten by our dog* is the passive of *Our dog ate it.* A passive is recognisable from: ■ the past participle form *eaten* ■ the normal object (*it*) turned into the subject ■ the normal subject (*our dog*) turned into an optional preposition phrase with *by* as its head ■ the verb *be*(*was*), or some other verb such as *get*. Contrast active. A verb is not 'passive' just because it has a passive meaning: it must be the passive version of an active verb.	*A visit was arranged by the school.* *Our cat got run over by a bus.* Active versions: ■ *The school arranged a visit.* ■ *A bus ran over our cat.* Not passive: ■ *He received a warning.* [past tense, active *received*] ■ *We had an accident.* [past tense, active *had*]
past tense	Verbs in the past tense are commonly used to: ■ talk about the past ■ talk about imagined situations ■ make a request sound more polite. Most verbs take a suffix *–ed*, to form their past tense, but many commonly-used verbs are irregular.	*Tom and Chris showed me their new TV.* [names an event in the past] *Antonio went on holiday to Brazil.* [names an event in the past; irregular past of *go*] *I wish I had a puppy.* [names an imagined situation, not a situation in the past]

	See also tense.	I _was_ hoping you'd help tomorrow. [makes an implied request sound more polite]
perfect	The perfect form of a verb generally calls attention to the consequences of a prior event; for example, _he has gone to lunch_ implies that he is still away, in contrast with _he went to lunch_. '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: ▪ turning the verb into its past participle inflection ▪ adding a form of the verb _have_ before it. It can also be combined with the progressive (e.g. _he has been going_).	_She has downloaded some songs._ [present perfect; now she has some songs] _I had eaten lunch when you came._ [past perfect; I wasn't hungry when you came]
phoneme	A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that signals a distinct, contrasting meaning. For example: ▪ /t/ contrasts with /k/ to signal the difference between _tap_ and _cap_ ▪ /t/ contrasts with /l/ to signal the difference between _bought_ and _ball_. It is this contrast in meaning that tells us there are two distinct phonemes at work. 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.	The word _cat_ has three letters and three phonemes: /kæt/ The word _catch_ has five letters and three phonemes: /katʃ/ The word _caught_ has six letters and three phonemes: /kɔːt/

phrase	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 noun phrase if its head is a noun, a preposition phrase if its head is a preposition, and so on; but if the head is a verb, the phrase is called a clause. Phrases can be made up of other phrases.	*She waved to her mother.* [a noun phrase, with the noun *mother* as its head] *She waved to her mother.* [a preposition phrase, with the preposition *to* as its head] *She waved to her mother.* [a clause, with the verb *waved* as its head]
plural	A plural noun normally has a suffix –*s* or –*es* and means 'more than one'. There are a few nouns with different morphology in the plural (e.g. *mice, formulae*).	*dogs* [more than one dog]; *boxes* [more than one box] *mice* [more than one mouse]
possessive	A possessive can be: ▪ a noun followed by an apostrophe, with or without *s* ▪ a possessive pronoun. The relation expressed by a possessive goes well beyond ordinary ideas of 'possession'. A possessive may act as a determiner.	*Tariq's book* [Tariq has the book] *The boys' arrival* [the boys arrive] *His obituary* [the obituary is about him] *That essay is mine.* [I wrote the essay]
prefix	A prefix is added at the beginning of a word in order to turn it into another word. Contrast suffix.	*overtake, disappear*
preposition	A preposition links a following noun, pronoun or noun phrase 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 *before* or *since* can act either as prepositions or as conjunctions.	*Tom waved goodbye to Christy. She'll be back from Australia in two weeks.* *I haven't seen my dog since this morning.* Contrast: *I'm going, since no-one wants me here!* [conjunction: links two clauses]
preposition phrase	A preposition phrase has a preposition as its head followed by a noun, pronoun or noun phrase.	*He was in bed.* *I met them after the party.*

