CHURCHWOOD PRIMARY ACADEMY

At Churchwood Everyone Can

YEAR 2 ENGLISH OBJECTIVES	

Spoken Language:

Pupils should be taught to:

a) listen and respond appropriately to adults and their peers
b) ask relevant questions to extend their understanding and knowledge
c) use relevant strategies to build their vocabulary
d) articulate and justify answers, arguments and opinions
e) give well-structured descriptions, explanations and narratives for different purposes, including for expressing feelings
f) maintain attention and participate actively in collaborative conversations, staying on topic and initiating and responding to comments
g) use spoken language to develop understanding
h) speak audibly and fluently
i) participate in discussions, presentations, performances, role play, improvisations and debates
j) gain, maintain and monitor the interest of the listener(s)
k) consider and evaluate different viewpoints
l) Select and use appropriate registers for effective communication.

Word Reading - Recognition:

Pupils should be taught to:

a) continue to apply phonic knowledge and skills as the route to decode words until automatic decoding has become embedded and reading is fluent
b) read accurately by blending the sounds in words that contain the graphemes taught so far, especially recognising alternative sounds for graphemes
c) read accurately words of two or more syllables that contain the same graphemes as above
d) read words containing common suffixes
e) read further common exception words, noting unusual correspondences between spelling and sound and where these occur in the word
f) read most words quickly and accurately, without overt sounding and blending, when they have been frequently encountered
g) read aloud books closely matched to their improving phonic knowledge, sounding out unfamiliar words accurately, automatically and without undue hesitation
h) re-read these books to build up their fluency and confidence in word reading

Reading and listening to whole books, not simply extracts, helps pupils to increase their vocabulary and grammatical knowledge, including their knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar of Standard English. These activities also help them to understand how different types of writing, including narratives, are structured. All these can be drawn on for their writing.

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

Drama and role-play can contribute to the quality of pupils' writing by providing opportunities for pupils to develop and order their ideas through playing roles and improvising scenes in various settings.

Pupils might draw on and use new vocabulary from their reading, their discussions about it (one-to-one and as a whole class) and from their wider experiences.

Reading Comprehension

Pupils should be taught to:

- **develop pleasure in reading, motivation to read, vocabulary and understanding by:**
    - listening to, discussing and expressing views about a wide range of contemporary and classic poetry, stories and non-fiction at a level beyond that at which they can read independently
    - discussing the sequence of events in books and how items of information are related
    - becoming increasingly familiar with and retelling a wider range of stories, fairy stories and traditional tales
    - being introduced to non-fiction books that are structured in different ways
    - recognising simple recurring literary language in stories and poetry
    - discussing and clarifying the meanings of words, linking new meanings to known vocabulary
    - discussing their favourite words and phrases
    - continuing to build up a repertoire of poems learnt by heart, appreciating these and reciting some, with appropriate intonation to make the meaning clear

- **understand both the books that they can already read accurately and fluently and those that they listen to by:**
    - drawing on what they already know or on background information and vocabulary provided by the teacher
    - checking that the text makes sense to them as they read and correcting inaccurate reading
    - making inferences on the basis of what is being said and done
    - answering and asking questions
    - predicting what might happen on the basis of what has been read so far
- **participate in discussion about books, poems and other works that are read to them and those that they can read for themselves, taking turns and listening to what others say**
- e**xplain and discuss their understanding of books, poems and other material, both those that they listen to and those that they read for themselves**

Guidance:

Pupils should monitor what they read, checking that the word they have decoded fits in with what else they have read and makes sense in the context of what they already know about the topic.

The meaning of new words should be explained to pupils within the context of what they are reading, and they should be encouraged to use morphology (such as prefixes) to work out unknown words.

Pupils should learn about cause and effect in both narrative and non-fiction (for example, what has prompted a character's behaviour in a story; why certain dates are commemorated annually). 'Thinking aloud' when reading to pupils may help them to understand what skilled readers do.

Deliberate steps should be taken to increase pupils' vocabulary and their awareness of grammar so that they continue to understand the differences between spoken and written language.

Discussion should be demonstrated to pupils. They should be guided to participate in it and they should be helped to consider the opinions of others. They should receive feedback on their discussions.

Role-play and other drama techniques can help pupils to identify with and explore characters. In these ways, they extend their understanding of what they read and have opportunities to try out the language they have listened to.

