

YEAR 1
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:

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

Pupils should revise and consolidate the GPCs and the common exception words taught in Reception. As soon as they can read words comprising the year 1 GPCs accurately and speedily, they should move on to the year 2 programme of study for word reading. The number, order and choice of exception words taught will vary according to the phonics programme being used. Ensuring that pupils are aware of the GPCs they contain, however unusual these are, supports spelling later. Young readers encounter words that they have not seen before much more frequently than experienced readers do, and they may not know the meaning of some of these. Practice at reading such words by sounding and blending can provide opportunities not only for pupils to develop confidence in their decoding skills, but also for teachers to explain the meaning and thus develop pupils' vocabulary.

Reading Comprehension

Pupils should be taught to:

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

Writing Transcription

Spelling (see spelling list for medium term notes - **English Appendix 1 National Curriculum**) Spelling - separate list

Pupils should be taught to spell:

- words containing each of the 40+ phonemes already taught
- common exception words
- the days of the week
- name the letters of the alphabet:
- naming the letters of the alphabet in order
- using letter names to distinguish between alternative spellings of the same sound
- add prefixes and suffixes:
- using the spelling rule for adding -s or -es as the plural marker for nouns and the third person singular marker for verbs
- using the prefix un-
- using -ing, -ed, -er and -est where no change is needed in the spelling of root words [for example, helping, helped, helper, eating, quicker, quickest]
- apply simple spelling rules and guidance, as listed in English Appendix 1
- write from memory simple sentences dictated by the teacher that include words using the GPCs and common exception words taught so far

Handwriting

Pupils should be taught to:

- sit correctly at a table, holding a pencil comfortably and correctly



Word Year 1	SENTENCE Year 1	TEXT Year 1	PUNCTUATION Year 1
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- form digits 0-9
- understand which letters belong to which handwriting 'families' (i.e. letters that are formed in similar ways) and to practise these

Writing Composition

Pupils should be taught to:

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

Writing: Vocabulary, grammar and punctuation

Pupils should be taught to:

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



<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Regular plural noun suffixes -s or -es [for example, dog, dogs; wish, wishes], including the effects of these suffixes on the meaning of the noun• Suffixes that can be added to verbs where no change is needed in the spelling of root words (e.g. helping, helped, helper)• How the prefix un- changes the meaning of verbs and adjectives [negation, for example, unkind, or undoing: untie the boat]	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• How words can combine to make sentences• Joining words and joining clauses using and	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Sequencing sentences to form short narratives	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Separation of words with spaces• Introduction to capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences• Capital letters for names and for the personal pronoun I
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KEY TERMINOLOGY

Year 1

letter, capital letter

word, singular, plural

sentence

punctuation, full stop, question

mark, exclamation mark.



Year	GRAMMAR Objectives	Example	Terminology	Level of importance
1	Using full stops and capital letters to demarcate sentences	We sailed to the land where the wild things are.	Sentence Word Letter Capital letter Full stop	High
1	Use capital letters for proper names	My name is Rosie and I have a dog called Woof.	Name Capital letter	High
1	Using 'and' to join sentences	My name is Emily and I live in Hastings.	Joining words	High
1	Using a question mark at the end of a sentence to indicate a question	Why did Max want to come home?	Question Question mark	Medium
1	Using an exclamation mark at the end of a sentence to indicate an exclamation	There was a terrible mess!	Exclamation Exclamation mark	Medium

SPELLING LIST - YEAR 1
STATUTORY REQUIREMENTS:

The boundary between revision of work covered in Reception and the introduction of new work may vary according to the programme used, but basic revision should include:

- all letters of the alphabet and the sounds which they most commonly represent
- consonant digraphs which have been taught and the sounds which they represent
- vowel digraphs which have been taught and the sounds which they represent
- the process of segmenting spoken words into sounds before choosing graphemes to represent the sounds
- words with adjacent consonants
- guidance and rules which have been taught

Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	Notes/planning
The sounds /f/, /l/, /s/, /z/ and /k/ spelt ff, ll, ss, zz and ck	The /f/, /l/, /s/, /z/ and /k/ sounds are usually spelt as ff, ll, ss, zz and ck if they come straight after a single vowel letter in short words. Exceptions: if, pal, us, bus, yes.	off, well, miss, buzz, back	
The /ŋ/ sound spelt n before k		bank, think, honk, sunk	
Division of words into syllables	Each syllable is like a 'beat' in the spoken word. Words of more than one syllable often have an unstressed syllable in which the vowel sound is unclear.	pocket, rabbit, carrot, thunder, sunset	
-tch	The /tʃ/ sound is usually spelt as tch if it comes straight after a single vowel letter. Exceptions: rich, which, much, such.	catch, fetch, kitchen, notch, hutch	
Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	Notes/planning
The /v/ sound at the end of	English words hardly ever end with the letter	have, live, give	

