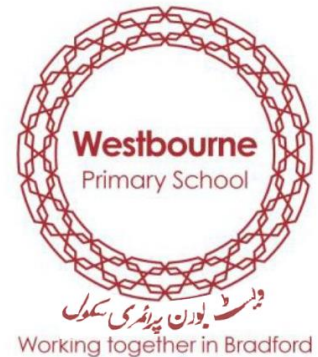


WESTBOURNE PRIMARY SCHOOL

THE ENGLISH CURRICULUM – YEAR 6

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 6 Programme of Study

Reading – word reading

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- apply their growing knowledge of root words, prefixes and suffixes (morphology and etymology), as listed in **English Appendix 1**, both to read aloud and to understand the meaning of new words that they meet.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

At this stage, there should be no need for further direct teaching of word reading skills for almost all pupils. If pupils are struggling or failing in this, the reasons for this should be investigated. It is imperative that pupils are taught to read during their last two years at primary school if they enter year 5 not being able to do so.

Pupils should be encouraged to work out any unfamiliar word. They should focus on all the letters in a word so that they do not, for example, read 'invitation' for 'imitation' simply because they might be more familiar with the first word. Accurate reading of individual words, which might be key to the meaning of a sentence or paragraph, improves comprehension.

When teachers are reading with or to pupils, attention should be paid to new vocabulary – both a word's meaning(s) and its correct pronunciation.

Daily story time, independent reading, guided reading, shared reading across the curriculum, sessions in library both in and out of school, reading at home with home reading card, Year 6 Reading Challenge, Talk for Learning, etc.

Reading – comprehension

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- maintain positive attitudes to reading and understanding of what they read by:
 - continuing to read and discuss an increasingly 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
 - increasing their familiarity with a wide range of books, including myths, legends and traditional stories, modern fiction, fiction from our literary heritage, and books from other cultures and traditions
- recommending books that they have read to their peers, giving reasons for their choices
- identifying and discussing themes and conventions in and across a wide range of writing
- making comparisons within and across books
- learning a wider range of poetry by heart
- preparing poems and plays to read aloud and to perform, showing understanding through intonation, tone and volume so that the meaning is clear to an audience
- understand what they read by:
 - checking that the book makes sense to them, discussing their understanding and exploring the meaning of words in context
 - asking questions to improve their understanding
 - 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
 - summarising the main ideas drawn from more than one paragraph, identifying key details that support the main ideas
 - identifying how language, structure and presentation contribute to meaning
- discuss and evaluate how authors use language, including figurative language, considering the impact on the reader
- distinguish between statements of fact and opinion
- retrieve, record and present information from non-fiction
- participate in discussions about books that are read to them and those they can read for themselves, building on their own and others' ideas and challenging views courteously
- explain and discuss their understanding of what they have read, including through formal presentations and debates, maintaining a focus on the topic and using notes where necessary
- provide reasoned justifications for their views.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Even though pupils can now read independently, reading aloud to them should include whole books so that they meet books and authors that they might not choose to read themselves.

Daily story time, visits to school and other libraries

The knowledge and skills that pupils need in order to comprehend are very similar at different ages. Pupils should continue to apply what they have already learnt to more complex writing.

Guided reading, shared reading, interventions and push groups, cross-curricular opportunities, immersive environment provision

Pupils should be taught to recognise themes in what they read, such as loss or heroism. They should have opportunities to compare characters, consider different accounts of the same event and discuss viewpoints (both of authors and of fictional characters), within a text and across more than one text.

Shared reading, guided reading, provision of books in the immersive environment, daily story time, Think2Read, Talk for Learning, Talk for Writing

They should continue to learn the conventions of different types of writing, such as the use of the first person in writing diaries and autobiographies.

Talk for Learning, Talk for Writing, shared reading, guided reading,

Pupils should be taught the technical and other terms needed for discussing what they hear and read, such as metaphor, simile, analogy, imagery, style and effect.

Guided reading, shared reading, Talk for Learning, grammar lessons, Talk for Writing, 5 new words a week, etc.

In using reference books, pupils need to know what information they need to look for before they begin and need to understand the task. They should be shown how to use contents pages and indexes to locate information.

Guided reading, shared reading, Talk for Learning, ICT, etc.

The skills of information retrieval that are taught should be applied, for example, in reading history, geography and science textbooks, and in contexts where pupils are genuinely motivated to find out information, for example, reading information leaflets before a gallery or museum visit or reading a theatre programme or review. Teachers should consider making use of any library services and expertise to support this.

Talk for Learning, Talk for Writing, guided reading, cross-curricular links, sessions in the library both in and out of school, own research, ICT

Pupils should have guidance about and feedback on the quality of their explanations and contributions to discussions.

Feedback both verbal and written (according to Teaching, Learning and Feedback policy), next steps, Talk for Learning, Talk for Writing, Learning Journey Targets.

Pupils should be shown how to compare characters, settings, themes and other aspects of what they read.

Guided reading, shared reading across the curriculum, Talk for Learning, Talk for Writing, Think2Read, guided reading, etc.

Writing – transcription (spelling)

Statutory requirements

Spelling (see English Appendix 1)

Pupils should be taught to:

- use further prefixes and suffixes and understand the guidance for adding them
- spell some words with ‘silent’ letters [for example, knight, psalm, solemn]
- continue to distinguish between homophones and other words which are often confused
- use knowledge of morphology and etymology in spelling and understand that the spelling of some words needs to be learnt specifically, as listed in **English Appendix 1**
- use dictionaries to check the spelling and meaning of words
- use the first three or four letters of a word to check spelling, meaning or both of these in a dictionary
- use a thesaurus.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

As in earlier years, pupils should continue to be taught to understand and apply the concepts of word structure so that they can draw on their knowledge of morphology and etymology to spell correctly.

Grammar lessons, spellings for homelearning, Talk for Learning, Talk for Writing, guided and shared reading, interventions and push groups etc.,

Handwriting and presentation

Statutory requirements

Handwriting and presentation

Pupils should be taught to:

- write legibly, fluently and with increasing speed by:
 - choosing which shape of a letter to use when given choices and deciding whether or not to join specific letters
 - choosing the writing implement that is best suited for a task.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils should continue to practise handwriting and be encouraged to increase the speed of it, so that problems with forming letters do not get in the way of their writing down what they want to say. They should be clear about what standard of handwriting is appropriate for a particular task, for example, quick notes or a final handwritten version. They should also be taught to use an unjoined style, for example, for labelling a diagram or data, writing an email address, or for algebra and capital letters, for example, for filling in a form.

Follow agreed school handwriting script (English Roundhand – see the Literacy Coordinator if unsure).