present tense	Verbs in the present tense are commonly used to: ▪ talk about the present ▪ talk about the future. They may take a suffix –s (depending on the subject). See also tense.	*Jamal goes to the pool every day.* [describes a habit that exists now] *He can swim.* [describes a state that is true now] *The bus arrives at three.* [scheduled now] *My friends are coming to play.* [describes a plan in progress now]
progressive	The progressive (also known as the 'continuous') form of a verb generally describes events in progress. It is formed by combining the verb's present participle (e.g. *singing*) with a form of the verb *be* (e.g. *he was singing*). The progressive can also be combined with the perfect (e.g. *he has been singing*).	*Michael is singing in the store room.* [present progressive] *Amanda was making a patchwork quilt.* [past progressive] *Usha had been practising for an hour when I called.* [past perfect progressive]
pronoun	Pronouns are normally used like nouns, except that: ▪ they are grammatically more specialised ▪ it is harder to modify them 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.	***Amanda** waved to **Michael**.* ***She** waved to **him**.* ***John's** mother is over there. **His** mother is over there.* *The **visit** will be an overnight **visit**. **This** will be an overnight **visit**.* ***Simon** is the person: **Simon** broke it. **He** is the one **who** broke it.*
punctuation	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 sentence boundaries.	*"I'm going out, Usha, and I won't be long," Mum said.*
Received Pronunciation	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.	
register	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 regret to inform you that Mr Joseph Smith has passed away.* [formal letter] *Have you heard that Joe has died?* [casual speech] *Joe falls down and dies, centre stage.* [stage direction]
relative clause	A relative clause is a special type of subordinate clause that modifies a noun. It often does this by using a relative pronoun such as *who* or *that* to refer back to that noun, though the relative pronoun *that* is often omitted. A relative clause may also be attached to a clause. In that case, the pronoun refers back to the whole clause, rather than referring back to a noun. In the examples, the relative clauses are underlined, and both the pronouns and the words they refer back to are in bold.	*That's the **boy <u>who</u> <u>lives near school</u>**.* [*who* refers back to *boy*] *The **prize <u>that</u> <u>I won</u>** was a book.* [*that* refers back to *prize*] *The **prize** <u>I won</u> was a book.* [the pronoun *that* is omitted] ***Tom broke the game**, <u>which annoyed Ali</u>.* [*which* refers back to the whole clause]
root word	Morphology breaks words down into root words, which can stand alone, and suffixes or prefixes which can't. For example, *help* is the root word for other words in its word family such as *helpful* and *helpless*, and also for its inflections such as *helping.* Compound words (e.g. *help-desk*) 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.	<u>*play*</u>*ed* [the root word is *play*] *un*<u>*fair*</u> [the root word is *fair*] *football* [the root words are *foot* and *ball*]

schwa	The name of a vowel sound that is found only in unstressed positions in English. It is the most common vowel sound in English. It is written as /ə/ in the International Phonetic Alphabet. In the English writing system, it can be written in many different ways.	/əlɒŋ/ [_a_long] /bʌtə/ [butt_er_] /dɒktə/ [doct_or_]
sentence	A sentence is a group of [words](#) which are grammatically connected to each other but not to any words outside the sentence. The form of a sentence's main clause shows whether it is being used as a statement, a question, a command or an exclamation. 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 'compound' can be confusing, because a 'simple' sentence may be complicated, and a 'complex' one may be straightforward. The terms **'single-clause sentence'** and **'multi-clause sentence'** may be more helpful.	_John went to his friend's house. He stayed there till tea-time._ _John went to his friend's house, he stayed there till tea-time._ [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.] _You are my friend._ [statement] _Are you my friend?_ [question] _Be my friend!_ [command] _What a good friend you are!_ [exclamation] _Ali went home on his bike to his goldfish and his current library book about pets._ [single-clause sentence] _She went shopping but took back everything she had bought because she didn't like any of it._ [multi-clause sentence]
split digraph	See [digraph](#).	
Standard English	Standard English can be recognised by the use of a very small range of forms such as _those books, I did it_ and _I wasn't doing anything_ (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	_I did it because they were not willing to undertake any more work on those houses._ [formal Standard English] _I did it cos they wouldn't do any more work on those houses._ [casual Standard English] _I done it cos they wouldn't do no more work on them houses._ [casual non-Standard English]