words	v, so if a word ends with a /v/ sound, the letter e usually needs to be added after the 'v'.		
Adding s and es to words (plural of nouns and the third person singular of verbs)	If the ending sounds like /s/ or /z/, it is spelt as -s. If the ending sounds like /ɪz/ and forms an extra syllable or 'beat' in the word, it is spelt as -es.	cats, dogs, spends, rocks, thanks, catches	
Adding the endings -ing, -ed and -er to verbs where no change is needed to the root word	-ing and -er always add an extra syllable to the word and -ed sometimes does. The past tense of some verbs may sound as if it ends in /ɪd/ (extra syllable), /d/ or /t/ (no extra syllable), but all these endings are spelt -ed. If the verb ends in two consonant letters (the same or different), the ending is simply added on.	hunting, hunted, hunter, buzzing, buzzed, buzzer, jumping, jumped, jumper	
Adding -er and -est to adjectives where no change is needed to the root word	As with verbs (see above), if the adjective ends in two consonant letters (the same or different), the ending is simply added on.	grander, grandest, fresher, freshest, quicker, quickest	
Words ending -y (/i:/ or / /)		very, happy, funny, party, family	
New consonant spellings ph and wh	The /f/ sound is not usually spelt as ph in short everyday words (e.g. fat, fill, fun).	dolphin, alphabet, phonics, elephant when, where, which, wheel, while	
Using k for the /k/ sound	The /k/ sound is spelt as k rather than as c before e, i and y.	Kent, sketch, kit, skin, frisky	
Objective	Rules and Guidance	Examples	
Adding the prefix -un	The prefix un- is added to the beginning of a word without any change to the spelling of the root word.	unhappy, undo, unload, unfair, unlock	

Compound words	Compound words are two words joined together. Each part of the longer word is spelt as it would be if it were on its own.	football, playground, farmyard, bedroom, blackberry	
Common exception words	Pupils' attention should be drawn to the grapheme-phoneme correspondences that do and do not fit in with what has been taught so far.	the, a, do, to, today, of, said, says, are, were, was, is, his, has, I, you, your, they, be, he, me, she, we, no, go, so, by, my, here, there, where, love, come, some, one, once, ask, friend, school, put, push, pull, full, house, our - and/or others, according to the programme used	

Writing Progression

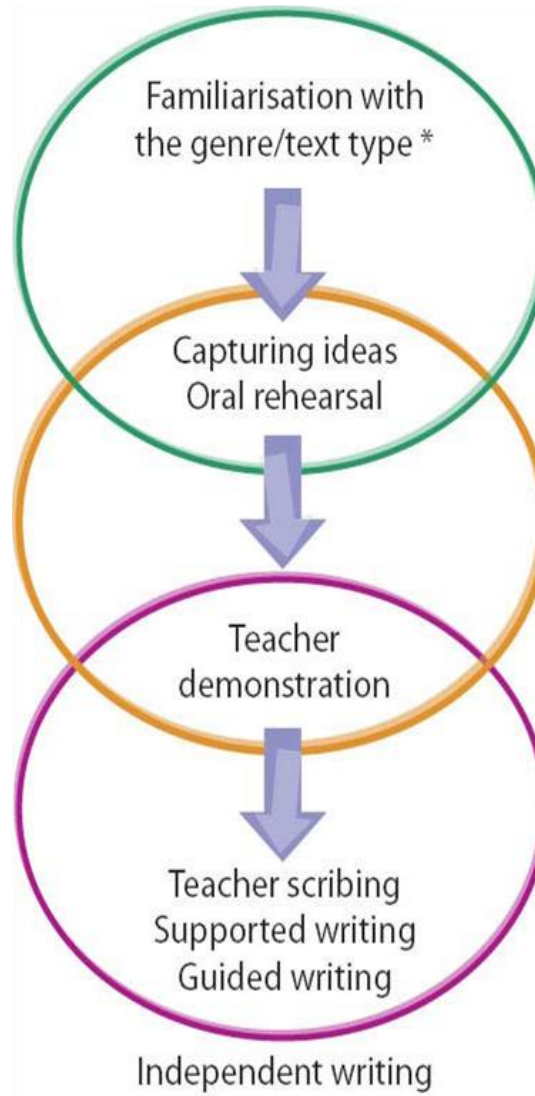
Note: In the Punctuation & Terminology columns any terms in bold are a statutory requirement of the National Curriculum