By Year 6, **all** children must be using the joined-up, cursive script

Writing – composition

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- plan their writing by:
 - identifying the audience for and purpose of the writing, selecting the appropriate form and using other similar writing as models for their own
 - noting and developing initial ideas, drawing on reading and research where necessary
 - in writing narratives, considering how authors have developed characters and settings in what pupils have read, listened to or seen performed
- draft and write by:
 - selecting appropriate grammar and vocabulary, understanding how such choices can change and enhance meaning
 - in narratives, describing settings, characters and atmosphere and integrating dialogue to convey character and advance the action
 - précising longer passages
 - using a wide range of devices to build cohesion within and across paragraphs
 - using further organisational and presentational devices to structure text and to guide the reader [for example, headings, bullet points, underlining]
- evaluate and edit by:
 - assessing the effectiveness of their own and others' writing
 - proposing changes to vocabulary, grammar and punctuation to enhance effects and clarify meaning
 - ensuring the consistent and correct use of tense throughout a piece of writing
 - ensuring correct subject and verb agreement when using singular and plural, distinguishing between the language of speech and writing and choosing the appropriate register
- proof-read for spelling and punctuation errors
- perform their own compositions, using appropriate intonation, volume, and movement so that meaning is clear.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils should understand, through being shown, the skills and processes essential for writing: that is, thinking aloud to generate ideas, drafting, and re-reading to check that the meaning is clear.

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, intervention and push groups, etc.

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:
 - recognising vocabulary and structures that are appropriate for formal speech and writing, including subjunctive forms
 - using passive verbs to affect the presentation of information in a sentence
 - using the perfect form of verbs to mark relationships of time and cause
 - using expanded noun phrases to convey complicated information concisely
 - using modal verbs or adverbs to indicate degrees of possibility
 - using relative clauses beginning with who, which, where, when, whose, that or with an implied (i.e. omitted) relative pronoun
 - learning the grammar for years 5 and 6 in **English Appendix 2**
- indicate grammatical and other features by:
 - using commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity in writing
 - using hyphens to avoid ambiguity
 - using brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis
 - using semi-colons, colons or dashes to mark boundaries between independent clauses
 - using a colon to introduce a list
 - punctuating bullet points consistently
- use and understand the grammatical terminology in **English Appendix 2** accurately and appropriately in discussing their writing and reading.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils should continue to add to their knowledge of linguistic terms, including those to describe grammar, so that they can discuss their writing and reading.

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 6

Revise work done in previous years

New work for year 6

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Homophones and other words that are often confused	<p>In the pairs of words opposite, nouns end –ce and verbs end –se. <i>Advice</i> and <i>advise</i> provide a useful clue as the word <i>advise</i> (verb) is pronounced with a /z/ sound – which could not be spelt c.</p> <p><u>More examples:</u></p> <p>aisle: a gangway between seats (in a church, train, plane). isle: an island. aloud: out loud. allowed: permitted. affect: usually a verb (e.g. <i>The weather may affect our plans</i>). effect: usually a noun (e.g. <i>It may have an effect on our plans</i>). If a verb, it means ‘bring about’ (e.g. <i>He will effect changes in the running of the business</i>). altar: a table-like piece of furniture in a church. alter: to change. ascent: the act of ascending (going up). assent: to agree/agreement (verb and noun). bridal: to do with a bride at a wedding. bridle: reins etc. for controlling a horse. cereal: made from grain (e.g. breakfast cereal). serial: adjective from the noun <i>series</i> – a succession of things one after the other. compliment: to make nice remarks about someone (verb) or the remark that is made (noun). complement: related to the word <i>complete</i> – to make something complete or more complete (e.g. <i>her scarf complemented her outfit</i>).</p>	<p>advice/advise device/devise licence/license practice/practise prophecy/prophesy</p> <p>farther: further father: a male parent guessed: past tense of the verb <i>guess</i> guest: visitor heard: past tense of the verb <i>hear</i> herd: a group of animals led: past tense of the verb <i>lead</i> lead: present tense of that verb, or else the metal which is very heavy (<i>as heavy as lead</i>) morning: before noon mourning: grieving for someone who has died past: noun or adjective referring to a previous time (e.g. <i>In the past</i>) or preposition or adverb showing place (e.g. <i>he walked past me</i>) passed: past tense of the verb ‘pass’ (e.g. <i>I passed him in the road</i>) precede: go in front of or before proceed: go on</p>

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Homophones and other words that are often confused (continued)	<p>descent: the act of descending (going down).</p> <p>dissent: to disagree/disagreement (verb and noun).</p> <p>desert: as a noun – a barren place (stress on first syllable); as a verb – to abandon (stress on second syllable)</p> <p>dessert: (stress on second syllable) a sweet course after the main course of a meal.</p> <p>draft: noun – a first attempt at writing something; verb – to make the first attempt; also, to draw in someone (e.g. <i>to draft in extra help</i>)</p> <p>draught: a current of air.</p>	<p>principal: adjective – most important (e.g. <i>principal ballerina</i>) noun – important person (e.g. <i>principal of a college</i>)</p> <p>principle: basic truth or belief</p> <p>profit: money that is made in selling things</p> <p>prophet: someone who foretells the future</p> <p>stationary: not moving</p> <p>stationery: paper, envelopes etc.</p> <p>steal: take something that does not belong to you</p> <p>steel: metal</p> <p>wary: cautious</p> <p>weary: tired</p> <p>who's: contraction of <i>who is</i> or <i>who has</i></p> <p>whose: belonging to someone (e.g. <i>Whose jacket is that?</i>)</p>

Word list to be shared between years 5 and 6

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

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Teachers should continue to emphasize 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. Many of the words in the list above can be used for practice in adding suffixes.

Understanding the history of words and relationships between them can also help with spelling.

Examples:

- *Conscience* and *conscious* are related to *science*: *conscience* is simply *science* with the prefix *con-* added. These words come from the Latin word *scio* meaning *I know*.
- The word *desperate*, meaning 'without hope', is often pronounced in English as *desp'rate*, but the *-sper-* part comes from the Latin *spero*, meaning 'I hope', in which the **e** was clearly sounded.
- *Familiar* is related to *family*, so the /ə/ sound in the first syllable of *familiar* is spelt as **a**.