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Writing Transcription
Spelling (see spelling list for medium term notes – English Appendix 1) Spelling – separate list
Pupils should be taught to spell by:

    a)   segmenting spoken words into phonemes and representing these by graphemes, spelling many correctly
    b)   learning new ways of spelling phonemes for which one or more spellings are already known, and learn some words with each spelling, including a few common homophones
    c)   learning to spell common exception words
    d)   learning to spell more words with contracted forms
    e)   learning the possessive apostrophe (singular) [for example, the girl's book]
    f)   distinguishing between homophones and near-homophones

- add suffixes to spell longer words, including –ment, –ness, –ful, –less, –ly
- apply spelling rules and guidance, as listed * Spelling List
- write from memory simple sentences dictated by the teacher that include words using the GPCs, common exception words and punctuation taught so far

Handwriting   Pupils should be taught to:

    a)   form lower-case letters of the correct size relative to one another
    b)   start using some of the diagonal and horizontal strokes needed to join letters and understand which letters, when adjacent to one another, are best left not
joined c)   write capital letters and digits of the correct size, orientation and relationship to one another and to lower case letters
    d)   use spacing between words that reflects the size of the letters

Writing Composition
Pupils should be taught to:

- **develop positive attitudes towards and stamina for writing by:**
    a)   writing narratives about personal experiences and those of others (real and fictional)
    b)   writing about real events
    c)   writing poetry
    d)   writing for different purposes
- **consider what they are going to write before beginning by:**
    e)   planning or saying out loud what they are going to write about
    f)   writing down ideas and/or key words, including new vocabulary
    g)   encapsulating what they want to say, sentence by sentence
- **make simple additions, revisions and corrections to their own writing by:**
    h)   evaluating their writing with the teacher and other pupils
    i)   re-reading to check that their writing makes sense and that verbs to indicate time are used correctly and consistently, including verbs in the continuous form
    j)   proof-reading to check for errors in spelling, grammar and punctuation [for example, ends of sentences punctuated correctly]
- **read aloud what they have written with appropriate intonation to make the meaning clear**

Writing Composition: Writing, vocabulary, grammar and punctuation
Pupils should be taught to:

- **develop their understanding of the concepts set out in** English Appendix 2 by (vocabulary, grammar and punctuation) **Separate list**
    a) learning how to use both familiar and new punctuation correctly (see English Appendix 2), including full stops, capital letters, exclamation marks, question marks, commas for lists and apostrophes for contracted forms and the possessive (singular)
- **learn how to use**:
    b) sentences with different forms: statement, question, exclamation, command
    c) expanded noun phrases to describe and specify [for example, the blue butterfly]
    d) the present and past tenses correctly and consistently including the progressive form
    e) subordination (using when, if, that, or because) and co-ordination (using or, and, or but)
    f) the grammar for year 2 in English Appendix 2
    g) some features of written Standard English
- **use and understand the grammatical terminology in** English Appendix 2 in discussing their writing (vocabulary, grammar and punctuation)

CHURCHWOOD PRIMARY ACADEMY

At Churchwood Everyone Can

WORD Year 2	SENTENCE Year 2	TEXT Year 2	PUNCTUATION Year 2
• Formation of **nouns** using **suffixes** such as –ness,–er and by compounding [for example, whiteboard, superman] • Formation of **adjectives** using **suffixes** such as –ful,–less • Use of the **suffixes** –er,–est in **adjectives** and the use of –ly in Standard English to turn adjectives into **adverbs**	**Subordination** (using when, if, that, because) and **co-ordination** (using or, and, but) Expanded **noun phrases** for description and specification [for example, the blue butterfly, plain flour, the man in the moon] **How the grammatical patterns in a sentence indicate its function as a** statement, question, exclamation or command	Correct choice and consistent use of **present tense** and **past tense** throughout writing Use of the **progressive** form of **verbs** in the **present** and **past tense** to mark actions in progress [for example, she is drumming, he was shouting]	Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate **sentences** Commas to separate items in a list **Apostrophes** to mark where letters are missing in spelling and to mark singular possession in nouns [for example, the girl's name]

Terminology – Year 2

- noun, noun phrase
- statement, question, exclamation, command
- compound, suffix
- adjective, adverb, verb
- tense (past, present)
- apostrophe, comma