Text Structure	Sentence Construction	Word Structure/Language	Punctuation	Terminology
Consolidate Reception list Introduce: Fiction: Planning Tools: Story map / story mountain (Refer to Story-Type grids) Plan opening around character(s), setting, time of day and type of weather Understanding - beginning /middle	Consolidate Reception list (See Connectives and Sentence Signposts doc.) Introduce: Types of sentences: Statements Questions Exclamations Simple Connectives: <i>and</i> <i>or</i> <i>but</i> <i>so</i> <i>because</i>	Consolidate Reception list Introduce: Prepositions: <i>inside</i> <i>outside</i> <i>towards</i> <i>across</i> <i>under</i> Determiners: <i>the a my your an this</i> <i>that his her their some</i> <i>all lots of many more</i> <i>those these</i>	Consolidate Reception list Introduce: Capital Letters: Capital letter for names Capital letter for the personal pronoun I Full stops Question marks	Consolidate: Finger spaces Letter Word Sentence Full stops Capital letter Simile – 'like'

<p>/end to a story</p> <p>Understanding - 5 parts to a story:</p> <p>Opening <i>Once upon a time...</i></p> <p>Build-up <i>One day...</i></p> <p>Problem / Dilemma <i>Suddenly,../ Unfortunately,..</i></p> <p>Resolution <i>Fortunately,..</i></p> <p>Ending <i>Finally,....</i></p> <p>Non-fiction: (Refer to Connectives and Sentence Signposts document for Introduction and Endings)</p> <p>Planning tools: text map / washing line</p> <p>Heading</p> <p>Introduction Opening factual statement</p>	<p><i>so that</i> <i>then</i> <i>that</i> <i>while</i> <i>when</i> <i>where</i></p> <p>Also as openers: <i>While...</i> <i>When...</i> <i>Where...</i></p> <p>-‘ly’ openers <i>Fortunately,..Unfortunately,</i> <i>Sadly,..</i></p> <p>Simple sentences e.g. <i>I went to the park.</i> <i>The castle is haunted.</i></p> <p>Embellished simple sentences using adjectives e.g. <i>The giant had an enormous beard.</i> <i>Red squirrels enjoy eating delicious nuts.</i></p> <p>Compound sentences using connectives (coordinating conjunctions) and/or/ but/so e.g. <i>The children played on the swings and slid down the slide.</i> <i>Spiders can be small or they can be large.</i> <i>Charlie hid but Sally found him.</i> <i>It was raining so they put on their coats.</i></p>	<p>Adjectives to describe e.g. <i>The old house...</i> <i>The huge elephant...</i></p> <p>Alliteration e.g. <i>dangerous dragon</i> <i>slimy snake</i></p> <p>Similes using as....as... e.g. <i>as tall as a house</i> <i>as red as a radish</i></p> <p>Precise, clear language to give information e.g. <i>First, switch on the red button.</i> <i>Next, wait for the green light to flash...</i></p> <p>Regular plural noun suffixes –s or –es (e.g. <i>dog, dogs; wish, wishes</i>)</p> <p>Suffixes that can be added to verbs (e.g. <i>helping, helped, helper</i>)</p> <p>How the prefix un–</p>	<p>Exclamation marks</p> <p>Speech bubble</p> <p>Bullet points</p>	<p><u>Introduce:</u></p> <p>Punctuation</p> <p>Question mark</p> <p>Exclamation mark</p> <p>Speech bubble</p> <p>Bullet points</p> <p>Singular/ plural</p> <p>Adjective</p> <p>Verbs</p> <p>Connective</p> <p>Alliteration</p> <p>Simile – ‘as’</p>
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<p>Middle section(s) Simple factual sentences around a <i>them</i></p> <p>Bullet points for instructions</p> <p>Labelled diagrams</p> <p>Ending Concluding sentence</p>	<p>Complex sentences: Use of 'who' (relative clause) e.g. <i>Once upon a time there was a little old woman who lived in a forest.</i> <i>There are many children who like to eat ice cream.</i></p> <p>'Run' - Repetition for rhythm e.g. <i>He walked and he walked and he walked.</i></p> <p>Repetition for description e.g. <i>a lean cat, a mean cat</i> <i>a green dragon, a fiery dragon</i></p>	<p><i>changes the meaning of verbs and adjectives (negation, e.g. unkind, or undoing, e.g. untie the boat)</i></p>		
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The Writing Teaching Sequence