	from the most casual to the most formal, so it covers most registers. 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.	
stress	A syllable is stressed if it is pronounced more forcefully than the syllables next to it. The other syllables are unstressed.	*about* *visit*
subject	The subject of a verb is normally the noun, noun phrase or pronoun that names the 'do-er' or 'be-er'. The subject's normal position is: ▪ just before the verb in a statement ▪ just after the auxiliary verb, in a question. Unlike the verb's object and complement, the subject can determine the form of the verb (e.g. *I am*, *you are*).	*Rula's mother went out.* *That is uncertain.* *The children will study the animals.* *Will the children study the animals?*
subjunctive	In some languages, the inflections of a verb include a large range of special forms which are used typically in subordinate clauses, and are called 'subjunctives'. English has very few such forms and those it has tend to be used in rather formal styles.	*The school requires that all pupils be honest.* *The school rules demand that pupils not enter the gym at lunchtime.* *If Zoë were the class president, things would be much better.*
subordinate, subordination	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: ▪ an adjective is subordinate to the noun it modifies ▪ subjects and objects are subordinate to their verbs.	*big dogs* [*big* is subordinate to *dogs*] *Big dogs need long walks.* [*big dogs* and *long walks* are subordinate to *need*] *We can watch TV when we've finished.* [*when we've finished* is subordinate to *watch*]

	Subordination is much more common than the equal relationship of co-ordination. See also subordinate clause.	
subordinate clause	A clause which is subordinate to some other part of the same sentence is a subordinate clause; for example, in *The apple that I ate was sour*, the clause *that I ate* is subordinate to *apple* (which it modifies). Subordinate clauses contrast with co-ordinate clauses as in *It was sour but looked very tasty*. (Contrast: main clause) However, clauses that are directly quoted as direct speech are not subordinate clauses.	*That's the street where Ben lives.* [relative clause; modifies *street*] *He watched her as she disappeared.* [adverbial; modifies *watched*] *What you said was very nice.* [acts as subject of *was*] *She noticed an hour had passed.* [acts as object of *noticed*] Not subordinate: *He shouted, "Look out!"*
suffix	A suffix is an 'ending', used at the end of one word to turn it into another word. Unlike root words, suffixes cannot stand on their own as a complete word. Contrast prefix.	*call – called* *teach – teacher* [turns a verb into a noun] *terror – terrorise* [turns a noun into a verb] *green – greenish* [leaves word class unchanged]
syllable	A syllable sounds like a beat in a word. Syllables consist of at least one vowel, and possibly one or more consonants.	*Cat* has one syllable. *Fairy* has two syllables. *Hippopotamus* has five syllables.
synonym	Two words are synonyms if they have the same meaning, or similar meanings. Contrast antonym.	*talk – speak* *old – elderly*
tense	In English, tense is the choice between present and past verbs, which is special because it is signalled by inflections 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: future.)	*He studies.* [present tense – present time] *He studied yesterday.* [past tense – past time] *He studies tomorrow, or else!* [present tense – future time] *He may study tomorrow.* [present tense + infinitive – future time]

	The simple tenses (present and past) may be combined in English with the perfect and progressive.	*He plans to study tomorrow.* [present tense + infinitive – future time] *If he studied tomorrow, he'd see the difference!* [past tense – imagined future] Contrast three distinct tense forms in Spanish: ▪ *Estudia.* [present tense] ▪ *Estudió.* [past tense] ▪ *Estudiará.* [future tense]
transitive verb	A transitive verb takes at least one object in a sentence to complete its meaning, in contrast to an intransitive verb, which does not.	*He loves Juliet.* *She understands English grammar.*
trigraph	A type of grapheme where three letters represent one phoneme.	*High, pure, patch, hedge*
unstressed	See stressed.	
verb	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). 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). Moreover many verbs name states or feelings rather than actions. Verbs can be classified in various ways: for example, as auxiliary, or modal; as transitive or intransitive; and as states or events.	*He lives in Birmingham.* [present tense] *The teacher wrote a song for the class.* [past tense] *He likes chocolate.* [present tense; not an action] *He knew my father.* [past tense; not an action] Not verbs: ▪ *The walk to Halina's house will take an hour.* [noun] ▪ *All that surfing makes Morwenna so sleepy!* [noun]
vowel	A vowel is a speech sound which is produced without any closure or obstruction of the vocal tract. Vowels can form syllables by themselves, or they may combine with consonants.	

	In the English writing system, the letters *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u* and *y* can represent vowels.	
word	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. 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. *well-built, he's*).	*headteacher* or *head teacher* [can be written with or without a space] *I'm* going out. *9.30 am*
word class	Every word belongs to a word class which summarises the ways in which it can be used in grammar. The major word classes for English are: noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, determiner, pronoun, conjunction. Word classes are sometimes called 'parts of speech'.	
word family	The words in a word family are normally related to each other by a combination of morphology, grammar and meaning.	*teach – teacher* *extend – extent – extensive* *grammar – grammatical – grammarian*