1. Language and literacy

1.1 Teachers should develop pupils' spoken language, reading, writing and vocabulary as integral aspects of the teaching of every subject. English is both a subject in its own right and the medium for teaching; for pupils, understanding the language provides access to the whole curriculum. Fluency in the English language is an essential foundation for success in all subjects.

Spoken language

1.2 Pupils should be taught to speak clearly and convey ideas confidently using Standard English. They should learn to justify ideas with reasons; ask questions to check understanding; develop vocabulary and build knowledge; negotiate; evaluate and build on the ideas of others; and select the appropriate register for effective communication. They should be taught to give well-structured descriptions and explanations and develop their understanding through speculating, hypothesising and exploring ideas. This will enable them to clarify their thinking as well as organise their ideas for writing.

Reading and writing

1.3 Teachers should develop pupils' reading and writing in all subjects to support their acquisition of knowledge. Pupils should be taught to read fluently, understand extended prose (both fiction and non-fiction) and be encouraged to read for pleasure. Schools should do everything to promote wider reading. They should provide library facilities and set ambitious expectations for reading at home. Pupils should develop the stamina and skills to write at length, with accurate spelling and punctuation. They should be taught the correct use of grammar. They should build on what they have been taught to expand the range of their writing and the variety of the grammar they use. The writing they do should include narratives, explanations, descriptions, comparisons, summaries and evaluations: such writing supports them in rehearsing, understanding and consolidating what they have heard or read.

Vocabulary development

1.4 Pupils' acquisition and command of vocabulary are key to their learning and progress across the whole curriculum. Teachers should therefore develop vocabulary actively, building systematically on pupils' current knowledge. They should increase pupils' store of words in general; simultaneously, they should also make links between known and new vocabulary and discuss the shades of meaning in similar words. In this way, pupils expand the vocabulary choices that are available to them when they write. In addition, it is vital for pupils' comprehension that they understand the meanings of words they meet in their reading across all subjects, and older pupils should be taught the meaning of instruction verbs that they may meet in examination questions. It is particularly important to induct pupils into the language which defines each subject in its own right, such as accurate mathematical and scientific language.

2. Programmes of study and attainment targets

2.1   The following pages set out the statutory programmes of study and attainment targets for all the subjects taught at key stages 1 and 2. Schools are not required by law to teach the example content in [square brackets] or the content indicated as being 'non-statutory'.

English

Purpose of study

English has a pre-eminent place in education and in society. A high-quality education in English will teach pupils to speak and write fluently so that they can communicate their ideas and emotions to others and through their reading and listening, others can communicate with them. Through reading in particular, pupils have a chance to develop culturally, emotionally, intellectually, socially and spiritually. Literature, especially, plays a key role in such development. Reading also enables pupils both to acquire knowledge and to build on what they already know. All the skills of language are essential to participating fully as a member of society; pupils, therefore, who do not learn to speak, read and write fluently and confidently are effectively disenfranchised.

Aims

The overarching aim for English in the national curriculum is to promote high standards of language and literacy by equipping pupils with a strong command of the spoken and written word, and to develop their love of literature through widespread reading for enjoyment. The national curriculum for English aims to ensure that all pupils:

- read easily, fluently and with good understanding

- develop the habit of reading widely and often, for both pleasure and information

- acquire a wide vocabulary, an understanding of grammar and knowledge of linguistic conventions for reading, writing and spoken language

- appreciate our rich and varied literary heritage

- write clearly, accurately and coherently, adapting their language and style in and for a range of contexts, purposes and audiences

- use discussion in order to learn; they should be able to elaborate and explain clearly their understanding and ideas

- are competent in the arts of speaking and listening, making formal presentations, demonstrating to others and participating in debate.

Spoken language

The national curriculum for English reflects the importance of spoken language in pupils' development across the whole curriculum – cognitively, socially and linguistically. Spoken language underpins the development of reading and writing. The quality and variety of language that pupils hear and speak are vital for developing their vocabulary and grammar and their understanding for reading and writing. Teachers should therefore ensure the

continual development of pupils' confidence and competence in spoken language and listening skills. Pupils should develop a capacity to explain their understanding of books and other reading, and to prepare their ideas before they write. They must be assisted in making their thinking clear to themselves as well as to others and teachers should ensure that pupils build secure foundations by using discussion to probe and remedy their misconceptions. Pupils should also be taught to understand and use the conventions for discussion and debate.