English Glossary of Terms

Term	Guidance	Example
active voice	An active <u>verb</u> has its usual pattern of <u>subject</u> and <u>object</u> (in contrast with the <u>passive</u>).	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 <u>modify</u> the noun), or ▪ after the verb <i>be</i>, as its <u>complement</u>. <p>Adjectives cannot be modified by other adjectives. This distinguishes them from <u>nouns</u>, 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 <u>verbs</u>, <u>nouns</u> and <u>adverbs</u> 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:</p> <p><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 <u>modify</u> a <u>verb</u>, an <u>adjective</u>, 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 <u>adverbials</u>, such as <u>preposition phrases</u>, <u>noun phrases</u> and <u>subordinate clauses</u>.</p>	<p><i>Usha <u>soon</u> started snoring <u>loudly</u>.</i> [adverbs modifying the verbs <i>started</i> and <i>snoring</i>]</p> <p><i>That match was <u>really</u> exciting!</i> [adverb modifying the adjective <i>exciting</i>]</p> <p><i>We don't get to play games <u>very</u> often.</i> [adverb modifying the other adverb, <i>often</i>]</p> <p><i><u>Fortunately</u>, it didn't rain.</i> [adverb modifying the whole clause 'it didn't rain' by commenting on it]</p> <p>Not adverbs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Usha went <u>up the stairs</u>.</i> [preposition phrase used as adverbial] ▪ <i>She finished her work <u>this evening</u>.</i> [noun phrase used as adverbial] ▪ <i>She finished <u>when the teacher got cross</u>.</i> [subordinate clause used as adverbial]
adverbial	An adverbial is a word or phrase that is used, like an adverb, to modify a verb or clause. Of course, <u>adverbs</u> can be used as adverbials, but many other types of words and phrases can be used this way, including <u>preposition phrases</u> and	<i>The bus leaves <u>in five minutes</u>.</i> [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies <i>leaves</i>]

	subordinate clauses .	<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 until she had finished.</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>I'm 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] <i>Usha went upstairs <u>to play on her computer</u>.</i> [non-finite clause]
cohesion	A text has cohesion if it is clear how the meanings of its parts fit together. Cohesive devices can help to do this. In the example, there are repeated references to the same thing (shown by the different style pairings), and the logical relations, such as time and cause, between different parts are clear.	A visit has been arranged for Year 6 , to the Mountain Peaks Field Study Centre , leaving school at 9.30am. This is an overnight visit . The centre has beautiful grounds and a nature trail . During the afternoon, the children will follow the trail .
cohesive device	Cohesive devices are words used to show how the different parts of a text fit	<i>Julia's dad bought her a football. <u>The</u> football was expensive!</i>

	<p>together. In other words, they create <u>cohesion</u>.</p> <p>Some examples of cohesive devices are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <u>determiners</u> and <u>pronouns</u>, which can refer back to earlier words ▪ <u>conjunctions</u> and <u>adverbs</u>, which can make relations between words clear ▪ <u>ellipsis</u> of expected words. 	<p>[determiner; refers us back to a particular football]</p> <p><i>Joe was given a bike for Christmas. <u>He</u> liked <u>it</u> very much.</i> [the pronouns refer back to Joe and the bike]</p> <p><i>We'll be going shopping <u>before</u> we go to the park.</i> [<u>conjunction</u>; makes a relationship of time clear]</p> <p><i>I'm afraid we're going to have to wait for the next train. <u>Meanwhile</u>, we could have a cup of tea.</i> [<u>adverb</u>; refers back to the time of waiting]</p> <p><i>Where are you going? [__] <u>To school!</u></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 <u>subject</u>, and its object complement does the same for its <u>object</u>.</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 <u>root words</u> in its <u>morphology</u>; e.g. <i>whiteboard</i>, <i>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"> ▪ <u>co-ordinating</u> conjunctions (e.g. <i>and</i>) link two words or phrases together as an equal pair ▪ subordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>when</i>) introduce a <u>subordinate clause</u>. 	<p><i>James bought a bat <u>and</u> ball.</i> [links the words <i>bat</i> and <i>ball</i> as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>Kylie is young <u>but</u> she can kick the ball hard.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>Everyone watches <u>when</u> Kyle does back-flips.</i> [introduces a subordinate clause]</p> <p><i>Joe can't practise kicking <u>because</u> he's injured.</i> [introduces a subordinate clause]</p>
consonant	<p>A sound which is produced when the speaker closes off or obstructs the flow of air through the vocal tract, usually using lips, tongue or teeth.</p> <p>Most of the letters of the alphabet represent consonants. Only the letters <i>a, e, i, o, u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent <u>vowel</u> 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]</p>