English Appendix 2: vocabulary, grammar and punctuation

Year 6: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Word	<p>The difference between vocabulary typical of informal speech and vocabulary appropriate for formal speech and writing [for example, <i>find out – discover; ask for – request; go in – enter</i>]</p> <p>How words are related by meaning as synonyms and antonyms [for example, <i>big, large, little</i>].</p>
Sentence	<p>Use of the passive to affect the presentation of information in a sentence [for example, <i>I broke the window in the greenhouse versus The window in the greenhouse was broken (by me)</i>].</p> <p>The difference between structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing [for example, the use of question tags: <i>He’s your friend, isn’t he?</i>, or the use of subjunctive forms such as <i>If I <u>were</u></i> or <i><u>Were they</u> to come</i> in some very formal writing and speech]</p>
Text	<p>Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices: repetition of a word or phrase, grammatical connections [for example, the use of adverbials such as <i>on the other hand, in contrast, or as a consequence</i>], and ellipsis</p> <p>Layout devices [for example, headings, sub-headings, columns, bullets, or tables, to structure text]</p>
Punctuation	<p>Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses [for example, <i>It’s raining; I’m fed up</i>]</p> <p>Use of the colon to introduce a list and use of semi-colons within lists</p> <p>Punctuation of bullet points to list information</p> <p>How hyphens can be used to avoid ambiguity [for example, <i>man eating shark versus man-eating shark, or recover versus re-cover</i>]</p>
Terminology for pupils	<p>subject, object</p> <p>active, passive</p> <p>synonym, antonym</p> <p>ellipsis, hyphen, colon, semi-colon, bullet points</p>

Changes to the Year 6 Curriculum

What's gone	What's been added
<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Specific mention of working in groups▪ Specific mention of dramatic skills▪ Creating multi-layered texts	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Preparing poetry for performance▪ Learning poems by heart▪ Formal presentations about reading▪ Précising long passages of writing▪ Greatly detailed grammar specifics

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: <i>The school arranged a visit.</i> Passive: <i>A visit was arranged by the school.</i>
adjective	<p>The surest way to identify adjectives is by the ways they can be used:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ before a noun, to make the noun’s meaning more specific (i.e. to modify the noun), or ▪ after the verb <i>be</i>, as its complement. <p>Adjectives cannot be modified by other adjectives. This distinguishes them from nouns, which can be.</p> <p>Adjectives are sometimes called ‘describing words’ because they pick out single characteristics such as size or colour. This is often true, but it doesn’t help to distinguish adjectives from other word classes, because verbs, nouns and adverbs can do the same thing.</p>	<p><i>The pupils did some really <u>good</u> work.</i> [adjective used before a noun, to modify it]</p> <p><i>Their work was <u>good</u>.</i> [adjective used after the verb <i>be</i>, as its complement]</p> <p>Not adjectives: <i>The lamp <u>glowed</u>.</i> [verb] <i>It was such a bright <u>red</u>!</i> [noun] <i>He spoke <u>loudly</u>.</i> [adverb] <i>It was a French <u>grammar</u> book.</i> [noun]</p>
adverb	<p>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.</p> <p>Adverbs are sometimes said to describe manner or time. This is often true, but it doesn’t help to distinguish adverbs from other word classes that can be used as adverbials, such as preposition phrases, noun phrases and subordinate clauses.</p>	<p><i>Usha <u>soon</u> started snoring <u>loudly</u>.</i> [adverbs modifying the verbs <i>started</i> and <i>snoring</i>]</p> <p><i>That match was <u>really</u> exciting!</i> [adverb modifying the adjective <i>exciting</i>]</p> <p><i>We don’t get to play games <u>very</u> often.</i> [adverb modifying the other adverb, <i>often</i>]</p> <p><i><u>Fortunately</u>, it didn’t rain.</i> [adverb modifying the whole clause ‘it didn’t rain’ by commenting on it]</p> <p>Not adverbs:</p>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Usha went <u>up the stairs</u>.</i> [preposition phrase used as adverbial] ▪ <i>She finished her work <u>this evening</u>.</i> [noun phrase used as adverbial] ▪ <i>She finished <u>when the teacher got cross</u>.</i> [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 .	<p><i>The bus leaves <u>in five minutes</u>.</i> [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies <i>leaves</i>]</p> <p><i>She promised to see him <u>last night</u>.</i> [noun phrase modifying either <i>promised</i> or <i>see</i>, according to the intended meaning]</p> <p><i>She worked <u>until she had finished</u>.</i> [subordinate clause as adverbial]</p>
antonym	Two words are antonyms if their meanings are opposites.	<p><i>hot – cold</i></p> <p><i>light – dark</i></p> <p><i>light – heavy</i></p>
apostrophe	<p>Apostrophes have two completely different uses:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ showing the place of missing letters (e.g. <i>I'm</i> for <i>I am</i>) ▪ marking possessives (e.g. <i>Hannah's mother</i>). 	<p><i>I'm going out and I <u>won't</u> be long.</i> [showing missing letters]</p> <p><i><u>Hannah's</u> mother went to town in <u>Justin's</u> car.</i> [marking possessives]</p>
article	The articles <i>the</i> (definite) and <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> (indefinite) are the most common type of determiner .	<i><u>The</u> dog found <u>a</u> bone in <u>an</u> old box.</i>
auxiliary verb	<p>The auxiliary verbs are: <i>be</i>, <i>have</i>, <i>do</i> and the modal verbs. They can be used to make questions and negative statements. In addition:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>be</i> is used in the progressive and passive ▪ <i>have</i> is used in the perfect 	<p><i>They <u>are</u> winning the match.</i> [<i>be</i> used in the progressive]</p> <p><i><u>Have</u> you finished your picture?</i> [<i>have</i> used to make a question, and the perfect]</p> <p><i>No, I <u>don't</u> know him.</i> [<i>do</i> used to make a negative; no other auxiliary is present]</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>do</i> is used to form questions and negative statements if no other auxiliary verb is present 	<p><i>Will you come with me or not?</i> [modal verb <i>will</i> used to make a question about the other person's willingness]</p>
clause	<p>A clause is a special type of <u>phrase</u> whose <u>head</u> is a <u>verb</u>. Clauses can sometimes be complete sentences. Clauses may be <u>main</u> or <u>subordinate</u>.</p> <p>Traditionally, a clause had to have a <u>finite verb</u>, but most modern grammarians also recognise non-finite clauses.</p>	<p><i>It was raining.</i> [single-clause sentence]</p> <p><i>It was raining but we were indoors.</i> [two finite clauses]</p> <p><i>If you are coming to the party, please let us know.</i> [finite subordinate clause inside a finite main clause]</p> <p><i>Usha went upstairs <u>to play on her computer</u>.</i> [non-finite clause]</p>
cohesion	<p>A text has cohesion if it is clear how the meanings of its parts fit together. <u>Cohesive devices</u> can help to do this.</p> <p>In the example, there are repeated references to the same thing (shown by the different style pairings), and the logical relations, such as time and cause, between different parts are clear.</p>	<p>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. The centre has beautiful grounds and <i>a nature trail</i>. During the afternoon, <u>the children</u> will follow <i>the trail</i>.</p>
cohesive device	<p>Cohesive devices are words used to show how the different parts of a text fit together. In other words, they create <u>cohesion</u>.</p> <p>Some examples of cohesive devices are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <u>determiners</u> and <u>pronouns</u>, which can refer back to earlier words ▪ <u>conjunctions</u> and <u>adverbs</u>, which can make relations between words clear ▪ <u>ellipsis</u> of expected words. 	<p><i>Julia's dad bought her a football. <u>The football</u> was expensive!</i> [determiner; refers us back to a particular football]</p> <p><i>Joe was given a bike for Christmas. <u>He</u> liked <u>it</u> very much.</i> [the pronouns refer back to Joe and the bike]</p> <p><i>We'll be going shopping <u>before</u> we go to the park.</i> [<u>conjunction</u>; makes a relationship of time clear]</p> <p><i>I'm afraid we're going to have to wait for the next train. <u>Meanwhile</u>, we could have a cup of tea.</i> [<u>adverb</u>; refers back to the time of waiting]</p> <p><i>Where are you going? [<u> </u>] To school!</i> [ellipsis of the expected</p>