All pupils should be enabled to participate in and gain knowledge, skills and understanding associated with the artistic practice of drama. Pupils should be able to adopt, create and sustain a range of roles, responding appropriately to others in role. They should have opportunities to improvise, devise and script drama for one another and a range of audiences, as well as to rehearse, refine, share and respond thoughtfully to drama and theatre performances.

Statutory requirements which underpin all aspects of spoken language across the six years of primary education form part of the national curriculum. These are reflected and contextualised within the reading and writing domains which follow.

Reading

The programmes of study for reading at key stages 1 and 2 consist of two dimensions:

- word reading

- comprehension (both listening and reading).

It is essential that teaching focuses on developing pupils' competence in both dimensions; different kinds of teaching are needed for each.

Skilled word reading involves both the speedy working out of the pronunciation of unfamiliar printed words (decoding) and the speedy recognition of familiar printed words. Underpinning both is the understanding that the letters on the page represent the sounds in spoken words. This is why phonics should be emphasised in the early teaching of reading to beginners (i.e. unskilled readers) when they start school.

Good comprehension draws from linguistic knowledge (in particular of vocabulary and grammar) and on knowledge of the world. Comprehension skills develop through pupils' experience of high-quality discussion with the teacher, as well as from reading and discussing a range of stories, poems and non-fiction. All pupils must be encouraged to read widely across both fiction and non-fiction to develop their knowledge of themselves and the world in which they live, to establish an appreciation and love of reading, and to gain knowledge across the curriculum. Reading widely and often increases pupils' vocabulary because they encounter words they would rarely hear or use in everyday speech. Reading also feeds pupils' imagination and opens up a treasure-house of wonder and joy for curious young minds.

It is essential that, by the end of their primary education, all pupils are able to read fluently, and with confidence, in any subject in their forthcoming secondary education.

Writing

The programmes of study for writing at key stages 1 and 2 are constructed similarly to those for reading:

- transcription (spelling and handwriting)

- composition (articulating ideas and structuring them in speech and writing).

It is essential that teaching develops pupils' competence in these two dimensions. In addition, pupils should be taught how to plan, revise and evaluate their writing. These aspects of writing have been incorporated into the programmes of study for composition.

Writing down ideas fluently depends on effective transcription: that is, on spelling quickly and accurately through knowing the relationship between sounds and letters (phonics) and understanding the morphology (word structure) and orthography (spelling structure) of words. Effective composition involves forming, articulating and communicating ideas, and then organising them coherently for a reader. This requires clarity, awareness of the audience, purpose and context, and an increasingly wide knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Writing also depends on fluent, legible and, eventually, speedy handwriting.

Spelling, vocabulary, grammar, punctuation and glossary

The two statutory appendices – on spelling and on vocabulary, grammar and punctuation – give an overview of the specific features that should be included in teaching the programmes of study.

Opportunities for teachers to enhance pupils' vocabulary arise naturally from their reading and writing. As vocabulary increases, teachers should show pupils how to understand the relationships between words, how to understand nuances in meaning, and how to develop their understanding of, and ability to use, figurative language. They should also teach pupils how to work out and clarify the meanings of unknown words and words with more than one meaning. References to developing pupils' vocabulary are also included within the appendices.

Pupils should be taught to control their speaking and writing consciously and to use Standard English. They should be taught to use the elements of spelling, grammar, punctuation and 'language about language' listed. This is not intended to constrain or restrict teachers' creativity, but simply to provide the structure on which they can construct exciting lessons. A non-statutory Glossary is provided for teachers.

Throughout the programmes of study, teachers should teach pupils the vocabulary they need to discuss their reading, writing and spoken language. It is important that pupils learn the correct grammatical terms in English and that these terms are integrated within teaching.