		line]
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 and 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 and drank tea for an hour.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>Susan got a bus but Amra walked.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p>Not co-ordination: <i>They ate before 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>) ▪ quantifiers (e.g. <i>some, every</i>). 	<p><i>the home team</i> [article, specifies the team as known]</p> <p><i>a good team</i> [article, specifies the team as unknown]</p> <p><i>that pupil</i> [demonstrative, known]</p> <p><i>Julia's parents</i> [possessive, known]</p> <p><i>some big boys</i> [quantifier, unknown]</p> <p>Contrast: <i>home the team, big some boys</i> [both incorrect, because the determiner should come before other modifiers]</p>
digraph	<p>A type of grapheme where two letters represent one phoneme.</p> <p>Sometimes, these two letters are not next to one another; this is called a split digraph.</p>	<p>The digraph <i>ea</i> in <i>each</i> is pronounced /i:/. The digraph <i>sh</i> in <i>shed</i> is pronounced /ʃ/. The split digraph <i>i-e</i> in <i>line</i> is pronounced /aɪ/.</p>
ellipsis	Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.	<p><i>Frankie waved to Ivana and she watched her drive away.</i></p> <p><i>She did it because she wanted to do it.</i></p>
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.	<p>The word <i>school</i> was borrowed from a Greek word <i>σχολή</i> (<i>skholé</i>) meaning 'leisure'.</p> <p>The word <i>verb</i> comes from Latin <i>verbum</i>, meaning 'word'.</p> <p>The word <i>mutton</i> comes from French <i>mouton</i>, meaning 'sheep'.</p>
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.	<p><i>Lizzie <u>does</u> the dishes every day.</i> [present tense]</p> <p><i>Even Hana <u>did</u> the dishes yesterday.</i> [past tense]</p>

	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>Do the dishes, Naser!</i> [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>Before we <u>begin</u>, make sure you've got a pencil.</i> [Without fronting: <i>Make sure you've got a pencil before we begin.</i>] <i>The day after tomorrow, I'm visiting my granddad.</i> [Without fronting: <i>I'm visiting my granddad the day after tomorrow.</i>]
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.	<i>He <u>will leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>will</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>] <i>He <u>may leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>may</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>] <i>He <u>leaves</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>leaves</i>] <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>]
GPC	See grapheme-phoneme correspondences .	
grapheme	A letter, or combination of letters, that corresponds to a single phoneme within a word.	The grapheme <i>t</i> in the words <i>te<u>n</u></i> , <i>be<u>t</u></i> and <i>ate</i> corresponds to the phoneme /t/. The grapheme <i>ph</i> in the word <i>dol<u>ph</u>in</i> corresponds to the phoneme /f/.
grapheme-phoneme correspondences	The links between letters, or combinations of letters (graphemes) and the speech sounds (phonemes) that they represent. In the English writing system, graphemes may correspond to different phonemes in different words.	The grapheme <i>s</i> corresponds to the phoneme /s/ in the word <i>see</i> , but... ...it corresponds to the phoneme /z/ in the word <i>easy</i> .
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.	<i>Has he <u>left</u> yet? Yes - he went through the door on the <u>left</u>.</i> <i>The noise a dog makes is called a <u>bark</u>. Trees have <u>bark</u>.</i>
homophone	Two different words are homophones if they sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<i><u>hear</u>, <u>here</u></i> <i><u>some</u>, <u>sum</u></i>

<p>infinitive</p>	<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>
<p>inflection</p>	<p>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.</p>	<p><i>dogs</i> is an inflection of <i>dog</i>.</p> <p><i>went</i> is an inflection of <i>go</i>.</p> <p><i>better</i> is an inflection of <i>good</i>.</p>
<p>intransitive verb</p>	<p>A verb which does not need an object in a sentence to complete its meaning is described as intransitive. See 'transitive verb'.</p>	<p><i>We all <u>laughed</u>.</i></p> <p><i>We would like to stay longer, but we must <u>leave</u>.</i></p>
<p>main clause</p>	<p>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.</p>	<p><i><u>It was raining</u> but <u>the sun was shining</u>.</i> [two main clauses]</p> <p><i><u>The man who wrote it told me that it was true</u>.</i> [one main clause containing two subordinate clauses.]</p> <p><i>She said, "It rained all day."</i> [one main clause containing another.]</p>
<p>modal verb</p>	<p>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, would, can, could, may, might, shall, should, must</i> and <i>ought</i>.</p> <p>A modal verb only has finite forms and has no suffixes (e.g. <i>I sing - he sings</i>, but not <i>I must - he musts</i>).</p>	<p><i>I <u>can</u> do this maths work by myself.</i></p> <p><i>This ride <u>may</u> be too scary for you!</i></p> <p><i>You <u>should</u> help your little brother.</i></p> <p><i>Is it going to rain? Yes, it <u>might</u>.</i></p> <p><i>Canning swim is important.</i> [not possible because <i>can</i> must be finite; contrast: <i>Being able to swim is important</i>, where <i>being</i> is not a modal verb]</p>
<p>modify, modifier</p>	<p>One word or phrase modifies another by making its meaning more specific.</p> <p>Because the two words make a phrase, the 'modifier' is normally close to the modified word.</p>	<p>In the phrase <i>primary-school teacher</i>:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>teacher</i> is modified by <i>primary-school</i> (to mean a specific kind of teacher) ▪ <i>school</i> is modified by <i>primary</i> (to mean a specific kind of school).
<p>morphology</p>	<p>A word's morphology is its internal make-up in terms of root words and suffixes or prefixes, as well as other kinds of change such as the change of <i>mouse</i> to</p>	<p><i>dogs</i> has the morphological make-up: <i>dog + s</i>.</p> <p><i>unhelpfulness</i> has the morphological make-up:</p>