Year	GRAMMAR Objectives	Example	Terminology	
2	Demarcate sentences using capital letters at the start and full stops, exclamation or question marks at the end.	The endangered animals we are looking at are: tigers, pandas, whales and cheetahs.	Sentence Capital letter Full stop Question mark Exclamation mark	
2	Use commas in making lists	The endangered animals we are looking at are: tigers, pandas, whales and cheetahs.	comma	
2	Use adjectives to describe nouns	The wild tiger, the black bear and the swimming whale.	Noun Adjective	
2	Use conjunctions to join ideas in longer sentences Co-ordination: using 'and', 'or' and 'but' (Compound) Subordination: using 'when', 'where', 'if', 'that' and 'because' (Complex)	Children need to start using compound and complex sentences in their writing: When the tiger came to tea, he ate up all the food and drank up all the water. If another tiger comes to tea, we have some tins of tiger-food.		
2	Use and distinguish past and present text	In a story it is often past tense: The tiger went to the cupboard and took out all the tins. He drank up all the water in the tap. In a description of something which is true now, it is present tense. My favourite colour is red. I like playing princesses and magic games best.	Verb Tense Past Present	
2	Use adjectival phrases to describe nouns	The tiger that came to tea was lovely and gentle.		
2	Use apostrophes for contracted forms – relate this to differences between spoken & written English	Encourage children to write speech in a realistic way, e.g. I don't want to come home!	Apostrophe	

SPELLING LIST – YEAR 2

Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	Notes - planning
Objective The /dʒ/ sound spelt as ge and dge at the end of words, and sometimes spelt as g elsewhere in words before e, i and y	The letter j is never used for the /dʒ/ sound at the end of English words. At the end of a word, the /dʒ/ sound is spelt **-dge** straight after the /æ/, /ɛ/, /ɪ/, /ɒ/, /ʌ/ and /ʊ/ sounds (sometimes called 'short' vowels). After all other sounds, whether vowels or consonants, the /dʒ/ sound is spelt as **-ge** at j the end of a word. In other positions in words, the /dʒ/ sound is often (but not always) spelt as g before e, i, and y. The /dʒ/ sound is always spelt as j	badge, edge, bridge, dodge, fudge age, huge, change, charge, bulge, village gem, giant, magic, giraffe, energy jacket, jar, jog, join, adjust	Notes - planning
The /s/ sound spelt c before e, i and y		race, ice, cell, city, fancy	
The /n/ sound spelt kn and (less often) gn at the beginning of words	**The 'k' and 'g' at the beginning of these words was sounded hundreds of years ago.**	knock, know, knee, gnat, gnaw	
The /r/ sound spelt wr at the beginning of words	This spelling probably also reflects an old pronunciation.	write, written, wrote, wrong, wrap	
The /l/ or /əl/ sound spelt –le at the end of words	The **-le** spelling is the most common spelling for this sound at the end of words.	table, apple, bottle, little, middle	

CHURCHWOOD PRIMARY ACADEMY

Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	Notes - planning
The /l/ or /əl/ sound spelt –el at the end of words	The –**el** spelling is much less common than –**le**. The –**el** spelling is used after **m**, **n**, **r**, **s**, **v**, **w** and more often than not after **s**.	camel, tunnel, squirrel, travel, towel, tinsel	
The /l/ or /əl/ sound spelt –al at the end of words	Not many nouns end in –**al**, but many adjectives do.	metal, pedal, capital, hospital, animal	
Words ending –il	There are not many of these words.	pencil, fossil, nostril	
The /aɪ/ sound spelt –y at the end of words	This is by far the most common spelling for this sound at the end of words.	cry, fly, dry, try, reply, July	
Adding –es to nouns and verbs ending in –y	The **y** is changed to **i** before –**es** is added.	flies, tries, replies, copies, babies, carries	
Adding –ed, –ing, –er and –est to a root word ending in –y with a consonant before it	The **y** is changed to **i** before **–ed**, **–er** and **–est** are added, but not before **–ing** as this would result in **ii**. The only ordinary words with **ii** are *skiing* and *taxiing*.	copied, copier, happier, happiest, cried, replied …**but** copying, crying, replying	
Adding the endings –ing, –ed, –er, –est and –y to words ending in –e with a consonant before it	The **–e** at the end of the root word is dropped before **–ing**, **–ed**, **–er**, **–est**, **–y** or any other suffix beginning with a vowel letter is added. **Exception**: *being*.	hiking, hiked, hiker, nicer, nicest, shiny	
Adding –ing, –ed, –er, –est and –y to words of one syllable ending in a single consonant letter after a single vowel letter	The last consonant letter of the root word is doubled to keep the /æ/, /ɛ/, /ɪ/, /ɒ/ and /ʌ/ sound (i.e. to keep the vowel 'short'). **Exception**: The letter 'x' is never doubled: mixing, mixed, boxer, sixes.	patting, patted, humming, hummed, dropping, dropped, sadder, saddest, fatter, fattest, runner, runny	