		words <i>I'm going</i> ; links the answer back to the question]
complement	<p>A verb's subject complement adds more information about its subject, and its object complement does the same for its object.</p> <p>Unlike the verb's object, its complement may be an adjective. The verb <i>be</i> normally has a complement.</p>	<p><i>She is <u>our teacher</u></i>. [adds more information about the subject, <i>she</i>]</p> <p><i>They seem very competent</i>. [adds more information about the subject, <i>they</i>]</p> <p><i>Learning makes me <u>happy</u></i>. [adds more information about the object, <i>me</i>]</p>
compound, compounding	<p>A compound word contains at least two root words in its morphology; e.g. <i>whiteboard</i>, <i>superman</i>. Compounding is very important in English.</p>	<p><i>blackbird</i>, <i>blow-dry</i>, <i>bookshop</i>, <i>ice-cream</i>, <i>English teacher</i>, <i>inkjet</i>, <i>one-eyed</i>, <i>bone-dry</i>, <i>baby-sit</i>, <i>daydream</i>, <i>outgrow</i></p>
conjunction	<p>A conjunction links two words or phrases together.</p> <p>There are two main types of conjunctions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ co-ordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>and</i>) link two words or phrases together as an equal pair ▪ subordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>when</i>) introduce a subordinate clause. 	<p><i>James bought a bat <u>and</u> ball</i>. [links the words <i>bat</i> and <i>ball</i> as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>Kylie is young <u>but</u> she can kick the ball hard</i>. [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>Everyone watches <u>when</u> Kyle does back-flips</i>. [introduces a subordinate clause]</p> <p><i>Joe can't practise kicking <u>because</u> he's injured</i>. [introduces a subordinate clause]</p>
consonant	<p>A sound which is produced when the speaker closes off or obstructs the flow of air through the vocal tract, usually using lips, tongue or teeth.</p> <p>Most of the letters of the alphabet represent consonants. Only the letters <i>a</i>, <i>e</i>, <i>i</i>, <i>o</i>, <i>u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent vowel sounds.</p>	<p>/p/ [flow of air stopped by the lips, then released]</p> <p>/t/ [flow of air stopped by the tongue touching the roof of the mouth, then released]</p> <p>/f/ [flow of air obstructed by the bottom lip touching the top teeth]</p> <p>/s/ [flow of air obstructed by the tip of the tongue touching the gum line]</p>
continuous	See progressive	
co-ordinate, co-ordination	Words or phrases are co-ordinated if they are linked as an equal pair by a	<i>Susan <u>and</u> Amra met in a café</i> . [links the words <i>Susan</i> and <i>Amra</i> as an equal pair]

	<p>co-ordinating <u>conjunction</u> (i.e. <i>and, but, or</i>).</p> <p>In the examples on the right, the co-ordinated elements are shown in bold, and the conjunction is underlined.</p> <p>The difference between co-ordination and <u>subordination</u> is that, in subordination, the two linked elements are not equal.</p>	<p><i>They talked <u>and</u> drank tea for an hour.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>Susan got a bus <u>but</u> Amra walked.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p>Not co-ordination: <i>They ate <u>before</u> they met.</i> [<i>before</i> introduces a subordinate clause]</p>
determiner	<p>A determiner specifies a noun as known or unknown, and it goes before any modifiers (e.g. adjectives or other nouns).</p> <p>Some examples of determiners are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <u>articles</u> (<i>the, a or an</i>) ▪ demonstratives (e.g. <i>this, those</i>) ▪ <u>possessives</u> (e.g. <i>my, your</i>) ▪ quantifiers (e.g. <i>some, every</i>). 	<p><u><i>the</i></u> <i>home team</i> [article, specifies the team as known]</p> <p><u><i>a</i></u> <i>good team</i> [article, specifies the team as unknown]</p> <p><u><i>that</i></u> <i>pupil</i> [demonstrative, known]</p> <p><u><i>Julia's</i></u> <i>parents</i> [possessive, known]</p> <p><u><i>some</i></u> <i>big boys</i> [quantifier, unknown]</p> <p>Contrast: <i>home <u>the</u> team, big <u>some</u> boys</i> [both incorrect, because the determiner should come before other modifiers]</p>
digraph	<p>A type of <u>grapheme</u> where two letters represent one <u>phoneme</u>.</p> <p>Sometimes, these two letters are not next to one another; this is called a split digraph.</p>	<p>The digraph <u><i>ea</i></u> in <u><i>each</i></u> is pronounced /i:/. The digraph <u><i>sh</i></u> in <u><i>shed</i></u> is pronounced /ʃ/. The split digraph <u><i>i-e</i></u> in <u><i>line</i></u> is pronounced /aɪ/.</p>
ellipsis	<p>Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.</p>	<p><i>Frankie waved to Ivana and <u>she</u> watched her drive away.</i></p> <p><i>She did it because she wanted to <u>do it</u>.</i></p>
etymology	<p>A word's etymology is its history: its origins in earlier forms of English or other languages, and how its form and meaning have changed. Many words in English have come from Greek, Latin or French.</p>	<p>The word <i>school</i> was borrowed from a Greek word <i>ó-ïëp (skholé)</i> meaning 'leisure'.</p> <p>The word <i>verb</i> comes from Latin <i>verbum</i>, meaning 'word'.</p> <p>The word <i>mutton</i> comes from French <i>mouton</i>, meaning 'sheep'.</p>