	<p><i>mice.</i></p> <p>Morphology may be used to produce different <u>inflections</u> of the same word (e.g. <i>boy - boys</i>), or entirely new words (e.g. <i>boy - boyish</i>) belonging to the same <u>word family</u>.</p> <p>A word that contains two or more root words is a <u>compound</u> (e.g. <i>news+paper, ice+cream</i>).</p>	<p><i>unhelpful + ness</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> where <i>unhelpful</i> = <i>un</i> + <i>helpful</i> and <i>helpful</i> = <i>help</i> + <i>ful</i>
noun	<p>The surest way to identify nouns is by the ways they can be used after <u>determiners</u> such as <i>the</i>: for example, most nouns will fit into the frame "The ___ matters/matter."</p> <p>Nouns are sometimes called 'naming words' because they name people, places and 'things'; this is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish nouns from other <u>word classes</u>. For example, <u>prepositions</u> can name places and <u>verbs</u> can name 'things' such as actions.</p> <p>Nouns may be classified as common (e.g. <i>boy, day</i>) or proper (e.g. <i>Ivan, Wednesday</i>), and also as countable (e.g. <i>thing, boy</i>) or non-countable (e.g. <i>stuff, money</i>). These classes can be recognised by the determiners they combine with.</p>	<p><i>Our dog bit the burglar on his behind!</i></p> <p><i>My big brother did an amazing jump on his skateboard.</i></p> <p><i>Actions speak louder than words.</i></p> <p>Not nouns:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>He's behind you!</i> [this names a place, but is a preposition, not a noun] <i>She can jump so high!</i> [this names an action, but is a verb, not a noun] <p>common, countable: <i>a book, books, two chocolates, one day, fewer ideas</i></p> <p>common, non-countable: <i>money, some chocolate, less imagination</i></p> <p>proper, countable: <i>Marilyn, London, Wednesday</i></p>
noun phrase	<p>A noun phrase is a <u>phrase</u> with a noun as its <u>head</u>, e.g. <i>some foxes, foxes with bushy tails</i>. Some grammarians recognise one-word phrases, so that <i>foxes are multiplying</i> would contain the noun <i>foxes</i> acting as the head of the noun phrase <i>foxes</i>.</p>	<p><i>Adult foxes can jump.</i> [<i>adult</i> modifies <i>foxes</i>, so <i>adult</i> belongs to the noun phrase]</p> <p><i>Almost all healthy adult foxes in this area can jump.</i> [all the other words help to modify <i>foxes</i>, so they all belong to the noun phrase]</p>
object	<p>An object is normally a <u>noun</u>, <u>pronoun</u> or <u>noun phrase</u> that comes straight after the <u>verb</u>, and shows what the verb is acting upon.</p> <p>Objects can be turned into the <u>subject</u> of a <u>passive</u> verb, and cannot be <u>adjectives</u> (contrast with <u>complements</u>).</p>	<p><i>Year 2 designed puppets.</i> [noun acting as object]</p> <p><i>I like that.</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] <i>Year 2 designed pretty.</i> [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]

<p>participle</p>	<p>Verbs in English have two participles, called 'present participle' (e.g. <i>walking, taking</i>) and 'past participle' (e.g. <i>walked, taken</i>).</p> <p>Unfortunately, these terms can be confusing to learners, because:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ they don't necessarily have anything to do with present or past time ▪ although past participles are used as 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>
<p>passive</p>	<p>The sentence <i>It was eaten by our dog</i> is the passive of <i>Our dog ate it</i>. A passive is recognisable from:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ the past 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>]
<p>past tense</p>	<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>
<p>perfect</p>	<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>

