WESTBOURNE PRIMARY SCHOOL

THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM – YEAR 4

SEPTEMBER 2014

Westbourne
Primary School

Working together in Bradford

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 4 Programme of Study

Reading – word reading

Statutory requirements
Pupils should be taught to: - apply their growing knowledge of root words, prefixes and suffixes (etymology and morphology) as listed in **English Appendix 1**, both to read aloud and to understand the meaning of new words they meet - read further exception words, noting the unusual correspondences between spelling and sound, and where these occur in the word.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)
At this stage, teaching comprehension should be taking precedence over teaching word reading directly. Any focus on word reading should support the development of vocabulary. When pupils are taught to read longer words, they should be supported to test out different pronunciations. They will attempt to match what they decode to words they may have already heard but may not have seen in print [for example, in reading 'technical', the pronunciation /tɛtʃnɪkəl/ ('tetchnical') might not sound familiar, but /tɛknɪkəl/ ('teknical') should]. Think2Read, guided reading, shared reading, individual reading, reading at home, shared reading across the curriculum, opportunities in the immersive environment

Reading – comprehension

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:
 	
▪ develop positive attitudes to reading and understanding of what they read by:
 	
    ▪ listening to and discussing a wide range of fiction, poetry, plays, non-fiction and reference books or textbooks
 	
    ▪ reading books that are structured in different ways and reading for a range of purposes
 	
    ▪ using dictionaries to check the meaning of words that they have read
 	
    ▪ increasing their familiarity with a wide range of books, including myths and legends, and retelling some of these orally
 	
    ▪ identifying themes and conventions in a wide range of books

▪ preparing play scripts to read aloud and to perform, showing understanding through intonation, tone, volume and action
 	
    ▪ discussing words and phrases that capture the reader's interest and imagination
 	
    ▪ recognising some different forms of poetry [for example, free verse, narrative poetry]
 	
▪ understand what they read, in books they can read independently, by:
 	
    ▪ checking that the text makes sense to them, discussing their understanding and explaining the meaning of words in context
 	
    ▪ asking questions to improve their understanding of a text
 	
    ▪ drawing inferences such as inferring characters' feelings, thoughts and motives from their actions, and justifying inferences with evidence
 	
    ▪ predicting what might happen from details stated and implied
 	
    ▪ identifying main ideas drawn from more than one paragraph and summarising these
 	
    ▪ identifying how language, structure, and presentation contribute to meaning
 	
▪ retrieve and record information from non-fiction
 	
▪ participate in discussion about both books that are read to them and those they can read for themselves, taking turns and listening to what others say.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)
The focus should continue to be on pupils' comprehension as a primary element in reading. The knowledge and skills that pupils need in order to comprehend are very similar at different ages. This is why the programmes of study for comprehension in years 3 and 4 and years 5 and 6 are similar: the complexity of the writing increases the level of challenge. Pupils should be taught to recognise themes in what they read, such as the triumph of good over evil or the use of magical devices in fairy stories and folk tales. They should also learn the conventions of different types of writing (for example, the greeting in letters, a diary written in the first person or the use of presentational devices such as numbering and headings in instructions). Pupils should be taught to use the skills they have learnt earlier and continue to apply these skills to read for different reasons, including for pleasure, or to find out information and the meaning of new words. Guided Reading opportunities, Think2Read sessions, independent reading, reading with an adult/buddy, shared reading across the curriculum, opportunities in provision and immersive environment, reading at home, sessions in the library both in and out of school, Talk for Learning, 5 new words a week etc
Pupils should continue to have opportunities to listen frequently to stories, poems, non-fiction and other writing, including whole books and not just extracts, so that they build on what was taught previously. In this way, they also meet books and authors that they might not choose themselves. Pupils should also have opportunities to exercise choice in selecting books and be taught how to do so, with teachers making use of any library services and expertise to support this. Story time daily, planning English lessons around a book, sessions in the library both in and out of school Reading, re-reading, and rehearsing poems and plays for presentation and performance give pupils opportunities to discuss language, including vocabulary, extending their interest in the meaning and origin of words. Pupils should be encouraged to use drama approaches to understand how to perform plays and poems to support their understanding of the meaning. These activities also provide them with an incentive to find out what expression is required, so feeding into comprehension. Think2Read, Talk for Writing, drama opportunities, cross-curricular links, provision in immersive environment In using non-fiction, pupils should know what information they need to look for before they begin and be clear about the task. They should be shown how to use contents pages and indexes to locate information. Talk for Learning, Guided reading, cross-curricular links, sessions in the library both in and out of school, own research, ICT Pupils should have guidance about the kinds of explanations and questions that are expected from them. They should help to develop, agree on, and evaluate rules for effective discussion. The expectation should be that all pupils take part.