<p>finite verb</p>	<p>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.</p> <p>Verbs that are not finite, such as participles or infinitives, cannot stand on their own: they are linked to another verb in the sentence.</p>	<p><i>Lizzie <u>does</u> the dishes every day.</i> [present tense]</p> <p><i>Even Hana <u>did</u> the dishes yesterday.</i> [past tense]</p> <p><i><u>Do</u> the dishes, Naser!</i> [imperative]</p> <p>Not finite verbs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>I have <u>done</u> them.</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>have</i>] ▪ <i>I will <u>do</u> them.</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>will</i>] ▪ <i>I want to <u>do</u> them!</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>want</i>]
<p>fronting, fronted</p>	<p>A word or phrase that normally comes after the verb may be moved before the verb: when this happens, we say it has been 'fronted'. For example, a fronted adverbial is an adverbial which has been moved before the verb.</p> <p>When writing fronted phrases, we often follow them with a comma.</p>	<p><i><u>Before we begin</u>, make sure you've got a pencil.</i></p> <p>[Without fronting: <i>Make sure you've got a pencil before we begin.</i>]</p> <p><i><u>The day after tomorrow</u>, I'm visiting my granddad.</i></p> <p>[Without fronting: <i>I'm visiting my granddad the day after tomorrow.</i>]</p>
<p>future</p>	<p>Reference to future time can be marked in a number of different ways in English. All these ways involve the use of a present-tense verb.</p> <p>See also tense.</p> <p>Unlike many other languages (such as French, Spanish or Italian), English has no distinct 'future tense' form of the verb comparable with its present and past tenses.</p>	<p><i>He <u>will leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>will</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]</p> <p><i>He <u>may leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>may</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]</p> <p><i>He <u>leaves</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>leaves</i>]</p> <p><i>He <u>is going to leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense <i>is</i> followed by <i>going to</i> plus the infinitive <i>leave</i>]</p>
<p>GPC</p>	<p>See grapheme-phoneme correspondences.</p>	
<p>grapheme</p>	<p>A letter, or combination of letters, that corresponds to a single phoneme within a word.</p>	<p>The grapheme <u>t</u> in the words <u>te</u>n, <u>be</u>t and <u>a</u>te corresponds to the phoneme /t/.</p>

		The grapheme <u>ph</u> in the word <i>dolph<u>in</u></i> corresponds to the phoneme /f/.
grapheme-phoneme correspondences	The links between letters, or combinations of letters (<u>graphemes</u>) and the speech sounds (<u>phonemes</u>) 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 <u>see</u> , but... ...it corresponds to the phoneme /z/ in the word <u>easy</u> .
head	See <u>phrase</u> .	
homonym	Two different words are homonyms if they both look exactly the same when written, and sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<i>Has he <u>left</u> yet? Yes – he went through the door on the <u>left</u>.</i> <i>The noise a dog makes is called a <u>bark</u>. Trees have <u>bark</u>.</i>
homophone	Two different words are homophones if they sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<u>hear</u> , <u>here</u> <u>some</u> , <u>sum</u>
infinitive	A verb's infinitive is the basic form used as the head-word in a dictionary (e.g. <i>walk</i> , <i>be</i>). Infinitives are often used: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ after <i>to</i> ▪ after <u>modal verbs</u>. 	<i>I want to <u>walk</u>.</i> <i>I will <u>be</u> quiet.</i>
inflection	When we add <i>-ed</i> to <i>walk</i> , or change <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i> , this change of <u>morphology</u> produces an inflection ('bending') of the basic word which has special grammar (e.g. <u>past tense</u> or <u>plural</u>). In contrast, adding <i>-er</i> to <i>walk</i> produces a completely different word, <i>walker</i> , which is part of the same <u>word family</u> . Inflection is sometimes thought of as merely a change of ending, but, in fact, some words change completely when inflected.	<i>dogs</i> is an inflection of <i>dog</i> . <i>went</i> is an inflection of <i>go</i> . <i>better</i> is an inflection of <i>good</i> .
intransitive verb	A verb which does not need an object in a sentence to complete its meaning is described as intransitive. See ' <u>transitive verb</u> '.	<i>We all <u>laughed</u>.</i> <i>We would like to stay longer, but we must <u>leave</u>.</i>

<p>main clause</p>	<p>A <u>sentence</u> contains at least one <u>clause</u> which is not a <u>subordinate clause</u>; such a clause is a main clause. A main clause may contain any number of subordinate clauses.</p>	<p><u>It was raining but the sun was shining.</u> [two main clauses]</p> <p><u>The man who wrote it told me that it was true.</u> [one main clause containing two subordinate clauses.]</p> <p>She said, "It rained all day." [one main clause containing another.]</p>
<p>modal verb</p>	<p>Modal verbs are used to change the meaning of other <u>verbs</u>. They can express meanings such as certainty, ability, or obligation. The main modal verbs are <i>will, would, can, could, may, might, shall, should, must</i> and <i>ought</i>.</p> <p>A modal verb only has <u>finite</u> forms and has no <u>suffixes</u> (e.g. <i>I sing – he sings</i>, but not <i>I must – he musts</i>).</p>	<p><i>I <u>can</u> do this maths work by myself.</i></p> <p><i>This ride <u>may</u> be too scary for you!</i></p> <p><i>You <u>should</u> help your little brother.</i></p> <p><i>Is it going to rain? Yes, it <u>might</u>.</i></p> <p><i>Canning swim is important.</i> [not possible because <i>can</i> must be finite; contrast: <i>Being able to swim is important</i>, where <i>being</i> is not a modal verb]</p>
<p>modify, modifier</p>	<p>One word or phrase modifies another by making its meaning more specific.</p> <p>Because the two words make a <u>phrase</u>, the 'modifier' is normally close to the modified word.</p>	<p>In the phrase <i>primary-school teacher</i>:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>teacher</i> is modified by <i>primary-school</i> (to mean a specific kind of teacher) ▪ <i>school</i> is modified by <i>primary</i> (to mean a specific kind of school).
<p>morphology</p>	<p>A word's morphology is its internal make-up in terms of <u>root words</u> and <u>suffixes</u> or <u>prefixes</u>, as well as other kinds of change such as the change of <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i>.</p> <p>Morphology may be used to produce different <u>inflections</u> of the same word (e.g. <i>boy – boys</i>), or entirely new words (e.g. <i>boy – boyish</i>) belonging to the same <u>word family</u>.</p> <p>A word that contains two or more root words is a <u>compound</u> (e.g. <i>news+paper, ice+cream</i>).</p>	<p><i>dogs</i> has the morphological make-up: <i>dog + s</i>.</p> <p><i>unhelpfulness</i> has the morphological make-up:</p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;"><i>unhelpful + ness</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ where <i>unhelpful</i> = <i>un + helpful</i> ▪ and <i>helpful</i> = <i>help + ful</i>
<p>noun</p>	<p>The surest way to identify nouns is by the ways they can be used after</p>	<p><i>Our <u>dog</u> bit the <u>burglar</u> on his <u>behind</u>!</i></p>