School curriculum

The programmes of study for English are set out year-by-year for key stage 1 and two-yearly for key stage 2. The single year blocks at key stage 1 reflect the rapid pace of development in word reading during these two years. Schools are, however, only required to teach the relevant programme of study by the end of the key stage. Within each key stage, schools therefore have the flexibility to introduce content earlier or later than set out in the programme of study. In addition, schools can introduce key stage content during an earlier key stage if appropriate. All schools are also required to set out their school curriculum for English on a year-by-year basis and make this information available online.

Attainment targets

By the end of each key stage, pupils are expected to know, apply and understand the matters, skills and processes specified in the relevant programme of study.

Schools are not required by law to teach the example content in [square brackets] or the content indicated as being 'non-statutory'.

Spoken language – years 1 to 6

Spoken language

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- listen and respond appropriately to adults and their peers

- ask relevant questions to extend their understanding and knowledge

- use relevant strategies to build their vocabulary

- articulate and justify answers, arguments and opinions

- give well-structured descriptions, explanations and narratives for different purposes, including for expressing feelings

- maintain attention and participate actively in collaborative conversations, staying on topic and initiating and responding to comments

- use spoken language to develop understanding through speculating, hypothesising, imagining and exploring ideas

- speak audibly and fluently with an increasing command of Standard English

- participate in discussions, presentations, performances, role play, improvisations and debates

- gain, maintain and monitor the interest of the listener(s)

- consider and evaluate different viewpoints, attending to and building on the contributions of others

- select and use appropriate registers for effective communication.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

These statements apply to all years. The content should be taught at a level appropriate to the age of the pupils. Pupils should build on the oral language skills that have been taught in preceding years.

Pupils should be taught to develop their competence in spoken language and listening to enhance the effectiveness with which they are able to communicate across a range of contexts and to a range of audiences. They should therefore have opportunities to work in groups of different sizes – in pairs, small groups, large groups and as a whole class. Pupils should understand how to take turns and when and how to participate constructively in conversations and debates.

Attention should also be paid to increasing pupils' vocabulary, ranging from describing

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

their immediate world and feelings to developing a broader, deeper and richer vocabulary to discuss abstract concepts and a wider range of topics, and to enhancing their knowledge about language as a whole.

Pupils should receive constructive feedback on their spoken language and listening, not only to improve their knowledge and skills but also to establish secure foundations for effective spoken language in their studies at primary school, helping them to achieve in secondary education and beyond.

Lower key stage 2 – years 3 and 4

By the beginning of year 3, pupils should be able to read books written at an age-appropriate interest level. They should be able to read them accurately and at a speed that is sufficient for them to focus on understanding what they read rather than on decoding individual words. They should be able to decode most new words outside their spoken vocabulary, making a good approximation to the word's pronunciation. As their decoding skills become increasingly secure, teaching should be directed more towards developing their vocabulary and the breadth and depth of their reading, making sure that they become independent, fluent and enthusiastic readers who read widely and frequently. They should be developing their understanding and enjoyment of stories, poetry, plays and non-fiction, and learning to read silently. They should also be developing their knowledge and skills in reading non-fiction about a wide range of subjects. They should be learning to justify their views about what they have read: with support at the start of year 3 and increasingly independently by the end of year 4.

Pupils should be able to write down their ideas with a reasonable degree of accuracy and with good sentence punctuation. Teachers should therefore be consolidating pupils' writing skills, their vocabulary, their grasp of sentence structure and their knowledge of linguistic terminology. Teaching them to develop as writers involves teaching them to enhance the effectiveness of what they write as well as increasing their competence. Teachers should make sure that pupils build on what they have learnt, particularly in terms of the range of their writing and the more varied grammar, vocabulary and narrative structures from which they can draw to express their ideas. Pupils should be beginning to understand how writing can be different from speech. Joined handwriting should be the norm; pupils should be able to use it fast enough to keep pace with what they want to say.

Pupils' spelling of common words should be correct, including common exception words and other words that they have learnt (see English Appendix 1). Pupils should spell words as accurately as possible using their phonic knowledge and other knowledge of spelling, such as morphology and etymology.

Most pupils will not need further direct teaching of word reading skills: they are able to decode unfamiliar words accurately, and need very few repeated experiences of this before the word is stored in such a way that they can read it without overt sound-blending. They should demonstrate understanding of figurative language, distinguish shades of meaning among related words and use age-appropriate, academic vocabulary.