Writing – transcription (spelling)

Statutory requirements
Spelling (see English Appendix 1) Pupils should be taught to: - spell further homophones - spell words that are often misspelt **(English Appendix 1)** - place the possessive apostrophe accurately in words with regular plurals [for example, girls', boys'] and in words with irregular plurals [for example, children's] - use the first three letters of a word to check its spelling in a dictionary - write from memory simple sentences, dictated by the teacher, that include words and punctuation taught so far.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)
Pupils should learn to spell new words correctly and have plenty of practice in spelling them. As in years 1 and 2, pupils should continue to be supported in understanding and applying the concepts of word structure **(see English Appendix 2).** Pupils need sufficient knowledge of spelling in order to use dictionaries efficiently.

Handwriting

Statutory requirements
Handwriting Pupils should be taught to: ▪ use the diagonal and horizontal strokes that are needed to join letters and understand which letters, when adjacent to one another, are best left unjoined ▪ increase the legibility, consistency and quality of their handwriting [for example, by ensuring that the downstrokes of letters are parallel and equidistant; that lines of writing are spaced sufficiently so that the ascenders and descenders of letters do not touch].

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)
Pupils should be using joined handwriting throughout their independent writing. Handwriting should continue to be taught, with the aim of increasing the fluency with which pupils are able to write down what they want to say. This, in turn, will support their composition and spelling. Follow agreed school handwriting script (English Roundhand – see the Literacy Coordinator if unsure). By Year 4, **all** children must be using the joined-up, cursive script

Writing – composition

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:
 	
- plan their writing by:
  - discussing writing similar to that which they are planning to write in order to understand and learn from its structure, vocabulary and grammar
  - discussing and recording ideas
 	
- draft and write by:
  - composing and rehearsing sentences orally (including dialogue), progressively building a varied and rich vocabulary and an increasing range of sentence structures **(English Appendix 2, page 67)**
  - organising paragraphs around a theme
  - in narratives, creating settings, characters and plot
  - in non-narrative material, using simple organisational devices [for example, headings and sub-headings]
 	
- evaluate and edit by:
  - assessing the effectiveness of their own and others' writing and suggesting improvements
  - proposing changes to grammar and vocabulary to improve consistency, including the accurate use of pronouns in sentences
 	
- proof-read for spelling and punctuation errors
 	
- read aloud their own writing, to a group or the whole class, using appropriate intonation and controlling the tone and volume so that the meaning is clear.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)
Pupils should continue to have opportunities to write for a range of real purposes and audiences as part of their work across the curriculum. These purposes and audiences should underpin the decisions about the form the writing should take, such as a narrative, an explanation or a description.

Pupils should understand, through being shown these, the skills and processes that are essential for writing: that is, thinking aloud to explore and collect ideas, drafting, and re-reading to check their meaning is clear, including doing so as the writing develops. Pupils should be taught to monitor whether their own writing makes sense in the same way that they monitor their reading, checking at different levels.