	<p><u>determiners</u> such as <i>the</i>: for example, most nouns will fit into the frame “The __ matters/matter.”</p> <p>Nouns are sometimes called ‘naming words’ because they name people, places and ‘things’; this is often true, but it doesn’t help to distinguish nouns from other <u>word classes</u>. For example, <u>prepositions</u> can name places and <u>verbs</u> can name ‘things’ such as actions.</p> <p>Nouns may be classified as common (e.g. <i>boy, day</i>) or proper (e.g. <i>Ivan, Wednesday</i>), and also as countable (e.g. <i>thing, boy</i>) or non-countable (e.g. <i>stuff, money</i>). These classes can be recognised by the determiners they combine with.</p>	<p><i>My big <u>brother</u> did an amazing <u>jump</u> on his <u>skateboard</u>.</i></p> <p><u>Actions speak louder than <u>words</u>.</u></p> <p>Not nouns:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>He’s <u>behind</u> you!</i> [this names a place, but is a preposition, not a noun] ▪ <i>She can <u>jump</u> so high!</i> [this names an action, but is a verb, not a noun] <p>common, countable: <i>a <u>book</u>, <u>books</u>, two <u>chocolates</u>, one <u>day</u>, fewer <u>ideas</u></i></p> <p>common, non-countable: <i><u>money</u>, some <u>chocolate</u>, less <u>imagination</u></i></p> <p>proper, countable: <i><u>Marilyn</u>, <u>London</u>, <u>Wednesday</u></i></p>
<p>noun phrase</p>	<p>A noun phrase is a <u>phrase</u> with a noun as its <u>head</u>, e.g. <i>some foxes, foxes with bushy tails</i>. Some grammarians recognise one-word phrases, so that <i>foxes are multiplying</i> would contain the noun <i>foxes</i> acting as the head of the noun phrase <i>foxes</i>.</p>	<p><i>Adult <u>foxes</u> can jump.</i> [<i>adult</i> modifies <i>foxes</i>, so <i>adult</i> belongs to the noun phrase]</p> <p><i>Almost all healthy adult foxes in this area can jump.</i> [all the other words help to modify <i>foxes</i>, so they all belong to the noun phrase]</p>
<p>object</p>	<p>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.</p> <p>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>).</p>	<p><i>Year 2 designed <u>puppets</u>.</i> [noun acting as object]</p> <p><i>I like <u>that</u>.</i> [pronoun acting as object]</p> <p>Some people suggested a <u>pretty display</u>. [noun phrase acting as object]</p> <p>Contrast:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>A display was suggested.</i> [object of active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb] ▪ <i>Year 2 designed pretty.</i> [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]

<p>participle</p>	<p>Verbs in English have two participles, called ‘present participle’ (e.g. <i>walking, taking</i>) and ‘past participle’ (e.g. <i>walked, taken</i>).</p> <p>Unfortunately, these terms can be confusing to learners, because:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ they don’t necessarily have anything to do with present or past time ▪ although past participles are used as <u>perfects</u> (e.g. <i>has eaten</i>) they are also used as <u>passives</u> (e.g. <i>was eaten</i>). 	<p><i>He is <u>walking</u> to school.</i> [present participle in a <u>progressive</u>]</p> <p><i>He has <u>taken</u> the bus to school.</i> [past participle in a <u>perfect</u>]</p> <p><i>The photo was <u>taken</u> in the rain.</i> [past participle in a <u>passive</u>]</p>
<p>passive</p>	<p>The sentence <i>It was eaten by our dog</i> is the passive of <i>Our dog ate it</i>. A passive is recognisable from:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ the past <u>participle</u> form <i>eaten</i> ▪ the normal <u>object</u> (<i>it</i>) turned into the <u>subject</u> ▪ the normal subject (<i>our dog</i>) turned into an optional <u>preposition phrase</u> with <i>by</i> as its <u>head</u> ▪ the verb <i>be(was)</i>, or some other verb such as <i>get</i>. <p>Contrast <u>active</u>.</p> <p>A verb is not ‘passive’ just because it has a passive meaning: it must be the passive version of an active verb.</p>	<p><i>A visit was <u>arranged</u> by the school.</i></p> <p><i>Our cat got <u>run</u> over by a bus.</i></p> <p>Active versions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>The school arranged a visit.</i> ▪ <i>A bus ran over our cat.</i> <p>Not passive:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>He received a warning.</i> [past tense, active <i>received</i>] ▪ <i>We had an accident.</i> [past tense, active <i>had</i>]
<p>past tense</p>	<p><u>Verbs</u> in the past tense are commonly used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ talk about the past ▪ talk about imagined situations ▪ make a request sound more polite. <p>Most verbs take a <u>suffix</u> <i>-ed</i>, to form their past tense, but many commonly-used verbs are irregular.</p>	<p><i>Tom and Chris <u>showed</u> me their new TV.</i> [names an event in the past]</p> <p><i>Antonio <u>went</u> on holiday to Brazil.</i> [names an event in the past; irregular past of <i>go</i>]</p> <p><i>I wish I <u>had</u> a puppy.</i> [names an imagined situation, not a situation in the past]</p>

	See also tense .	<i>I <u>was hoping</u> you'd help tomorrow.</i> [makes an implied request sound more polite]
perfect	<p>The perfect form of a verb generally calls attention to the consequences of a prior event; for example, <i>he has gone to lunch</i> implies that he is still away, in contrast with <i>he went to lunch</i>. 'Had gone to lunch' takes a past time point (i.e. when we arrived) as its reference point and is another way of establishing time relations in a text. The perfect tense is formed by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ turning the verb into its past participle inflection ▪ adding a form of the verb <i>have</i> before it. <p>It can also be combined with the progressive (e.g. <i>he has been going</i>).</p>	<p><i>She <u>has downloaded</u> some songs.</i> [present perfect; now she has some songs]</p> <p><i>I <u>had eaten</u> lunch when you came.</i> [past perfect; I wasn't hungry when you came]</p>
phoneme	<p>A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that signals a distinct, contrasting meaning. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ /t/ contrasts with /k/ to signal the difference between <i>tap</i> and <i>cap</i> ▪ /t/ contrasts with /l/ to signal the difference between <i>bought</i> and <i>ball</i>. <p>It is this contrast in meaning that tells us there are two distinct phonemes at work.</p> <p>There are around 44 phonemes in English; the exact number depends on regional accents. A single phoneme may be represented in writing by one, two, three or four letters constituting a single grapheme.</p>	<p>The word <i>cat</i> has three letters and three phonemes: /kæt/</p> <p>The word <i>catch</i> has five letters and three phonemes: /kætʃ/</p> <p>The word <i>caught</i> has six letters and three phonemes: /kɔ:t/</p>