CHURCHWOOD PRIMARY ACADEMY

Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	Notes - planning
The /ɔː/ sound spelt a before l and ll	The /ɔː/ sound ('or') is usually spelt as **a** before **l** and **ll**.	all, ball, call, walk, talk, always	
The /ʌ/ sound spelt o		other, mother, ==nothing==, (?) Monday	
The /iː/ sound spelt –ey	The plural of these words is formed by the addition of **–s** (*donkeys, monkeys*, etc.).	key, donkey, monkey, chimney, valley	
The /ɒ/ sound spelt a after w and qu	**a** is the most common spelling for the /ɒ/ ('hot') sound after **w** and **qu**.	want, watch, wander, quantity, squash	
The sound spelt or after w /ɜː/	Not many of these	word, work, worm, world, worth	
The sound spelt ar after w /ɔː/	Not many of these	war, warm, towards	
The /ʒ/ sound spelt s		television, treasure, usual	
The suffixes –ment, –ness, –ful , –less and –ly	If a suffix starts with a consonant letter, it is added straight on to most root words without any change to the last letter of those words. **Exceptions**: (1) argument (2) root words ending in **–y** with a consonant before it but only if the root word has more than one syllable.	enjoyment, sadness, careful, playful, hopeless, plainness (plain + ness), badly merriment, happiness, plentiful, penniless, happily	

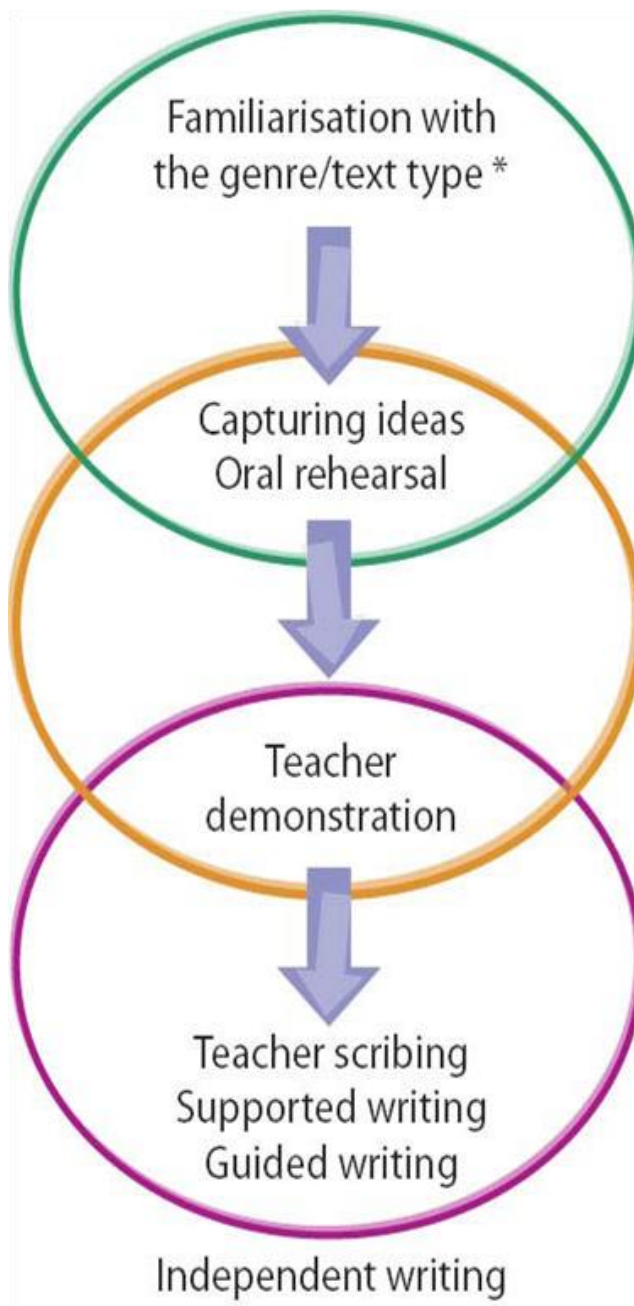| Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	Notes/planning
Contractions	In contractions, the apostrophe shows where a letter or letters would be if the words were written in full (e.g. can't – cannot). It's means it is (e.g. It's raining) or sometimes it has (e.g. It's been raining), but it's is never used for the possessive.	can't, didn't, hasn't, couldn't, it's, I'll	
The possessive apostrophe (singular nouns)		Megan's Ravi's the girl's the child's the man's	
Words ending in '-tion		Station, fiction, motion, national, section	
Homophones and near-homophones	It is important to know the difference in meaning between homophones.	there/their/they're, here/hear, quite/quiet, see/sea, bare/bear, one/won, sun/son, to/too/two, be/bee, blue/blew, night/knight	
Common exception words	Some words are exceptions in some accents but not in others – e.g. past, last, fast, path and bath are not exceptions in accents where the **a** in these words is pronounced /æ/, as in cat. Great, break and steak are the only common words where the /eɪ/ sound is spelt **ea**.	door, floor, poor, because, find, kind, mind, behind, child, children*, wild, climb, most, only, both, old, cold, gold, hold, told, every, everybody, even, great, break, steak, pretty, beautiful, after, fast, last, past, father, class, grass, pass, plant, path, bath, hour, move, prove, improve, sure, sugar, eye, could, should, would, who, whole, any, many, clothes, busy, people, water, again, half, money, Mr, Mrs, parents, Christmas – and/or others according to programme used. **Note:** 'children' is not an exception to what has been taught so far but is included because of its relationship with 'child'.	

