

YEAR 3 and 4
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 Recognition: Reading

Pupils should be taught to:

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

Reading Comprehension – Two sections – Developing positive attitudes in reading and understanding what is read

Pupils should be taught to:

1. **Develop positive attitudes to reading and understanding of what they read by:**
 - a) listening to and discussing a wide range of fiction, poetry, plays, non-fiction and reference books or textbooks
 - b) reading books that are structured in different ways and reading for a range of purposes
 - c) using dictionaries to check the meaning of words that they have read
 - d) increasing their familiarity with a wide range of books, including fairy stories, myths and legends, and retelling some of these orally identifying themes and conventions in a wide range of books
 - e) preparing poems and play scripts to read aloud and to perform, showing understanding through intonation, tone, volume and action
 - f) discussing words and phrases that capture the reader's interest and imagination
 - g) recognising some different forms of poetry [for example, free verse, narrative poetry]

Reading Comprehension**2. understand what they read, in books they can read independently, by:**

- a) checking that the text makes sense to them, discussing their understanding and explaining the meaning of words in context
- b) asking questions to improve their understanding of a text
- c) drawing inferences such as inferring characters' feelings, thoughts and motives from their actions, and justifying inferences with evidence
- d) predicting what might happen from details stated and implied
- e) identifying main ideas drawn from more than one paragraph and summarising these
- f) identifying how language, structure, and presentation contribute to meaning
- g) retrieve and record information from non-fiction
- h) participate in discussion about both books that are read to them and those they can read for themselves, taking turns and listening to what others say

The focus should continue to be on pupils' comprehension as a primary element in reading. The knowledge and skills that pupils need in order to comprehend are very similar at different ages. This is why the programmes of study for comprehension in years 3 and 4 and years 5 and 6 are similar: the complexity of the writing increases the level of challenge.

Pupils should be taught to recognise themes in what they read, such as the triumph of good over evil or the use of magical devices in fairy stories and folk tales.

They should also learn the conventions of different types of writing (for example, the greeting in letters, a diary written in the first person or the use of presentational devices such as numbering and headings in instructions).

Pupils should be taught to use the skills they have learnt earlier and continue to apply these skills to read for different reasons, including for pleasure, or to find out information and the meaning of new words.

Writing Transcription**Spelling (see spelling list for medium term notes - English Appendix 1)****Pupils should be taught to:**

- a) use further prefixes and suffixes and understand how to add them (English Appendix 1 SPELLING LIST)
- b) spell further homophones
- c) spell words that are often misspelt (English Appendix 1 SPELLING LIST)
- d) place the possessive apostrophe accurately in words with regular plurals [for example, girls', boys'] and in words with irregular plurals [for example, children's]
- e) use the first two or three letters of a word to check its spelling in a dictionary
- f) write from memory simple sentences, dictated by the teacher, that include words and punctuation taught so far

Writing Transcription**Handwriting****Pupils should be taught to:**

- a) use the diagonal and horizontal strokes that are needed to join letters and understand which letters, when adjacent to one another, are best left not joined
- b) increase the legibility, consistency and quality of their handwriting [for example, by ensuring that the downstrokes of letters are parallel and equidistant; that lines of writing are spaced sufficiently so that the ascenders and descenders of letters do not touch].

Writing**Vocabulary, Grammar and Punctuation****Pupils should be taught to:**

- **develop their understanding of the concepts set out in the English Appendix List 2 (vocab/grammar/punctuation) by:**
 - a) extending the range of sentences with more than one clause by using a wider range of conjunctions, including when, if, because, although
 - b) using the present perfect form of verbs in contrast to the past tense
 - c) choosing nouns or pronouns appropriately for clarity and cohesion and to avoid repetition
 - d) using conjunctions, adverbs and prepositions to express time and cause
 - e) using fronted adverbials
 - f) learning the grammar for years 3 and 4 in English Appendix 2 WORD, SENTENCE, TEXT, PUNCTUATION, TERMINOLOGY
- **indicate grammatical and other features by:**
 - g) using commas after fronted adverbials
 - h) indicating possession by using the possessive apostrophe with plural nouns
 - i) using and punctuating direct speech
- **use and understand the grammatical terminology in English Appendix 2* accurately and appropriately when discussing their writing and reading**

Writing Composition:

Pupils should be taught to:

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

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

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

WORD Year 3	SENTENCE Year 3	TEXT Year 3	PUNCTUATION Year 3
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Formation of nouns using a range of prefixes [for example super-, anti-, auto-] Use of the forms a or an according to whether the next word begins with a consonant or a vowel [for example, a rock, an open box] Word families based on common words, showing how words are related in form and meaning [for example, solve, solution, solver, dissolve, insoluble] 	Expressing time, place and cause using <ul style="list-style-type: none"> conjunctions [for example, when, before, after, while, so, because], adverbs [for example, then, next, soon, therefore], *prepositions [for example, before, after, during, in, because of] 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Introduction to paragraphs as a way to group related material Headings and sub-headings to aid presentation Use of the present perfect form of verbs instead of the simple past [for example, He has gone out to play contrasted with He went out to play] 	Introduction to inverted commas to punctuate direct speech Terminology for Year 3 preposition conjunction word family, prefix clause, subordinate clause direct speech consonant, consonant letter vowel, vowel letter inverted commas (or 'speech marks')
WORD Year 4	SENTENCE Year 4	TEXT Year 4	PUNCTUATION Year 4
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The grammatical difference between plural and possessive -s Standard English forms for verb inflections instead of local spoken forms [for example, we were instead of we was, or I did instead of I done] 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and preposition phrases (e.g. the teacher expanded to: the strict maths teacher with curly hair) Fronted adverbials [for example, Later that day, I heard the bad news.] 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition Terminology for Year 4 (Previous years and...) determiner pronoun, possessive pronoun adverbial	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of inverted commas and other punctuation to indicate direct speech [for example, a comma after the reporting clause; end punctuation within inverted commas: The conductor shouted, "Sit down!"] Apostrophes to mark plural possession [for example, the girl's name, the girls' names] Use of commas after fronted adverbials