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

preposition phrase	A preposition phrase has a preposition as its head followed by a noun, pronoun or noun phrase.	<i>He was <u>in</u> bed.</i> <i>I met them <u>after</u> the party.</i>
present tense	<u>Verbs</u> in the present tense are commonly used to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ talk about the present ▪ talk about the <u>future</u>. They may take a suffix <i>-s</i> (depending on the <u>subject</u>). See also <u>tense</u> .	<i>Jamal <u>goes</u> to the pool every day.</i> [describes a habit that exists now] <i>He <u>can</u> swim.</i> [describes a state that is true now] <i>The bus <u>arrives</u> at three.</i> [scheduled now] <i>My friends <u>are</u> coming to play.</i> [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. <i>singing</i>) with a form of the verb <i>be</i> (e.g. <i>he was singing</i>). The progressive can also be combined with the <u>perfect</u> (e.g. <i>he has been singing</i>).	<i>Michael <u>is singing</u> in the store room.</i> [present progressive] <i>Amanda <u>was making</u> a patchwork quilt.</i> [past progressive] <i>Usha <u>had been practising</u> for an hour when I called.</i> [past perfect progressive]
pronoun	Pronouns are normally used like <u>nouns</u> , except that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ they are grammatically more specialised ▪ it is harder to <u>modify</u> 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.	<i>Amanda waved to Michael.</i> <i><u>She</u> waved to <u>him</u>.</i> <i>John's mother is over there. <u>His</u> mother is over there.</i> <i>The visit will be an overnight visit. <u>This</u> will be an overnight visit.</i> <i><u>Simon</u> is the person: Simon broke it. <u>He</u> is the one <u>who</u> broke it.</i>
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.	<i><u>"I'm going out, Usha, and I won't be long," Mum said.</u></i>
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>I regret to inform you that Mr Joseph Smith has passed away.</i> [formal letter] <i>Have you heard that Joe has died?</i> [casual speech]

		<i>Joe falls down and dies, centre stage.</i> [stage direction]
relative clause	<p>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 <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 clause. In that case, the pronoun refers back to the whole clause, rather than referring back to a noun.</p> <p>In the examples, the relative clauses are underlined, and both the pronouns and the words they refer back to are in bold.</p>	<p><i>That's the boy <u>who lives near school</u>.</i> [<i>who</i> refers back to <i>boy</i>]</p> <p><i>The prize <u>that I won</u> was a book.</i> [<i>that</i> refers back to <i>prize</i>]</p> <p><i>The prize <u>I won</u> was a book.</i> [the pronoun <i>that</i> is omitted]</p> <p><i>Tom broke the game, <u>which annoyed Ali</u>.</i> [<i>which</i> refers back to the whole clause]</p>
root word	<p>Morphology breaks words down into root words, which can stand alone, and suffixes or prefixes which can't. For example, <i>help</i> is the root word for other 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.</p>	<p><u>played</u> [the root word is <i>play</i>]</p> <p><u>unfair</u> [the root word is <i>fair</i>]</p> <p><i>football</i> [the root words are <i>foot</i> and <i>ball</i>]</p>
schwa	<p>The name of a vowel sound that is found only in unstressed positions in English. It is the most common vowel sound in English.</p> <p>It is written as /ə/ in the International Phonetic Alphabet. In the English writing system, it can be written in many different ways.</p>	<p>/əlɒŋ/ [<u>along</u>]</p> <p>/bʌtə/ [<u>butter</u>]</p> <p>/dɒktə/ [<u>doctor</u>]</p>
sentence	<p>A sentence is a group of words which are grammatically connected to each other but not to any words outside the sentence.</p> <p>The form of a sentence's main clause shows whether it is being used as a statement, a question, a command or an exclamation.</p> <p>A sentence may consist of a single clause or it may contain several clauses held together by subordination or co-ordination. Classifying sentences as 'simple', 'complex' or 'compound' can be confusing, because a 'simple' sentence may be complicated, and a 'complex' one may be straightforward. The terms 'single-clause sentence' and 'multi-clause sentence' may be more helpful.</p>	<p><u><i>John went to his friend's house. He stayed there till tea-time.</i></u></p> <p><i>John went to his friend's house, he stayed there till tea-time.</i> [This is a 'comma splice', a common error in which a comma is used where either a full stop or a semi-colon is needed to indicate the lack of any grammatical connection between the two clauses.]</p> <p><i>You are my friend.</i> [statement]</p> <p><i>Are you my friend?</i> [question]</p> <p><i>Be my friend!</i> [command]</p> <p><i>What a good friend you are!</i> [exclamation]</p> <p><i>Ali went home on his bike to his goldfish and his current library book about pets.</i> [single-clause sentence]</p> <p><i>She went shopping but took back everything she had bought because she didn't like any of it.</i> [multi-clause sentence]</p>
split digraph	See digraph .	