CHURCHWOOD PRIMARY ACADEMY

Writing Progression

Note: In the Punctuation & Terminology columns any terms in bold are a statutory requirement of the National Curriculum

Text Structure	Sentence Construction	Word Structure/Language	Punctuation	Terminology
Consolidate Year 1 list **Introduce:** **Fiction** **Secure use of planning tools:** Story map / story mountain / story grids/ 'Boxing-up' grid (Refer to Story Types grids) **Plan opening around** character(s), setting, time of day and type of weather **Understanding 5 parts to a story with more complex vocabulary** **Opening** e.g. *In a land far away….* *One cold but bright morning…..* **Build-up** e.g. *Later that day* **Problem / Dilemma** e.g. *To his amazement* **Resolution** e.g. *As soon as* **Ending** e.g. *Luckily, Fortunately,* **Ending** should be a section rather than one final sentence e.g. suggest how the main character is feeling in the final situation.	**Consolidate Year 1 list** **Introduce:** **(See Connectives and Sentence Signposts doc.)** **Types of sentences:** Statements Questions Exclamations Commands -**'ly' starters** e.g. *Usually, Eventually, Finally, Carefully, Slowly, …* **Vary openers** to sentences **Embellished simple sentences using:** **adjectives** e.g. *The boys peeped inside the dark cave.* **adverbs** e.g. *Tom ran quickly down the hill.* **Secure use of compound sentences (Coordination)** using connectives: *and/ or / but / so* (coordinating conjunctions) **Complex sentences (Subordination) using:** **Drop in a relative clause:**	**Consolidate Year 1 list** **Introduce:** **Prepositions:** *behind above along before between after* **Alliteration** e.g. *wicked witch* *slimy slugs* **Similes using…like…** e.g. *… like sizzling sausages* *…hot like a fire* **Two adjectives to describe the noun** e.g. *The scary, old woman…* *Squirrels have long, bushy tails.* **Adverbs for description** e.g. *Snow fell gently and covered the cottage in the wood.* **Adverbs for information** e.g. Lift the pot carefully onto	**Consolidate Year 1 list** **Introduce:** **Demarcate sentences:** Capital letters Full stops Question marks Exclamation marks **Commas** to separate items in a list **Comma** after –ly opener e.g. *Fortunately,….Slowly,….* **Speech bubbles /speech marks for direct speech** *Apostrophes to mark contracted forms in spelling* e.g. *don't, can't*	**Consolidate:** **Punctuation** • **Finger spaces** • **Letter** • **Word** • **Sentence** • **Full stops** • **Capital letter** • **Question mark** • **Exclamation mark** • Speech bubble • Bullet points **Singular/ plural** Adjective Verb Connective Alliteration Simile – 'as'/ 'like' **Introduce:** **Apostrophe (contractions and**