Year	GRAMMAR Objectives	Example	Terminology	Level of Importance*
3	Recognise simple sentences and begin to recognise compound and complex sentences	Encourage children to extend their sentences using joining words (conjunctions). They can join simple sentences (clauses) The boat arrived late and the man walked down the gangway. They can add a subordinate clause to a sentence When the rain stopped, the girls went back to the playground.	Sentence Conjunction	High
3	Use and recognise nouns, adjectives and adjectival phrases	Explain what a noun is, and how an adjective or adjectival phrase can modify the noun: Mrs Coles' house was noisy, loud and messy. Peter and Poppy, who were my age, looked after me very nicely.	Noun Adjective	High
3	Use powerful verbs Introduce the idea of a verb	Explain the concept of a verb and encourage children to use powerful verbs in their writing Not: I went out of the room but I stormed out of the room ... or I plodded out of the room I crept out of the room...	Verb	High
3	Introduce the idea of tense in verbs	Explain the concept of a verb and help children to recognise these. They also relate the tense of verbs used to the type of writing. E.g. narrative is usually past tense, description can be present tense. She ran along the road and saw the robber vanishing down a trapdoor. My friend has red hair, blue eyes and is always telling jokes.	Verb Past tense Present tense	Introduce - to consolidate in Year 4
3	Use dialogue in narrative or in drama	Start by relating speech bubbles to speech marks. Make sure what is inside the speech bubble (marks) is what we or the characters SAY. "I'm hungry!" yelled the big, bad wolf. "Give me some FOOD!"	Inverted commas or speech marks Direct speech	High
3	Extend the range of sentences with more than one clause. Co-ordination: using 'and', 'or' and 'but' (compound) Subordination: using a wider range of conjunctions to add subordinate clauses (complex).	Extend children's use of longer sentences in their writing, so they frequently use sentences with at least one subordinate clause. Use joining words (conjunctions) such as: and, or, but, if, when, where, because, so, although, etc.	Conjunction Clause	High - to learn how to write complex sentences

Year	Grammar Objectives	Examples	Terminology	Level of importance*
4	Use adverbs to modify verbs	Children need to understand that we can not only say that something is done or happened, but also HOW. She went off happily to see her granny. He kicked the ball furiously into the wall.	Adverb	Medium
4	Use conjunctions to express time or cause	Extend children's use of complex sentences by encouraging them to think about how, when, where or why something was done or happened. Dad tripped on the stairs because the cat was lying there. When the film was over, we all went and had a meal. He was certainly still angry so the dogs thought it best to keep out of his sight for a while.	Conjunction Clause Sentence Subordinate clause	High
4	Use prepositions to express time and place	Help children make their writing more interesting by using prepositional phrases. With a heavy heart, the princess put the frog back in the pond. He kicked the ball right over the wall.	Preposition Phrase	High (in terms of chn using such phrases in writing)
4	Person - understanding that writing can be third or first person	Children need to become aware that writing can be 'She did this...' or 'I did this...'. We can write in the 3rd or the 1st person. The dog wandered down the street looking for cats and food. I wandered down the street looking for my dog.	Verb	High
4	Use adverbs and adverbials (prepositional phrases which act as adverbs)	Extend children's understanding of adverbs, showing them how to use a phrase to say HOW something is done or HOW it happened. He spoke crossly and in a loud voice to all the children. The dog ran with the lead in its mouth, down the street.	Adverb	Medium
4	Use commas after or before phrases and clauses	Introduce the idea of a 'short pause' which does not merit a new sentence but does require a comma. Show chn how we can use commas before or after phrases or clauses. After the door slammed, the class sat in total silence. As light as a bird, the glider disappeared into the clouds.	Comma	Medium

Year	Grammar Objectives	Examples	Terminology	Level of importance*
4	Pronouns - using pronouns to avoid repetition or ambiguity and to add clarity and cohesion	<p>Encourage children to use pronouns to help them make sense and be clear:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Avoid repetition: While Sam watched the TV programme. Sam finished making his Lego spaceship. 2. Avoid ambiguity: Mary wanted to help her granny and she was feeling very tired. 3. Add to the cohesion: When she went to bed, Mog was feeling rather full of milk and cat food. 	Pronoun	Medium
4	Use dialogue in narrative or in drama, emphasising the differences between spoken and written speech.	<p>Extend children's use of dialogue, consolidating the use of speech punctuation and ensuring that what is in the speech marks is what is SAID, not what might be written.</p> <p>E.g. We can use contracted forms, and we can use slang...</p> <p>"Give me a break," sneered Tom, "You can't expect me to believe that!"</p> <p>"Ger'off, you're hurting me," Sam told his younger brother.</p>	Inverted commas or speech marks Direct speech	High
4	Use the possessive apostrophe	<p>Use for singular and plural nouns.</p> <p>Joanna's temper was rising fast.</p> <p>He really wanted his brother's football shirt.</p> <p>All the dogs' dinners had been stolen.</p>	Apostrophe	Medium
4	Use fronted adverbials	<p>Extend children's use of adverbs by encouraging them to start their sentences with an adverbial.</p> <p>In total silence, the children tiptoed along the corridor.</p> <p>Without blinking, Max stared into all their yellow eyes.</p>	Adverbial Phrase	Low

SPELLINGS

Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	Objectives from Spell Bank (Y3 and Y4 Objectives)
Adding suffixes beginning with vowel letters to words of more than one syllable	If the last syllable of a word is stressed and ends with one consonant letter which has just one vowel letter before it, the final consonant letter is doubled before any ending beginning with a vowel letter is added. The consonant letter is not doubled if the syllable is unstressed.	forgetting, forgotten, beginning, beginner, prefer, preferred gardening, gardener, limiting, limited, limitation	1, How spellings of verbs alter when 'ing' is added. 2. Investigate and learn how to use spelling pattern 'le' 3. Recognise and spell common prefixes *lots of ideas in Spelling Bank book http://www.schoolslinks.co.uk/SpellingBank.pdf 4. Root Words 5. How words change when adding 'er' or 'est' 6. How words change when 'y' is added 7. Adding 's' to nouns
The /ɪ/ sound spelt y elsewhere than at the end of words	These words should be learnt as needed.	myth, gym, Egypt, pyramid, mystery	
The /ʌ/ sound spelt ou	These words should be learnt as needed.	young, touch, double, trouble, country	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To recognise and spell common prefixes and how these influence word meanings, e.g. un, de, dis, re, pre To use knowledge of prefixes to generate new words from root words, especially antonyms, happy/unhappy, appear/disappear 	<p>Most prefixes are added to the beginning of root words without any changes in spelling, un-, the prefixes dis- and mis- have negative meanings.</p> <p>The prefix in- can mean both 'not' and 'in'/'into'. In the words given here it means 'not'.</p>	<p>dis-: disappoint, disagree, disobey</p> <p>mis-: misbehave, mislead, misspell (mis + spell)</p> <p>in-: inactive, incorrect</p>	

Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	
<p>cont. - Prefixes</p>	<p>Before a root word starting with l, in- becomes il.</p> <p>Before a root word starting with m or p, in- becomes im-.</p> <p>Before a root word starting with r, in- becomes ir-.</p> <p>re- means 'again' or 'back'.</p> <p>sub- means 'under'.</p> <p>inter- means 'between' or 'among'</p> <p>super- means 'above'</p> <p>anti- means 'against'.</p> <p>auto- means 'self' or 'own'.</p>	<p>illegal, illegible</p> <p>immature, immortal, impossible, impatient, imperfect</p> <p>irregular, irrelevant, irresponsible</p> <p>redo, refresh, return, reappear, redecorate</p> <p>sub-: subdivide, subheading, submarine, submerge</p> <p>inter-: interact, intercity, international, interrelated (inter + related)</p> <p>super-: supermarket, superman, superstar</p> <p>anti-: antiseptic, anti-clockwise, antisocial</p> <p>auto-: autobiography, autograph</p>	<p>8. Silent letters</p> <p>9. Compound words</p> <p>10. Suffixes ly, ful, less,</p> <p>11. Apostrophes</p> <p>12. Prefixes, mis, non, ex, co, anti</p> <p>http://www.schoolslinks.co.uk/SpellingBank.pdf</p>

Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	Notes/ Planning:
The suffix -ation	The suffix -ation is added to verbs to form nouns. The rules already learnt still apply	information, adoration, sensation, preparation, admiration	
<p>The suffix -ly</p> <p>To recognise and spell common suffixes and how these influence word meanings, e.g. ly, ful, less (SpellingBank)</p> <p>http://www.schoolslinks.co.uk/SpellingBank.pdf Page 13</p>	<p>The suffix -ly is added to an adjective to form an adverb. The rules already learnt still apply.</p> <p>The suffix -ly starts with a consonant letter, so it is added straight on to most root words.</p> <p>Exceptions:</p> <p>(1) If the root word ends in -y with a consonant letter before it, the y is changed to i, but only if the root word has more than one syllable.</p> <p>(2) If the root word ends with -le, the -le is changed to -ly.</p> <p>(3) If the root word ends with -ic, -ally is added rather than just -ly, except in the word publicly. basically, frantically, dramatically</p> <p>(4) The words truly, duly, wholly.</p>	<p>sadly, completely, usually (usual + ly), finally (final + ly), comically (comical + ly)</p> <p>happily, angrily</p> <p>gently, simply, humbly, nobly</p>	

Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	Notes/ Planning:
<p>Words with endings sounding like /ʒə/or/tʃə/</p>	<p>The ending sounding like /ʒə/ is always spelt -sure.</p> <p>The ending sounding like /tʃə/ is often spelt -ture, but check that the word is not a root word ending in (t)ch with an er ending - e.g.</p>	<p>measure, treasure, pleasure, enclosure</p> <p>creature, furniture, picture, nature, adventure</p> <p>teacher, catcher, richer, stretcher.</p>	
<p>Endings which sound like / ən ʒ/</p>	<p>If the ending sounds like /ʒən/, it is spelt as -sion.</p>	<p>division, invasion, confusion, decision, collision, television</p>	
<p>The suffix -ous</p>	<p>Sometimes the root word is obvious and the usual rules apply for adding suffixes beginning with vowel letters.</p> <p>Sometimes there is no obvious root word.</p> <p>-our is changed to -or before -ous is added.</p> <p>A final 'e' of the root word must be kept if the /dʒ/ sound of 'g' is to be kept.</p> <p>If there is an /i:/ sound before the -ous ending, it is usually spelt as i, but a few words have e.</p>	<p>poisonous, dangerous, mountainous, famous, various</p> <p>tremendous, enormous, jealous</p> <p>humorous, glamorous, vigorous</p> <p>courageous, outrageous</p> <p>serious, obvious, curious hideous, spontaneous, courteous</p>	

Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	Notes/Planning
<p>Endings which sound like /ʃən/, spelt -tion, -sion, -ssion, -cian</p>	<p>Strictly speaking, the suffixes are -ion and -ian. Clues about whether to put t, s, ss or c before these suffixes often come from the last letter or letters of the root word.</p> <p>-tion is the most common spelling. It is used if the root word ends in t or te.</p> <p>-ssion is used if the root word ends in ss or -mit.</p> <p>-sion is used if the root word ends in d or se.</p> <p>Exceptions: attend - attention, intend - intention.</p> <p>-cian is used if the root word ends in c or cs.</p>	<p>invention, injection, action, hesitation, completion</p> <p>expression, discussion, confession, permission, admission</p> <p>expansion, extension, comprehension, tension</p> <p>musician, electrician, magician, politician, mathematician</p>	
<p>Words with the /k/ sound spelt ch (Greek in origin)</p>		<p>scheme, chorus, chemist, echo, character</p>	
<p>Words with the /ʃ/ sound spelt ch (mostly French in origin)</p>		<p>chef, chalet, machine, brochure</p>	
<p>Words ending with the /g/ sound spelt -gue and the /k/ sound spelt -que (French in origin)</p>		<p>league, tongue, antique, unique</p>	

Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	Notes/ Planning:
Words with the /s/ sound spelt sc (Latin in origin)	In the Latin words from which these words come, the Romans probably pronounced the c and the k as two sounds rather than one - /s/ /k/.	science, scene, discipline, fascinate, crescent	
Words with the /ei/ sound spelt ei, eigh, or ey		vein, weigh, eight, neighbour, they, obey	
vein, weigh, eight, neighbour, they, obey	The apostrophe is placed after the plural form of the word; -s is not added if the plural already ends in -s, but is added if the plural does not end in -s (i.e. is an irregular plural - e.g. children's).	girls', boys', babies', children's, men's, mice's (Note: singular proper nouns ending in an s use the 's suffix e.g. Cyprus's population)	
Homophones and near-homophones		accept/except, affect/effect, ball/bawl, berry/bury, brake/break, fair/fare, grate/great, groan/grown, here/hear, heel/heal/he'll, knot/not, mail/male, main/mane, meat/meet, medal/meddle, missed/mist, peace/piece, plain/plane, rain/rein/reign, scene/seen, weather/whether, whose/who's	

Notes and guidance (non-statutory) Examples: business: once busy is learnt, with due attention to the unusual spelling of the /i/ sound as 'u', business can then be spelt as busy + ness, with the y of busy changed to i according to the rule. Disappear: the root word appear contains sounds which can be spelt in more than one way so it needs to be learnt, but the prefix dis- is then simply added to appear. Understanding the relationships between words can also help with spelling. Examples: □ bicycle is cycle (from the Greek for wheel) with bi- (meaning 'two') before it. □ medicine is related to medical so the /s/ sound is spelt as c. □ opposite is related to oppose, so the schwa sound in opposite is spelt as o.

Writing Progression

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

Year 3

Text Structure	Sentence Construction	Word / Language	Punctuation	Terminology
Consolidate Year 2 list Introduce: Fiction Secure use of planning tools: Story map /story mountain / story grids / 'Boxing-up' grid (Refer to Story-Type grids) Plan opening around character(s), setting, time of day and type of weather	Consolidate Year 2 list Introduce: Vary long and short sentences: Long sentences to add description or information. Short sentences for emphasis and making key points e.g. <i>Sam was really unhappy.</i> <i>Visit the farm now.</i>	Consolidate Year 2 list Introduce: Prepositions <i>Next to by the side of</i> <i>In front of during through throughout</i>	Consolidate Year 2 list Introduce: Colon before a list e.g. <i>What you need:</i> Ellipses to keep the reader hanging on	Consolidate: Punctuation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finger spaces • Letter • Word • Sentence • Statement question exclamation Command

<p>Paragraphs to organise ideas into each story part</p> <p>Extended vocabulary to introduce 5 story parts:</p> <p>Introduction –should include detailed description of setting or characters</p> <p>Build-up –build in some suspense towards the problem or dilemma</p> <p>Problem / Dilemma –include detail of actions / dialogue</p> <p>Resolution - should link with the problem</p> <p>Ending – clear ending should link back to the start, show how the character is feeling, how the character or situation has changed from the beginning.</p> <p>Non-Fiction (Refer to Connectives and Sentence Signposts document for Introduction and Endings)</p> <p>Introduce: Secure use of planning tools: e.g. Text map, washing line, ‘Boxing –up’ grid, story grids</p> <p>Paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme</p> <p>Introduction</p>	<p>Embellished simple sentences: Adverb starters to add detail e.g. <i>Carefully, she crawled along the floor of the cave....</i> Amazingly, small insects can....</p> <p>Adverbial phrases used as a ‘where’, ‘when’ or ‘how’ starter (fronted adverbials) <i>A few days ago, we discovered a hidden box.</i> <i>At the back of the eye, is the retina.</i> <i>In a strange way, he looked at me.</i></p> <p>Prepositional phrases to place the action: <i>on the mat; behind the tree, in the air</i></p> <p>Compound sentences (Coordination) using connectives: <i>and/ or / but / so / for /nor / yet</i> (coordinating conjunctions)</p> <p>Develop complex sentences (Subordination) with range of subordinating conjunctions (See Connectives and Sentence Signposts doc.) -‘ing’ clauses as starters e.g. <i>Sighing, the boy finished his homework.</i> <i>Grunting, the pig lay down to sleep.</i></p> <p>Drop in a relative clause using: who/whom/which/whose/</p>	<p><i>because of</i></p> <p>Powerful verbs e.g. <i>stare, tremble, slither</i></p> <p>Boastful Language e.g. <i>magnificent, unbelievable, exciting!</i></p> <p>More specific / technical vocabulary to add detail e.g. <i>A few dragons of this variety can breathe on any creature and turn it to stone immediately.</i></p> <p><i>Drops of rain pounded on the corrugated, tin roof.</i></p> <p>Nouns formed from prefixes e.g. <i>auto... super...anti...</i></p>	<p>Secure use of inverted commas for direct speech</p> <p>Use of commas after fronted adverbials (e.g. <i>Later that day, I heard the bad news.</i>)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Full stops • Capital letter • Question mark • Exclamation mark • Speech bubble • ‘Speech marks’ • Bullet points • Apostrophe (contractions only) • Commas for sentence of 3 - description <p>Singular/ plural Suffix</p> <p>Adjective / noun / Noun phrases Verb / adverb</p> <p>Bossy verbs Tense (past, present, future) Connective Generalisers</p> <p>Alliteration Simile – ‘as’/ ‘like’</p> <p>Introduce:</p>
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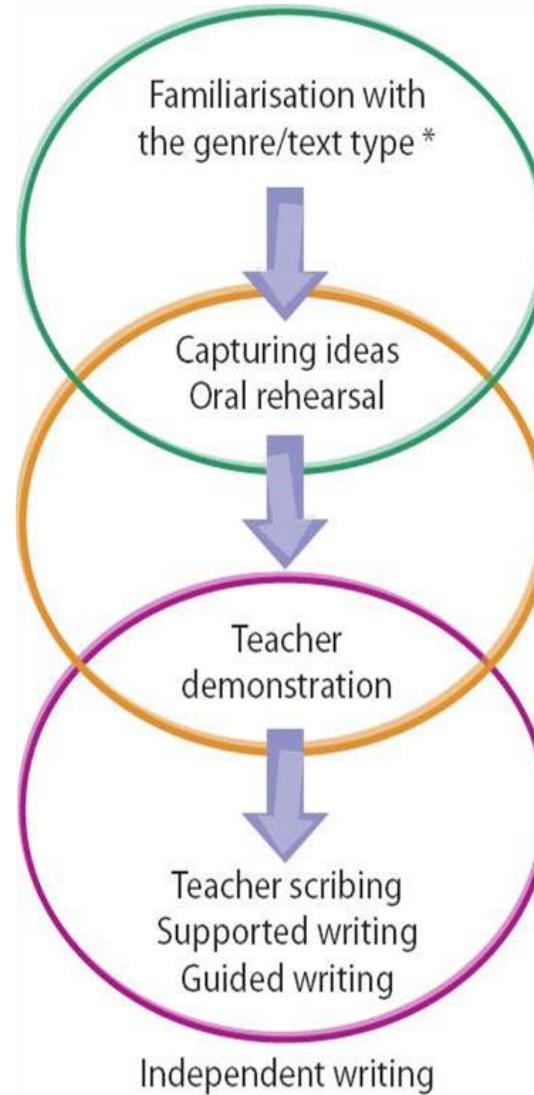
Year 4