<p>Standard English</p>	<p>Standard English can be recognised by the use of a very small range of forms such as <i>those books</i>, <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 the most formal, so it covers most registers. The aim of the national curriculum is that everyone should be able to use Standard English as needed in writing and in relatively formal speaking.</p>	<p><i>I did it because they were not willing to undertake any more work on those houses.</i> [formal Standard English]</p> <p><i>I did it cos they wouldn't do any more work on those houses.</i> [casual Standard English]</p> <p><i>I done it cos they wouldn't do no more work on them houses.</i> [casual non-Standard English]</p>
<p>stress</p>	<p>A syllable is stressed if it is pronounced more forcefully than the syllables next to it. The other syllables are unstressed.</p>	<p><u>about</u></p> <p><u>visit</u></p>
<p>subject</p>	<p>The subject of a verb is normally the noun, noun phrase or pronoun that names the 'do-er' or 'be-er'. The subject's normal position is:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ just before the verb in a statement ▪ just after the auxiliary verb, in a question. <p>Unlike the verb's object and complement, the subject can determine the form of the verb (e.g. <u>I am</u>, <u>you are</u>).</p>	<p><u>Rula's mother</u> went out.</p> <p><u>That is</u> uncertain.</p> <p><u>The children</u> will study the animals.</p> <p>Will <u>the children</u> study the animals?</p>
<p>subjunctive</p>	<p>In some languages, the inflections of a verb include a large range of special forms which are used typically in subordinate clauses, and are called 'subjunctives'. English has very few such forms and those it has tend to be used in rather formal styles.</p>	<p><i>The school requires that all pupils <u>be</u> honest.</i></p> <p><i>The school rules demand that pupils not <u>enter</u> the gym at lunchtime.</i></p> <p><i>If Zoë <u>were</u> the class president, things would be much better.</i></p>
<p>subordinate, subordination</p>	<p>A subordinate word or phrase tells us more about the meaning of the word it is subordinate to. Subordination can be thought of as an unequal relationship between a subordinate word and a main word. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ an adjective is subordinate to the noun it modifies ▪ subjects and objects are subordinate to their verbs. <p>Subordination is much more common than the equal relationship of co-ordination.</p> <p>See also subordinate clause.</p>	<p><u>big dogs</u> [big is subordinate to dogs]</p> <p><u>Big dogs</u> need <u>long walks</u>. [big dogs and long walks are subordinate to need]</p> <p>We can watch TV <u>when we've finished</u>. [when we've finished is subordinate to watch]</p>
<p>subordinate clause</p>	<p>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>.</p>	<p><i>That's the street <u>where Ben lives</u>.</i> [relative clause; modifies street]</p> <p><i>He watched her <u>as she disappeared</u>.</i> [adverbial; modifies watched]</p> <p><i><u>What you said</u> was very nice.</i> [acts as subject of was]</p>

	(Contrast: main clause) 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 - <u>speak</u></i> <i>old - <u>elderly</u></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: ▪ <i>Estudia.</i> [present tense] ▪ <i>Estudió.</i> [past tense] ▪ <i>Estudiará.</i> [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.	<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 .	

<p>verb</p>	<p>The surest way to identify verbs is by the ways they can be used: they can usually have a tense, either present or past (see also future).</p> <p>Verbs are sometimes called 'doing words' because many verbs name an action that someone does; while this can be a way of recognising verbs, it doesn't distinguish verbs from nouns (which can also name actions). Moreover many verbs name states or feelings rather than actions.</p> <p>Verbs can be classified in various ways: for example, as auxiliary, or modal; as transitive or intransitive; and as states or events.</p>	<p><i>He <u>lives</u> in Birmingham.</i> [present tense]</p> <p><i>The teacher <u>wrote</u> a song for the class.</i> [past tense]</p> <p><i>He <u>likes</u> chocolate.</i> [present tense; not an action]</p> <p><i>He <u>knew</u> my father.</i> [past tense; not an action]</p> <p>Not verbs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>The <u>walk</u> to Halina's house will take an hour.</i> [noun] ▪ <i>All that <u>surfing</u> makes Morwenna so sleepy!</i> [noun]
<p>vowel</p>	<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>	
<p>word</p>	<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]</p> <p><i><u>I'm</u> going out.</i></p> <p><i><u>9.30 am</u></i></p>
<p>word class</p>	<p>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'.</p>	
<p>word family</p>	<p>The words in a word family are normally related to each other by a combination of morphology, grammar and meaning.</p>	<p><i>teach - teacher</i></p> <p><i>extend - extent - extensive</i></p> <p><i>grammar - grammatical - grammarian</i></p>