<p>phrase</p>	<p>A phrase is a group of words that are grammatically connected so that they stay together, and that expand a single word, called the ‘head’. The phrase is a <u>noun phrase</u> if its head is a noun, a <u>preposition phrase</u> if its head is a preposition, and so on; but if the head is a <u>verb</u>, the phrase is called a <u>clause</u>. Phrases can be made up of other phrases.</p>	<p><i>She waved to <u>her mother</u>.</i> [a noun phrase, with the noun <i>mother</i> as its head]</p> <p><i>She waved <u>to her mother</u>.</i> [a preposition phrase, with the preposition <i>to</i> as its head]</p> <p><i><u>She waved to her mother</u>.</i> [a clause, with the verb <i>waved</i> as its head]</p>
<p>plural</p>	<p>A plural <u>noun</u> normally has a <u>suffix</u> –s or –es and means ‘more than one’.</p> <p>There are a few nouns with different <u>morphology</u> in the plural (e.g. <i>mice</i>, <i>formulae</i>).</p>	<p><i><u>dogs</u></i> [more than one dog]; <i><u>boxes</u></i> [more than one box]</p> <p><i><u>mice</u></i> [more than one mouse]</p>
<p>possessive</p>	<p>A possessive can be:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ a <u>noun</u> followed by an <u>apostrophe</u>, with or without <i>s</i> ▪ a possessive <u>pronoun</u>. <p>The relation expressed by a possessive goes well beyond ordinary ideas of ‘possession’.</p> <p>A possessive may act as a <u>determiner</u>.</p>	<p><i><u>Tariq’s</u> book</i> [Tariq has the book]</p> <p><i>The <u>boys’</u> arrival</i> [the boys arrive]</p> <p><i><u>His</u> obituary</i> [the obituary is about him]</p> <p><i>That essay is <u>mine</u>.</i> [I wrote the essay]</p>
<p>prefix</p>	<p>A prefix is added at the beginning of a <u>word</u> in order to turn it into another word.</p> <p>Contrast <u>suffix</u>.</p>	<p><i><u>overtake</u>, <u>disappear</u></i></p>
<p>preposition</p>	<p>A preposition links a following <u>noun</u>, <u>pronoun</u> or <u>noun phrase</u> to some other word in the sentence.</p> <p>Prepositions often describe locations or directions, but can describe other things, such as relations of time.</p> <p>Words like <i>before</i> or <i>since</i> can act either as prepositions or as <u>conjunctions</u>.</p>	<p><i>Tom waved goodbye <u>to</u> Christy.</i> <i>She’ll be back <u>from</u> Australia <u>in</u> two weeks.</i></p> <p><i>I haven’t seen my dog <u>since</u> this morning.</i></p> <p>Contrast: <i>I’m going, <u>since</u> no-one wants me here!</i> [conjunction: links two clauses]</p>
<p>preposition phrase</p>	<p>A preposition phrase has a preposition as its head followed by a noun, pronoun or noun phrase.</p>	<p><i>He was <u>in bed</u>.</i></p> <p><i>I met them <u>after the party</u>.</i></p>

<p>present tense</p>	<p><u>Verbs</u> in the present tense are commonly used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ talk about the present ▪ talk about the <u>future</u>. <p>They may take a suffix –s (depending on the <u>subject</u>).</p> <p>See also <u>tense</u>.</p>	<p><i>Jamal <u>goes</u> to the pool every day.</i> [describes a habit that exists now]</p> <p><i>He <u>can</u> swim.</i> [describes a state that is true now]</p> <p><i>The bus <u>arrives</u> at three.</i> [scheduled now]</p> <p><i>My friends <u>are</u> coming to play.</i> [describes a plan in progress now]</p>
<p>progressive</p>	<p>The progressive (also known as the ‘continuous’) form of a <u>verb</u> generally describes events in progress. It is formed by combining the verb’s present <u>participle</u> (e.g. <i>singing</i>) with a form of the verb <i>be</i> (e.g. <i>he was singing</i>). The progressive can also be combined with the <u>perfect</u> (e.g. <i>he has been singing</i>).</p>	<p><i>Michael <u>is singing</u> in the store room.</i> [present progressive]</p> <p><i>Amanda <u>was making</u> a patchwork quilt.</i> [past progressive]</p> <p><i>Usha <u>had been practising</u> for an hour when I called.</i> [past perfect progressive]</p>
<p>pronoun</p>	<p>Pronouns are normally used like <u>nouns</u>, except that:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ they are grammatically more specialised ▪ it is harder to <u>modify</u> them <p>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.</p>	<p><i>Amanda waved to Michael.</i> <i><u>She</u> waved to <u>him</u>.</i></p> <p><i>John’s mother is over there. <u>His</u> mother is over there.</i></p> <p><i>The visit will be an overnight visit.</i> <i><u>This</u> will be an overnight visit.</i></p> <p><i>Simon is the person: Simon broke it. <u>He</u> is the one <u>who</u> broke it.</i></p>
<p>punctuation</p>	<p>Punctuation includes any conventional features of writing other than spelling and general layout: the standard punctuation marks . , ; : ? ! - - () “ ” ‘ ’ , and also word-spaces, capital letters, apostrophes, paragraph breaks and bullet points. One important role of punctuation is to indicate <u>sentence</u> boundaries.</p>	<p><i><u>“I’m going out, Usha, and I won’t be long,” Mum said.</u></i></p>
<p>Received Pronunciation</p>	<p>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</p>	

	<p>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.</p>	
register	<p>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.</p>	<p><i>I regret to inform you that Mr Joseph Smith has passed away.</i> [formal letter]</p> <p><i>Have you heard that Joe has died?</i> [casual speech]</p> <p><i>Joe falls down and dies, centre stage.</i> [stage direction]</p>
relative clause	<p>A relative clause is a special type of <u>subordinate clause</u> that modifies a <u>noun</u>. It often does this by using a relative <u>pronoun</u> such as <i>who</i> or <i>that</i> to refer back to that noun, though the relative pronoun <i>that</i> is often omitted.</p> <p>A relative clause may also be attached to a <u>clause</u>. In that case, the pronoun refers back to the whole clause, rather than referring back to a noun.</p> <p>In the examples, the relative clauses are underlined, and both the pronouns and the words they refer back to are in bold.</p>	<p><i>That’s the boy <u>who lives near school</u>.</i> [<i>who</i> refers back to <i>boy</i>]</p> <p><i>The prize <u>that I won</u> was a book.</i> [<i>that</i> refers back to <i>prize</i>]</p> <p><i>The prize <u>I won</u> was a book.</i> [the pronoun <i>that</i> is omitted]</p> <p><i>Tom broke the game, which annoyed Ali.</i> [<i>which</i> refers back to the whole clause]</p>
root word	<p><u>Morphology</u> breaks words down into root words, which can stand alone, and <u>suffixes</u> or <u>prefixes</u> which can’t. For example, <i>help</i> is the root word for other words in its <u>word family</u> such as <i>helpful</i> and <i>helpless</i>, and also for its <u>inflections</u> such as <i>helping</i>. <u>Compound</u> words (e.g. <i>help-desk</i>) contain two or more root words. When looking in a dictionary, we sometimes have to look for the root word (or words) of the word we are interested in.</p>	<p><i>played</i> [the root word is <i>play</i>]</p> <p><i>unfair</i> [the root word is <i>fair</i>]</p> <p><i>football</i> [the root words are <i>foot</i> and <i>ball</i>]</p>