Text Structure	Sentence Construction	Word Structure/ Language	Punctuation	Terminology
<p>Consolidate Year 3 list</p> <p>Introduce: Secure use of planning tools: e.g. story map /story mountain /story grids /'Boxing-up' grids (Refer to Story Types grids)</p> <p>Plan opening using: Description /action</p> <p>Paragraphs: to organise each part of story to indicate a change in place or jump in time</p> <p>Build in suspense writing to introduce the dilemma</p> <p>Developed 5 parts to story Introduction Build-up Problem / Dilemma Resolution Ending</p> <p>Clear distinction between</p>	<p>Consolidate Year 3 list</p> <p>Introduce: Standard English for verb inflections instead of local spoken forms</p> <p>Long and short sentences: Long sentences to enhance description or information</p> <p>Short sentences to move events on quickly e.g. <i>It was midnight.</i> <i>It's great fun.</i></p> <p>Start with a simile e.g. <i>As curved as a ball, the moon shone brightly in the night sky.</i> <i>Like a wailing cat, the ambulance screamed down the road.</i></p> <p>Secure use of simple / embellished simple sentences</p> <p>Secure use of compound sentences (Coordination) using coordinating conjunction <i>and / or / but / so / for / nor / yet (coordinating</i></p>	<p>Consolidate Year 3 list</p> <p>Introduce: Prepositions <i>at underneath since towards beneath beyond</i></p> <p>Conditionals - <i>could, should, would</i></p> <p>Comparative and superlative adjectives e.g. <i>small...smaller...smallest</i> <i>good...better...best</i></p> <p>Proper nouns- refers to a particular person or thing e.g. <i>Monday,</i></p>	<p>Consolidate Year 3 list</p> <p>Introduce: Commas to mark clauses and to mark off fronted adverbials</p> <p>Full punctuation for direct speech: Each new speaker on a new line Comma between direct speech and reporting clause e.g. <i>"It's late," gasped Cinderella!</i></p> <p>Apostrophes to mark singular and plural possession (e.g. <i>the girl's name, the boys' boots</i>) as opposed to s to mark a plural</p>	<p>Consolidate:</p> <p>Punctuation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finger spaces • Letter • Word • Sentence • Statement question exclamation Command • Full stops • Capital letter • Question mark • Exclamation mark • Speech bubble • 'Speech marks' • Direct speech • Inverted commas • Bullet points • Apostrophe (contractions only) • Commas for sentence of 3 – description, action • Colon - instructions

<p>resolution and ending. Ending should include reflection on events or the characters.</p> <p>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</p> <p>Paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme Logical organisation Group related paragraphs Develop use of a topic sentence Link information within paragraphs with a range of connectives. Use of bullet points, diagrams</p> <p>Introduction Middle section(s) Ending</p> <p>Ending could Include personal</p>	<p><i>conjunctions)</i></p> <p>Develop complex sentences: (Subordination) Main and subordinate clauses with range of subordinating conjunctions. (See Connectives and Sentence Signposts doc.)</p> <p>-‘ed’ clauses as starters e.g. <i>Frightened, Tom ran straight home to avoid being caught.</i> <i>Exhausted, the Roman soldier collapsed at his post.</i></p> <p>Expanded -‘ing’ clauses as starters e.g. <i>Grinning menacingly, he slipped the treasure into his rucksack.</i> <i>Hopping speedily towards the pool, the frog dived underneath the leaves.</i></p> <p>Drop in -‘ing’ clause e.g. <i>Jane, laughing at the teacher, fell off her chair.</i> <i>The tornado, sweeping across the city, destroyed the houses.</i></p> <p>Sentence of 3 for action e.g. <i>Sam rushed down the road, jumped on the bus and sank into his seat.</i> <i>The Romans enjoyed food, loved marching but</i></p>	<p><i>Jessica, October, England</i></p> <p>The grammatical difference between plural and possessive –s</p> <p>Standard English forms for verb inflections instead of local spoken forms (e.g. <i>we were instead of we was, or I did instead of I done</i>)</p>		<p>Singular/ plural Suffix/ Prefix Word family Consonant/Vowel</p> <p>Adjective / noun / noun phrase Verb / Adverb Bossy verbs - imperative Tense (past, present, future) Connective Conjunction Preposition Determiner/ generaliser Clause Subordinate clause Relative clause Relative pronoun</p> <p>Alliteration Simile – ‘as’/ ‘like’ Synonyms</p> <p>Introduce:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Pronoun ● Possessive pronoun ● Adverbial ● Fronted adverbial ● Apostrophe – plural
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<p>opinion, response, extra information, reminders, question, warning, encouragement to the reader</p> <p>Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun across sentences to aid cohesion</p>	<p><i>hated the weather.</i></p> <p>Repetition to persuade e.g. <i>Find us to find the fun</i></p> <p>Dialogue - verb + adverb - <i>"Hello," she whispered, shyly.</i></p> <p>Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within a sentence to avoid ambiguity and repetition</p>			<p>possession</p>
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The Writing Teaching Sequence



English Glossary of Terms

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]