Talk for Writing, Talk for Learning, cross-curricular opportunities, guided and shared sessions, use of TA, provision in immersive area, hooks for learning – real-life experiences as far as possible, basing English lessons around a book, self and peer assessment, 5 new words a week

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:
  - extending the range of sentences with more than one clause by using a wider range of conjunctions, including when, if, because, although
  - using the present perfect form of verbs in contrast to the past tense
  - choosing nouns or pronouns appropriately for clarity and cohesion and to avoid repetition
  - using conjunctions, adverbs and prepositions to express time and cause
  - using fronted adverbials
  - learning the grammar for years 3 and 4 in **English Appendix 2**
- indicate grammatical and other features by:
  - using commas after fronted adverbials
  - indicating possession by using the possessive apostrophe with plural nouns
  - using and punctuating direct speech
- use and understand the grammatical terminology in **English Appendix 2** accurately and appropriately when discussing their writing and reading.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

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.

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].

Grammar lessons, Talk for Writing, Talk for Learning, cross-curricular opportunities, guided and shared sessions, use of TA, provision in immersive area, 5 new words a week

English Appendix 1: spelling work: Year 4

Revision of year 1, 2 and 3 work

Pay special attention to the rules for adding suffixes.

New work for year 4

Statutory requirements		Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Words with the /k/ sound spelt ch (Greek in origin)			scheme, chorus, chemist, echo, character
Words with the /ʃ/ sound spelt ch (mostly French in origin)			chef, chalet, machine, brochure
Words ending with the /g/ sound spelt –gue and the /k/ sound spelt –que (French in origin)			league, tongue, antique, unique
Words with the /s/ sound spelt sc (Latin in origin)		In the Latin words from which these words come, the Romans probably pronounced the **c** and the **k** as two sounds rather than one – /s/ /k/.	science, scene, discipline, fascinate, crescent
Words with the /eɪ/ sound spelt ei, eigh, or ey			vein, weigh, eight, neighbour, they, obey

Statutory requirements		Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Possessive apostrophe with plural words		The apostrophe is placed after the plural form of the word; –s is not added if the plural already ends in –s, but *is* added if the plural does not end in –s (i.e. is an irregular plural – e.g. *children's*).	girls', boys', babies', children's, men's, mice's (**Note:** singular proper nouns ending in an *s* use the 's suffix e.g. Cyprus's population)
Homophones and near-homophones			accept/except, affect/effect, ball/bawl, berry/bury, brake/break, fair/fare, grate/great, groan/grown, here/hear, heel/heal/he'll, knot/not, mail/male, main/mane, meat/meet, medal/meddle, missed/mist, peace/piece, plain/plane, rain/rein/reign, scene/seen, weather/whether, whose/who's
The /ʌ/ sound spelt ou		These words should be learnt as needed.	young, touch, double, trouble, country
The /ɪ/ sound spelt y elsewhere than at the end of words		These words should be learnt as needed.	myth, gym, Egypt, pyramid, mystery

Statutory requirements		Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Endings which sound like /ʃən/, spelt –tion, –sion, –ssion, –cian		Strictly speaking, the suffixes are **–ion** and **–ian**. Clues about whether to put **t**, **s**, **ss** or **c** before these suffixes often come from the last letter or letters of the root word. **–tion** is the most common spelling. It is used if the root word ends in **t** or **te**. **–ssion** is used if the root word ends in **ss** or –**mit**. **–sion** is used if the root word ends in **d** or **se**. **Exceptions**: *attend – attention*, *intend – intention.* **–cian** is used if the root word ends in **c** or **cs**.	invention, injection, action, hesitation, completion expression, discussion, confession, permission, admission expansion, extension, comprehension, tension musician, electrician, magician, politician, mathematician