<p>schwa</p>	<p>The name of a vowel sound that is found only in unstressed positions in English. It is the most common vowel sound in English.</p> <p>It is written as /ə/ in the International Phonetic Alphabet. In the English writing system, it can be written in many different ways.</p>	<p>/ələŋ/ [<u>a</u>long] /bʌtə/ [<u>u</u>tter] /dɒktə/ [<u>o</u>ctor]</p>
<p>sentence</p>	<p>A sentence is a group of <u>words</u> which are grammatically connected to each other but not to any words outside the sentence.</p> <p>The form of a sentence's main clause shows whether it is being used as a statement, a question, a command or an exclamation.</p> <p>A sentence may consist of a single clause or it may contain several clauses held together by subordination or co-ordination. Classifying sentences as 'simple', 'complex' or '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.</p>	<p><u>John went to his friend's house. He stayed there till tea-time.</u></p> <p><i>John went to his friend's house, he stayed there till tea-time.</i> [This is a 'comma splice', a common error in which a comma is used where either a full stop or a semi-colon is needed to indicate the lack of any grammatical connection between the two clauses.]</p> <p><i>You are my friend.</i> [statement] <i>Are you my friend?</i> [question] <i>Be my friend!</i> [command] <i>What a good friend you are!</i> [exclamation]</p> <p><i>Ali went home on his bike to his goldfish and his current library book about pets.</i> [single-clause sentence]</p> <p><i>She went shopping but took back everything she had bought because she didn't like any of it.</i> [multi-clause sentence]</p>
<p>split digraph</p>	<p>See <u>digraph</u>.</p>	
<p>Standard English</p>	<p>Standard English can be recognised by the use of a very small range of forms such as <i>those books, I did it</i> and <i>I wasn't doing anything</i> (rather than their non-Standard equivalents); it is not limited to any particular accent. It is the variety of English which is used, with only minor variation, as a major world language. Some people use Standard English all the time, in all situations</p>	<p><i>I did it because they were not willing to undertake any more work on those houses.</i> [formal Standard English]</p> <p><i>I did it cos they wouldn't do any more work on those houses.</i> [casual Standard English]</p> <p><i>I done it cos they wouldn't do no more work on them houses.</i> [casual non-Standard English]</p>

	<p>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.</p>	
stress	<p>A syllable is stressed if it is pronounced more forcefully than the syllables next to it. The other syllables are unstressed.</p>	<p><i><u>about</u></i> <i><u>visit</u></i></p>
subject	<p>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:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ just before the verb in a statement ▪ just after the auxiliary verb, in a question. <p>Unlike the verb’s object and complement, the subject can determine the form of the verb (e.g. <i><u>I</u> am, <u>you</u> are).</i></p>	<p><i><u>Rula’s mother</u> went out.</i> <i><u>That</u> is uncertain.</i> <i><u>The children</u> will study the animals.</i> <i>Will <u>the children</u> study the animals?</i></p>
subjunctive	<p>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.</p>	<p><i>The school requires that all pupils <u>be</u> honest.</i> <i>The school rules demand that pupils not <u>enter</u> the gym at lunchtime.</i> <i>If Zoë <u>were</u> the class president, things would be much better.</i></p>
subordinate, subordination	<p>A subordinate word or phrase tells us more about the meaning of the word it is subordinate to. Subordination can be thought of as an unequal relationship between a subordinate word and a main word. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ an adjective is subordinate to the noun it modifies ▪ subjects and objects are subordinate to their verbs. 	<p><i><u>big dogs</u> [big is subordinate to dogs]</i> <i><u>Big dogs</u> need <u>long walks</u>. [big dogs and long walks are subordinate to need]</i> <i>We can watch TV <u>when we’ve finished</u>. [when we’ve finished is subordinate to watch]</i></p>

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

	<p>The simple tenses (present and past) may be combined in English with the perfect and progressive.</p>	<p><i>He <u>plans to study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive – future time]</p> <p><i>If he <u>studied</u> tomorrow, he'd see the difference!</i> [past tense – imagined future]</p> <p>Contrast three distinct tense forms in Spanish:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Estudia.</i> [present tense] ▪ <i>Estudió.</i> [past tense] ▪ <i>Estudiará.</i> [future tense]
transitive verb	<p>A transitive verb takes at least one object in a sentence to complete its meaning, in contrast to an intransitive verb, which does not.</p>	<p><i>He <u>loves</u> Juliet.</i></p> <p><i>She <u>understands</u> English grammar.</i></p>
trigraph	<p>A type of grapheme where three letters represent one phoneme.</p>	<p><i>High, pure, patch, hedge</i></p>
unstressed	<p>See stressed.</p>	
verb	<p>The surest way to identify verbs is by the ways they can be used: they can usually have a tense, either present or past (see also future).</p> <p>Verbs are sometimes called ‘doing words’ because many verbs name an action that someone does; while this can be a way of recognising verbs, it doesn’t distinguish verbs from nouns (which can also name actions). Moreover many verbs name states or feelings rather than actions.</p> <p>Verbs can be classified in various ways: for example, as auxiliary, or modal; as transitive or intransitive; and as states or events.</p>	<p><i>He <u>lives</u> in Birmingham.</i> [present tense]</p> <p><i>The teacher <u>wrote</u> a song for the class.</i> [past tense]</p> <p><i>He <u>likes</u> chocolate.</i> [present tense; not an action]</p> <p><i>He <u>knew</u> my father.</i> [past tense; not an action]</p> <p>Not verbs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>The <u>walk</u> to Halina’s house will take an hour.</i> [noun] ▪ <i>All that <u>surfing</u> makes Morwenna so sleepy!</i> [noun]
vowel	<p>A vowel is a speech sound which is produced without any closure or obstruction of the vocal tract.</p> <p>Vowels can form syllables by themselves, or they may combine with consonants.</p>	

	In the English writing system, the letters <i>a, e, i, o, u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent vowels.	
word	<p>A word is a unit of grammar: it can be selected and moved around relatively independently, but cannot easily be split. In punctuation, words are normally separated by word spaces.</p> <p>Sometimes, a sequence that appears grammatically to be two words is collapsed into a single written word, indicated with a hyphen or apostrophe (e.g. <i>well-built, he's</i>).</p>	<p><u>headteacher</u> or <u>head teacher</u> [can be written with or without a space]</p> <p><u>I'm</u> going out.</p> <p><u>9.30 am</u></p>
word class	<p>Every <u>word</u> belongs to a word class which summarises the ways in which it can be used in grammar. The major word classes for English are: <u>noun</u>, <u>verb</u>, <u>adjective</u>, <u>adverb</u>, <u>preposition</u>, <u>determiner</u>, <u>pronoun</u>, <u>conjunction</u>. Word classes are sometimes called 'parts of speech'.</p>	
word family	<p>The <u>words</u> in a word family are normally related to each other by a combination of <u>morphology</u>, grammar and meaning.</p>	<p><i>teach – teacher</i> <i>extend – extent – extensive</i> <i>grammar – grammatical – grammarian</i></p>