English Glossary of Terms

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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 .	<i>The bus leaves <u>in five minutes</u>.</i> [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies <i>leaves</i>] <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] <i>She worked <u>until she had finished</u>.</i> [subordinate clause as adverbial]
antonym	Two words are antonyms if their meanings are opposites.	<i>hot - cold</i> <i>light - dark</i> <i>light - heavy</i>
apostrophe	Apostrophes have two completely different uses: <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>). 	<i><u>I'm</u> going out and I <u>won't</u> be long.</i> [showing missing letters] <i><u>Hannah's</u> mother went to town in <u>Justin's</u> car.</i> [marking possessives]
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	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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>be</i> is used in the progressive and passive ▪ <i>have</i> is used in the perfect ▪ <i>do</i> is used to form questions and negative statements if no other auxiliary verb is present 	<i>They <u>are</u> winning the match.</i> [<i>be</i> used in the progressive] <i><u>Have</u> you finished your picture?</i> [<i>have</i> used to make a question, and the perfect] <i>No, I <u>don't</u> know him.</i> [<i>do</i> used to make a negative; no other auxiliary is present] <i><u>Will</u> you come with me or not?</i> [modal verb <i>will</i> used to make a question about the other person's willingness]
clause	A clause is a special type of phrase whose head is a verb . Clauses can sometimes be complete sentences. Clauses may be main or subordinate . Traditionally, a clause had to have a finite verb , but most modern grammarians also recognise non-finite clauses.	<i>It was raining.</i> [single-clause sentence] <i>It was raining but we were indoors.</i> [two finite clauses] <i><u>If you are coming to the party</u>, please let us know.</i> [finite subordinate clause inside a finite main clause]

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Term	Guidance	Example
		<i>Usha went upstairs <u>to play on her computer</u>.</i> [non-finite clause]
cohesion	<p>A text has cohesion if it is clear how the meanings of its parts fit together. Cohesive devices 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 <i>Year 6</i>, to the <i>Mountain Peaks Field Study Centre</i>, leaving school at 9.30am. This is an overnight visit. The centre has beautiful grounds and a <i>nature trail</i>. During the afternoon, <i>the children</i> 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 cohesion.</p> <p>Some examples of cohesive devices are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ determiners and pronouns, which can refer back to earlier words ▪ conjunctions and adverbs, which can make relations between words clear ▪ ellipsis of expected words. 	<p><i>Julia's dad bought her a football. <u>The</u> football 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> [conjunction; 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> [adverb; refers back to the time of waiting]</p> <p><i>Where are you going? [] To school!</i> [ellipsis of the expected words <i>I'm going</i>; links the answer back to the question]</p>
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 <u>competent</u>.</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, superman</i>. Compounding is very important in English.</p>	<p><i>blackbird, blow-dry, bookshop, ice-cream, English teacher, inkjet, one-eyed, bone-dry, baby-sit, daydream, 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 	<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>

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Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>equal pair</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> subordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>when</i>) introduce a subordinate clause. 	<p>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, e, i, o, 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	<p>Words or phrases are co-ordinated if they are linked as an equal pair by a co-ordinating conjunction (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 subordination is that, in subordination, the two linked elements are not equal.</p>	<p><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> <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"> articles (<i>the, a or an</i>) demonstratives (e.g. <i>this, those</i>) possessives (e.g. <i>my, your</i>) 	<p><i><u>the</u> home team</i> [article, specifies the team as known]</p> <p><i><u>a</u> good team</i> [article, specifies the team as unknown]</p> <p><i><u>that</u> pupil</i> [demonstrative, known]</p> <p><i><u>Julia's</u> parents</i> [possessive, known]</p> <p><i><u>some</u> big boys</i> [quantifier, unknown]</p>

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Term	Guidance	Example
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> quantifiers (e.g. <i>some, every</i>). 	Contrast: <i>home <u>the</u> team, big <u>some</u> boys</i> [both incorrect, because the determiner should come before other modifiers]
digraph	A type of grapheme where two letters represent one phoneme . Sometimes, these two letters are not next to one another; this is called a split digraph.	The digraph <u>ea</u> in <u>ea</u> ch is pronounced /i:/. The digraph <u>sh</u> in <u>sh</u> ed is pronounced /ʃ/. The split digraph <u>i-e</u> in <u>li</u> ne is pronounced /aɪ/.
ellipsis	Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.	<i>Frankie waved to Ivana and <u>she</u> watched her drive away.</i> <i>She did it because she wanted to <u>do it</u>.</i>
etymology	A word's etymology is its history: its origins in earlier forms of English or other languages, and how its form and meaning have changed. Many words in English have come from Greek, Latin or French.	The word <i>school</i> was borrowed from a Greek word <i>σχολή</i> (<i>skholē</i>) meaning 'leisure'. The word <i>verb</i> comes from Latin <i>verbum</i> , meaning 'word'. The word <i>mutton</i> comes from French <i>mouton</i> , meaning 'sheep'.
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.	<i>Lizzie <u>does</u> the dishes every day.</i> [present tense] <i>Even Hana <u>did</u> the dishes yesterday.</i> [past tense] <u>Do</u> the dishes, Naser! [imperative] Not finite verbs: <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>]
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.	<i><u>Before we begin</u>, make sure you've got a pencil.</i> [Without fronting: <i>Make sure you've got a pencil before we begin.</i>] <u>The day after tomorrow</u> , I'm visiting my granddad. [Without fronting: <i>I'm visiting my granddad the day after tomorrow.</i>]

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future	<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>
GPC	See grapheme-phoneme correspondences .	
grapheme	A letter, or combination of letters, that corresponds to a single phoneme within a word.	<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> <p>The grapheme <u>ph</u> in the word <u>do</u>l<u>ph</u>in corresponds to the phoneme /f/.</p>
grapheme-phoneme correspondences	<p>The links between letters, or combinations of letters (graphemes) and the speech sounds (phonemes) that they represent.</p> <p>In the English writing system, graphemes may correspond to different phonemes in different words.</p>	<p>The grapheme <u>s</u> corresponds to the phoneme /s/ in the word <u>s</u>ee, but... ...it corresponds to the phoneme /z/ in the word <u>e</u>asy.</p>
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.	<p><i>Has he <u>left</u> yet? Yes - he went through the door on the <u>left</u>.</i></p> <p><i>The noise a dog makes is called a <u>bark</u>. Trees have <u>bark</u>.</i></p>
homophone	Two different words are homophones if they sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<p><i><u>hear</u>, <u>here</u></i></p> <p><i><u>some</u>, <u>sum</u></i></p>
infinitive	<p>A verb's infinitive is the basic form used as the head-word in a dictionary (e.g. <i>walk, be</i>).</p> <p>Infinitives are often used:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ after <i>to</i> ▪ after modal verbs. 	<p><i>I want to <u>walk</u>.</i></p> <p><i>I will <u>be</u> quiet.</i></p>