Non-Fiction (**Refer to Connectives and Sentence Signposts document for Introduction and Endings**)	**who/which** e.g. Sam, **who** was lost, sat down and cried.	the tray. The river quickly flooded the town.	*Apostrophes to mark singular possession* e.g. *the cat's name*	**singular possession)**

Non-Fiction
(**Refer to Connectives and Sentence Signposts document for Introduction and Endings**)

Introduce:
Secure use of planning tools: Text map / washing line / 'Boxing –up' grid
Introduction:
Heading
Hook to engage reader
Factual statement / definition
Opening question

Middle section(s)
Group related ideas / facts into sections
Sub headings to introduce sentences /sections
Use of lists – what is needed / lists of steps to be taken Bullet points for facts
Diagrams   **Ending**
Make final comment to reader
Extra tips! / Did-you-know? facts / True or false?
The consistent use of **present tense** versus **past tense** throughout texts

Use of the **continuous** form of **verbs** in the **present** and **past tense** to mark actions in progress (e.g. *she is drumming, he was shouting)*

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who/which e.g.
Sam, **who** was lost, sat down and cried.

The Vikings, **who** came from Scandinavia, invaded Scotland.

The Fire of London, **which** started in Pudding Lane, spread quickly.

Additional subordinating conjunctions:
what/while/when/where/ because/ then/so that/ if/to/until
e.g. *While the animals were munching breakfast, two visitors arrived*
*During the Autumn, **when** the weather is cold, the leaves fall off the trees.*

Use long and short sentences:
Long sentences to add description or information. Use short sentences for emphasis.

Expanded noun phrases
e.g. *lots of people, plenty of food*

List of 3 for description
e.g. *He wore old shoes, a dark cloak and a red hat.*

African elephants have long trunks, curly tusks and large ears.

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the tray.
The river quickly flooded the town.

Generalisers for information, e.g.
Most dogs….
Some cats….

Formation of **nouns** using **suffixes** such as –ness, –er

Formation of **adjectives**

using **suffixes** such as –ful, –less

(A fuller list of **suffixes** can be found in the spelling appendix.)

Use of the **suffixes** –er and –est to form comparisons of **adjectives** and **adverbs**

Apostrophes to mark singular possession e.g. *the cat's name*

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singular possession)

Commas for description

'Speech marks'

Suffix

Verb / adverb

Statement question exclamation Command (Bossy verbs)

Tense (past, present, future) ie not in bold

Adjective / noun

Noun phrases

Generalisers

CHURCHWOOD PRIMARY ACADEMY

The Writing Teaching Sequence

Familiarisation with the genre/text type *

Capturing ideas
Oral rehearsal

Teacher demonstration

Teacher scribing
Supported writing
Guided writing

Independent writing

1. English Glossary of Terms

	3. Guidance	4. 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 up the stairs.* [preposition phrase used as adverbial] ▪ *She finished her work this evening.* [noun phrase used as adverbial] ▪ *She finished when the teacher got cross.* [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 in five minutes.* [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies *leaves*] *She promised to see him last night.* [noun phrase modifying either

1. English Glossary of Terms

	3. Guidance	4. Example
		promised or *see,* according to the intended meaning] *She worked until she had finished.* [subordinate clause as adverbial]
antonym	Two words are antonyms if their meanings are opposites.	*hot – cold* *light – dark* *light – heavy*
apostrophe	Apostrophes have two completely different uses: ▪ showing the place of missing letters (e.g. *I'm* for *I am*) ▪ marking <u>possessives</u> (e.g. *Hannah's mother*).	*I'm 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 <u>determiner</u>.	*<u>The</u> dog found <u>a</u> bone in <u>an</u> old box.*
auxiliary verb	The auxiliary <u>verbs</u> are: *be, have, do* and the <u>modal verbs</u>. They can be used to make questions and negative statements. In addition: ▪ *be* is used in the <u>progressive</u> and <u>passive</u> ▪ *have* is used in the <u>perfect</u> ▪ *do* is used to form questions and negative statements if no other auxiliary verb is present	*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] *<u>Will</u> 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 <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>. Traditionally, a clause had to have a <u>finite verb</u>, 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] *<u>If you are coming to the party</u>, 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. <u>Cohesive devices</u> 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	**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*.