Word list – to be shared between years 3 and 4

accident(ally)

actual(ly)

address

answer

appear

arrive

believe

bicycle

breath

breathe

build

busy/business

calendar

caught

centre

century

certain

circle

complete

consider

continue

decide

describe

different

difficult

disappear

early

earth

eight/eighth

enough

exercise

experience

experiment

extreme

famous

favourite

February

forward(s)

fruit

grammar

group

guard

guide

heard

heart

height

history

imagine

increase

important

interest

island

knowledge

learn

length

library

material

medicine

mention

minute

natural

naughty

notice

occasion(ally)

often

opposite

ordinary

particular

peculiar

perhaps

popular

position

possess(ion)

possible

potatoes

pressure

probably

promise

purpose

quarter

question

recent

regular

reign

remember

sentence

separate

special

straight

strange

strength

suppose

surprise

therefore

though/although

thought

through

various

weight

woman/women

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)
Teachers should continue to emphasise to pupils the relationships between sounds and letters, even when the relationships are unusual. Once root words are learnt in this way, longer words can be spelt correctly, if the rules and guidance for adding prefixes and suffixes are also known.
Examples: *business*: once busy is learnt, with due attention to the unusual spelling of the /i/ sound as 'u', business can then be spelt as **busy + ness**, with the **y** of **busy** changed to **i** according to the rule. *disappear*: the root word *appear* contains sounds which can be spelt in more than one way so it needs to be learnt, but the prefix **dis–** is then simply added to **appear**. Understanding the relationships between words can also help with spelling. Examples: ▪ *bicycle* is *cycle* (from the Greek for *wheel*) with **bi–** (meaning 'two') before it. ▪ *medicine* is related to *medical* so the /s/ sound is spelt as **c**. ▪ *opposite* is related to *oppose*, so the schwa sound in *opposite* is spelt as **o**.

English Appendix 2: vocabulary, grammar and punctuation

Year 4: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Word	The grammatical difference between **plural** and **possessive** –*s* Standard English forms for **verb inflections** instead of local spoken forms [for example, *we were* instead of *we was*, or *I did* instead of *I done*]
Sentence	Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and preposition phrases (e.g. *the teacher* expanded to: *the strict maths teacher with curly hair*) **Fronted adverbials** [for example, <u>*Later that day*</u>, *I heard the bad news.*]
Text	Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme Appropriate choice of **pronoun** or **noun** within and across **sentences** to aid **cohesion** and avoid repetition
Punctuation	Use of inverted commas and other **punctuation** to indicate direct speech [for example, a comma after the reporting clause; end punctuation within inverted commas: *The conductor shouted, "Sit down!"*] **Apostrophes** to mark **plural** possession [for example, *the girl's name*, *the girls' names*] Use of commas after **fronted adverbials**
Terminology for pupils	determiner pronoun, possessive pronoun adverbial

Changes to the Year 4 curriculum

What's gone	What's been added
▪ Identifying presentational features of broadcast texts ▪ Explicit mentions of drama (except performing scripts) ▪ Use of layout, graphics & font for presentation ▪ Keyboard/typing skills	▪ Recognise different forms of poetry ▪ Prepare poetry for performance ▪ Using fronted adverbials ▪ Increased requirements for spelling & grammar ▪ Evaluate, edit & proof-read own writing

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 <u>until she had finished</u>.* [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 ***<u>Year 6</u>***, 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, ***<u>the children</u>*** 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 very competent.* [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>*each*</u> is pronounced /iː/. The digraph <u>*sh*</u> in <u>*shed*</u> 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!*

	determiners such as *the*: for example, most nouns will fit into the frame "The ___ matters/matter." Nouns are sometimes called 'naming words' because they name people, places and 'things'; this is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish nouns from other word classes. For example, prepositions can name places and verbs can name 'things' such as actions. 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.	*My big <u>brother</u> did an amazing <u>jump</u> on his <u>skateboard</u>.* *<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] ▪ *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 phrase with a noun as its head, 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 noun, pronoun or noun phrase that comes straight after the verb, and shows what the verb is acting upon. Objects can be turned into the subject of a passive verb, and cannot be adjectives (contrast with complements).	*Year 2 designed <u>puppets</u>.* [noun acting as object] *I like <u>that</u>.* [pronoun acting as object] 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: /kɔ:t/

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 who** <u>lives near school</u>.* [*who* refers back to *boy*] *The **prize** <u>**that** 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 |