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inflection	When we add <i>-ed</i> to <i>walk</i> , or change <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i> , 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 <i>-er</i> to <i>walk</i> produces a completely different word, <i>walker</i> , 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.	<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 ' transitive verb '.	<i>We all <u>laughed</u>.</i> <i>We would like to stay longer, but we must <u>leave</u>.</i>
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.	<i><u>It was raining</u> but <u>the sun was shining</u>.</i> [two main clauses] <i><u>The man who wrote it</u> told me <u>that it was true</u>.</i> [one main clause containing two subordinate clauses.] <i>She said, "<u>It rained all day</u>."</i> [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 <i>will</i> , <i>would</i> , <i>can</i> , <i>could</i> , <i>may</i> , <i>might</i> , <i>shall</i> , <i>should</i> , <i>must</i> and <i>ought</i> . A modal verb only has finite forms and has no suffixes (e.g. <i>I sing</i> - <i>he sings</i> , but not <i>I must</i> - <i>he musts</i>).	<i>I <u>can</u> do this maths work by myself.</i> <i>This ride <u>may</u> be too scary for you!</i> <i>You <u>should</u> help your little brother.</i> <i>Is it going to rain? Yes, it <u>might</u>.</i> <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]
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 <i>primary-school teacher</i> . <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).
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 <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i> .	<i>dogs</i> has the morphological make-up: <i>dog</i> + <i>s</i> . <i>unhelpfulness</i> has the morphological make-up:

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Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>Morphology may be used to produce different inflections of the same word (e.g. <i>boy - boys</i>), or entirely new words (e.g. <i>boy - boyish</i>) belonging to the same word family.</p> <p>A word that contains two or more root words is a compound (e.g. <i>news+paper, ice+cream</i>).</p>	<p><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>
noun	<p>The surest way to identify nouns is by the ways they can be used after determiners 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 word classes. For example, prepositions can name places and verbs 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>Our <u>dog</u> bit the <u>burglar</u> on his <u>behind</u>!</i></p> <p><i>My big <u>brother</u> did an amazing <u>jump</u> on his <u>skateboard</u>.</i></p> <p><i><u>Actions</u> speak louder than <u>words</u>.</i></p> <p>Not nouns:</p> <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>
noun phrase	<p>A noun phrase is a phrase with a noun as its head, 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><u>Adult foxes</u> can jump.</i> [<i>adult</i> modifies <i>foxes</i>, so <i>adult</i> belongs to the noun phrase]</p> <p><i><u>Almost all healthy adult foxes in this area</u> can jump.</i> [all the other words help to modify <i>foxes</i>, so they all belong to the noun phrase]</p>
object	<p>An object is normally a noun, pronoun or noun phrase that comes straight after the verb, and shows what the verb is acting upon.</p> <p>Objects can be turned into the subject of a passive verb, and cannot be adjectives (contrast with complements).</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 <u>a 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]

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Term	Guidance	Example
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Year 2 designed pretty. [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]
participle	<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 perfects (e.g. <i>has eaten</i>) they are also used as passives (e.g. <i>was eaten</i>). 	<p><i>He is <u>walking</u> to school.</i> [present participle in a progressive]</p> <p><i>He has <u>taken</u> the bus to school.</i> [past participle in a perfect]</p> <p><i>The photo was <u>taken</u> in the rain.</i> [past participle in a passive]</p>
passive	<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 participle form <i>eaten</i> the normal object (<i>it</i>) turned into the subject the normal subject (<i>our dog</i>) turned into an optional preposition phrase with <i>by</i> as its head the verb <i>be(was)</i>, or some other verb such as <i>get</i>. <p>Contrast active.</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>]
past tense	<p>Verbs 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 suffix <i>-ed</i>, to form their past tense, but many commonly-used verbs are irregular.</p> <p>See also tense.</p>	<p><i>Tom and Chris <u>showed</u> me their new TV.</i> [names an event in the past]</p> <p><i>Antonio <u>went</u> on holiday to Brazil.</i> [names an event in the past; irregular past of <i>go</i>]</p> <p><i>I wish I <u>had</u> a puppy.</i> [names an imagined situation, not a situation in the past]</p> <p><i>I <u>was</u> hoping you'd help tomorrow.</i> [makes an implied request sound more polite]</p>

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Term	Guidance	Example
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/ The word <i>catch</i> has five letters and three phonemes: /kɑːtʃ/ The word <i>caught</i> has six letters and three phonemes: /kɔːt/</p>
phrase	<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 noun phrase if its head is a noun, a preposition phrase if its head is a preposition, and so on; but if the head is a verb, the phrase is called a clause. Phrases can be made up of other phrases.</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>She waved <u>to her mother</u>.</i> [a clause, with the verb <i>waved</i> as its head]</p>
plural	<p>A plural noun normally has a suffix -s or -es and means 'more than one'.</p> <p>There are a few nouns with different morphology 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] <i><u>mice</u></i> [more than one mouse]</p>
possessive	<p>A possessive can be:</p>	<p><i><u>Tariq's</u> book</i> [Tariq has the book]</p>

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Term	Guidance	Example
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ a noun followed by an apostrophe, with or without <i>s</i> ▪ a possessive pronoun. <p>The relation expressed by a possessive goes well beyond ordinary ideas of 'possession'. A possessive may act as a determiner.</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>
prefix	<p>A prefix is added at the beginning of a word in order to turn it into another word.</p> <p>Contrast suffix.</p>	<p><i><u>overtake</u>, <u>disappear</u></i></p>
preposition	<p>A preposition links a following noun, pronoun or noun phrase to some other word in the sentence. Prepositions often describe locations or directions, but can describe other things, such as relations of time.</p> <p>Words like <i>before</i> or <i>since</i> can act either as prepositions or as conjunctions.</p>	<p><i>Tom waved goodbye <u>to</u> Christy. 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>
preposition phrase	<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>
present tense	<p>Verbs in the present tense are commonly used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ talk about the present ▪ talk about the future. <p>They may take a suffix <i>-s</i> (depending on the subject).</p> <p>See also tense.</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>
progressive	<p>The progressive (also known as the 'continuous') form of a verb generally describes events in progress. It is formed by combining the verb's present participle (e.g. <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 perfect (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>
pronoun	<p>Pronouns are normally used like nouns, except that:</p>	<p><i>Amanda waved to Michael.</i></p>