CHURCHWOOD PRIMARY ACADEMY

1.   English Glossary of Terms

3. Guidance	4. Example
different parts are clear.	
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. The football was expensive!* [determiner; refers us back to a particular football] *Joe was given a bike for Christmas. He liked it very much.* [the pronouns refer back to Joe and the bike] *We'll be going shopping before 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. Meanwhile, 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 our teacher.* [adds more information about the subject, *she*] *They seem very competent.* [adds more information about the subject, *they*] *Learning makes me happy.* [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 and ball.* [links the words *bat* and *ball* as an equal pair] *Kylie is young but she can kick the ball hard.* [links two clauses as an equal pair] *Everyone watches when Kyle does back-flips.* [introduces a subordinate clause] *Joe can't practise kicking because 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,*	/p/ [flow of air stopped by the lips, then released] /t/ [flow of air stopped by the tongue touching the roof of the mouth,

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	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 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.	**Susan** <u>and</u> **Amra** *met in a café.* [links the words *Susan* and *Amra* as an equal pair] **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 *ea* in *each* is pronounced /iː/. The digraph *sh* in *shed* is pronounced /ʃ/. The split digraph *i–e* in *line* is pronounced /aɪ/.
ellipsis — Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.	*Frankie waved to Ivana and* <u>she</u> *watched her drive away.* *She did it because she wanted to* <u>~~do it~~</u>.
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	The word *school* was borrowed from a Greek word ό÷ïëÞ (*skholé*) meaning 'leisure'.

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	come from Greek, Latin or French.	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.	The grapheme *s* corresponds to the phoneme /s/ in the word *see*, but… …it corresponds to the phoneme /z/ in the word *easy*.

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	In the English writing system, graphemes may correspond to different phonemes in different words.	
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 <u>left</u> yet? Yes – he went through the door on the <u>left</u>.* *The noise a dog makes is called a <u>bark</u>. Trees have <u>bark</u>.*
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. *walk, be*). Infinitives are often used: ▪ after *to* ▪ after modal verbs.	*I want to <u>walk</u>.* *I will <u>be</u> 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 <u>laughed</u>.* *We would like to stay longer, but we must <u>leave</u>.*
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.	*<u>It was raining</u> but <u>the sun was shining</u>.* [two main clauses] *<u>The man</u> **who wrote it** <u>told me</u> **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*.	*I <u>can</u> do this maths work by myself.* *This ride <u>may</u> be too scary for you!*

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	A modal verb only has finite forms and has no suffixes (e.g. *I sing – he sings*, but not *I must – he musts*).	*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 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.	*Our dog bit the burglar on his behind!* *My big brother did an amazing jump on his skateboard.* *Actions speak louder than words.* Not nouns: ▪ *He's behind you!* [this names a place, but is a preposition, not a noun] ▪ *She can jump so high!* [this names an action, but is a verb, not a noun] common, countable: *a book, books, two chocolates, one day, fewer ideas* common, non-countable: *money, some chocolate, less imagination* proper, countable: *Marilyn, London, Wednesday*
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*.	*Adult foxes can jump.* [*adult* modifies *foxes*, so *adult* belongs to the noun phrase] *Almost all healthy adult foxes in this area can jump.* [all the other words

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		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 puppets.* [noun acting as object] *I like that.* [pronoun acting as object] Some people suggested *a pretty display*. [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	*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

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	- talk about imagined situations - make a request sound more polite. Most verbs take a <u>suffix</u> –*ed*, to form their past tense, but many commonly-used verbs are irregular. See also <u>tense</u>.	past of *go*] *I wish I <u>had</u> a puppy.* [names an imagined situation, not a situation in the past] *I <u>was</u> hoping you'd help tomorrow.* [makes an implied request sound more polite]
perfect	The perfect form of a <u>verb</u> 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 <u>participle inflection</u> - adding a form of the verb *have* before it. It can also be combined with the <u>progressive</u> (e.g. *he has been going*).	*She <u>has downloaded</u> some songs.* [present perfect; now she has some songs] *I <u>had eaten</u> 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 <u>grapheme</u>.	The word *cat* has three letters and three phonemes: /kæt/ The word *catch* has five letters and three phonemes: /katʃ/ The word *caught* has six letters and three phonemes: /kɔːt/
phrase	A phrase is a group of words that are grammatically connected so that they stay together, and that expand a single word, called the 'head'. The phrase is a <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.	*She waved to <u>her mother</u>.* [a noun phrase, with the noun *mother* as its head] *She waved <u>to her mother</u>.* [a preposition phrase, with the preposition *to* as its head] *<u>She waved to her mother</u>.* [a clause, with the verb *waved* as its head]
plural	A plural <u>noun</u> normally has a <u>suffix</u> –*s* or –*es* and means 'more than one'.	*<u>dogs</u>* [more than one dog]; *<u>boxes</u>* [more than one box]

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	There are a few nouns with different <u>morphology</u> in the plural (e.g. *mice, formulae*).	*<u>mice</u>* [more than one mouse]
possessive	A possessive can be: ▪ a <u>noun</u> followed by an <u>apostrophe</u>, with or without *s* ▪ a possessive <u>pronoun</u>. The relation expressed by a possessive goes well beyond ordinary ideas of 'possession'. A possessive may act as a <u>determiner</u>.	*<u>Tariq's</u> book* [Tariq has the book] *The <u>boys'</u> arrival* [the boys arrive] *<u>His</u> obituary* [the obituary is about him] *That essay is <u>mine</u>.* [I wrote the essay]
prefix	A prefix is added at the beginning of a <u>word</u> in order to turn it into another word. Contrast <u>suffix</u>.	*<u>over</u>take, <u>dis</u>appear*
preposition	A preposition links a following <u>noun</u>, <u>pronoun</u> or <u>noun phrase</u> to some other word in the sentence. Prepositions often describe locations or directions, but can describe other things, such as relations of time. Words like *before* or *since* can act either as prepositions or as <u>conjunctions</u>.	*Tom waved goodbye <u>to</u> Christy. She'll be back <u>from</u> Australia <u>in</u> two weeks.* *I haven't seen my dog <u>since</u> this morning.* Contrast: *I'm going, <u>since</u> 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 <u>in bed</u>.* *I met them <u>after the party</u>.*
present tense	<u>Verbs</u> in the present tense are commonly used to: ▪ talk about the present ▪ talk about the <u>future</u>. They may take a suffix *–s* (depending on the <u>subject</u>). See also <u>tense</u>.	*Jamal <u>goes</u> to the pool every day.* [describes a habit that exists now] *He <u>can</u> swim.* [describes a state that is true now] *The bus <u>arrives</u> at three.* [scheduled now] *My friends <u>are</u> coming to play.* [describes a plan in progress now]
progressive	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. *singing*) with a form of the verb *be* (e.g. *he was singing*). The progressive can also be combined with the <u>perfect</u> (e.g. *he has been singing*).	*Michael <u>is singing</u> in the store room.* [present progressive] *Amanda <u>was making</u> a patchwork quilt.* [past progressive] *Usha <u>had been practising</u> for an hour when I called.* [past perfect progressive]
pronoun	Pronouns are normally used like <u>nouns</u>, except that: ▪ they are grammatically more specialised	***Amanda** waved to **Michael**.* ***She** waved to **<u>him</u>**.*

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▪ 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.	*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** lives near school.* [*who* refers back to *boy*] *The **prize that** I won was a book.* [*that* refers back to *prize*] *The **prize** I won was a book.* [the pronoun *that* is omitted] ***Tom broke the game, which** annoyed Ali.* [*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	*played* [the root word is *play*] *unfair* [the root word is *fair*] *football* [the root words are *foot* and *ball*]

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	are interested in.	
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/ [_along_] /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 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.	_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]
stress	A syllable is stressed if it is pronounced more forcefully than the syllables next to	_about_

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	it. The other syllables are unstressed.	*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. Subordination is much more common than the equal relationship of co-ordination. See also subordinate clause.	*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*]
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]

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	3. Guidance	4. Example
		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.) The simple tenses (present and past) may be combined in English with the perfect and progressive.	*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] *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.	

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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*