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Term	Guidance	Example
	<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><u>She</u> waved to <u>him</u>.</p> <p>John's mother is over there. <u>His</u> mother is over there.</p> <p>The visit will be an overnight visit. <u>This</u> will be an overnight visit.</p> <p>Simon is the person: <u>Simon</u> broke it. <u>He</u> is the one <u>who</u> broke it.</p>
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 <u>sentence</u> boundaries.	<u>"I'm going out, Usha, and I won't be long," Mum said.</u>
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.	<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 <u>broke the game, which annoyed Ali</u>.</i> [<i>which</i> refers back to the whole clause]</p>
root word	<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	<u>played</u> [the root word is <i>play</i>]

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Term	Guidance	Example
	words in its word family such as <i>helpful</i> and <i>helpless</i> , and also for its inflections such as <i>helping</i> . Compound 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.	<i>unfair</i> [the root word is <i>fair</i>] <i>football</i> [the root words are <i>foot</i> and <i>ball</i>]
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.	/əbɒŋ/ [<i>a</i> long] /bʌtə/ [<i>but</i> ter] /dɒktə/ [<i>doct</i> 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.	<i>John went to his friend's house. He stayed there till tea-time.</i> <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.] <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] <i>Ali went home on his bike to his goldfish and his current library book about pets.</i> [single-clause sentence] <i>She went shopping but took back everything she had bought because she didn't like any of it.</i> [multi-clause sentence]
split digraph	See digraph .	
Standard English	Standard English can be recognised by the use of a very small range of forms such as <i>those books</i> , <i>I did it</i> and <i>I wasn't doing anything</i> (rather than their non-Standard equivalents); it is not limited to any particular accent. It is the variety of English which is used, with only minor variation, as a major world language. Some people use Standard English all the time, in all situations from the most casual to	<i>I did it because they were not willing to undertake any more work on those houses.</i> [formal Standard English] <i>I did it cos they wouldn't do any more work on those houses.</i> [casual Standard English]

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Term	Guidance	Example
	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>I done it cos they wouldn't do no more work on them houses.</i> [casual non-Standard English]
stress	A syllable is stressed if it is pronounced more forcefully than the syllables next to it. The other syllables are unstressed.	<i>about</i> <i>visit</i>
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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ 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>I am</i> , <i>you are</i>).	<i>Rula's mother went out.</i> <i>That is uncertain.</i> <i>The children will study the animals.</i> <i>Will the children study the animals?</i>
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.	<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>
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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ 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 .	<i>big dogs</i> [<i>big</i> is subordinate to <i>dogs</i>] <i>Big dogs need long walks.</i> [<i>big dogs</i> and <i>long walks</i> are subordinate to <i>need</i>] <i>We can watch TV when we've finished.</i> [<i>when we've finished</i> is subordinate to <i>watch</i>]
subordinate clause	A clause which is subordinate to some other part of the same sentence 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 modifies). Subordinate clauses contrast with co-ordinate clauses as in <i>It was sour but looked very tasty</i> . (Contrast: main clause)	<i>That's the street where Ben lives.</i> [relative clause ; modifies <i>street</i>] <i>He watched her as she disappeared.</i> [adverbial ; modifies <i>watched</i>] <i>What you said was very nice.</i> [acts as subject of <i>was</i>]

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Term	Guidance	Example
	However, clauses that are directly quoted as direct speech are not subordinate clauses.	<i>She noticed <u>an hour had passed</u>.</i> [acts as object of <i>noticed</i>] Not subordinate: <i>He shouted, "<u>Look out!</u>"</i>
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 .	<i>call - <u>called</u></i> <i>teach - <u>teacher</u></i> [turns a verb into a noun] <i>terror - <u>terrorise</u></i> [turns a noun into a verb] <i>green - <u>greenish</u></i> [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 .	<i>Cat</i> has one syllable. <i>Fairy</i> has two syllables. <i>Hippopotamus</i> has five syllables.
synonym	Two words are synonyms if they have the same meaning, or similar meanings. Contrast antonym .	<i>talk - speak</i> <i>old - elderly</i>
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 .	<i>He <u>studies</u>.</i> [present tense - present time] <i>He <u>studied</u> yesterday.</i> [past tense - past time] <i>He <u>studies</u> tomorrow, or else!</i> [present tense - future time] <i>He <u>may study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive - future time] <i>He <u>plans to study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive - future time] <i>If he <u>studied</u> tomorrow, he'd see the difference!</i> [past tense - imagined future] Contrast three distinct tense forms in Spanish: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Estudia.</i> [present tense] ▪ <i>Estudió.</i> [past tense] ▪ <i>Estudiará.</i> [future tense]

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Term	Guidance	Example
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.	<i>He <u>loves</u> Juliet.</i> <i>She <u>understands</u> English grammar.</i>
trigraph	A type of grapheme where three letters represent one phoneme .	<i>High, pure, patch, hedge</i>
unstressed	See stressed .	
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] <i>The teacher <u>wrote</u> a song for the class.</i> [past tense] <i>He <u>likes</u> chocolate.</i> [present tense; not an action] <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> <p>In the English writing system, the letters <i>a, e, i, o, u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent vowels.</p>	
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</i>, <i>he's</i>).</p>	<p><i><u>headteacher</u> or <u>head teacher</u></i> [can be written with or without a space] <i><u>I'm</u> going out.</i> <i><u>9.30 am</u></i></p>
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	

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<i>Term</i>	<i>Guidance</i>	<i>Example</i>
	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.	<i>teach - teacher</i> <i>extend - extent - extensive</i> <i>grammar - grammatical - grammarian</i>