As in key stage 1, however, pupils who are still struggling to decode need to be taught to do this urgently through a rigorous and systematic phonics programme so that they catch up rapidly with their peers. If they cannot decode independently and fluently, they will find it increasingly difficult to understand what they read and to write down what they want to say. As far as possible, however, these pupils should follow the year 3 and 4 programme

of study in terms of listening to new books, hearing and learning new vocabulary and grammatical structures, and discussing these.

Specific requirements for pupils to discuss what they are learning and to develop their wider skills in spoken language form part of this programme of study. In years 3 and 4, pupils should become more familiar with and confident in using language in a greater variety of situations, for a variety of audiences and purposes, including through drama, formal presentations and debate.

Years 3 and 4 programme of study

Reading – word reading

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

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

- read further exception words, noting the unusual correspondences between spelling and sound, and where these occur in the word.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

At this stage, teaching comprehension should be taking precedence over teaching word reading directly. Any focus on word reading should support the development of vocabulary.

When pupils are taught to read longer words, they should be supported to test out different pronunciations. They will attempt to match what they decode to words they may have already heard but may not have seen in print [for example, in reading 'technical', the pronunciation /tɛtʃnɪkəl/ ('tetchnical') might not sound familiar, but /tɛknɪkəl/ ('teknical') should].

Reading – comprehension

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

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

Statutory requirements

- preparing poems and play scripts to read aloud and to perform, showing understanding through intonation, tone, volume and action

- discussing words and phrases that capture the reader's interest and imagination

- recognising some different forms of poetry [for example, free verse, narrative poetry]

- understand what they read, in books they can read independently, by:

  - checking that the text makes sense to them, discussing their understanding and explaining the meaning of words in context

  - asking questions to improve their understanding of a text

  - drawing inferences such as inferring characters' feelings, thoughts and motives from their actions, and justifying inferences with evidence

  - predicting what might happen from details stated and implied

  - identifying main ideas drawn from more than one paragraph and summarising these

  - identifying how language, structure, and presentation contribute to meaning

- retrieve and record information from non-fiction

- participate in discussion about both books that are read to them and those they can read for themselves, taking turns and listening to what others say.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

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

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

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

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

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils should continue to have opportunities to listen frequently to stories, poems, non-fiction and other writing, including whole books and not just extracts, so that they build on what was taught previously. In this way, they also meet books and authors that they might not choose themselves. Pupils should also have opportunities to exercise choice in selecting books and be taught how to do so, with teachers making use of any library services and expertise to support this.

Reading, re-reading, and rehearsing poems and plays for presentation and performance give pupils opportunities to discuss language, including vocabulary, extending their interest in the meaning and origin of words. Pupils should be encouraged to use drama approaches to understand how to perform plays and poems to support their understanding of the meaning. These activities also provide them with an incentive to find out what expression is required, so feeding into comprehension.

In using non-fiction, pupils should know what information they need to look for before they begin and be clear about the task. They should be shown how to use contents pages and indexes to locate information.

Pupils should have guidance about the kinds of explanations and questions that are expected from them. They should help to develop, agree on, and evaluate rules for effective discussion. The expectation should be that all pupils take part.

Writing – transcription

Statutory requirements

Spelling (see English Appendix 1)

Pupils should be taught to:

- use further prefixes and suffixes and understand how to add them (English Appendix 1)

- spell further homophones

- spell words that are often misspelt (English Appendix 1)

- place the possessive apostrophe accurately in words with regular plurals [for example, girls', boys'] and in words with irregular plurals [for example, children's]

- use the first two or three letters of a word to check its spelling in a dictionary

- write from memory simple sentences, dictated by the teacher, that include words and punctuation taught so far.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils should learn to spell new words correctly and have plenty of practice in spelling them.

As in years 1 and 2, pupils should continue to be supported in understanding and applying the concepts of word structure (see English Appendix 2).

Pupils need sufficient knowledge of spelling in order to use dictionaries efficiently.

Statutory requirements

Handwriting

Pupils should be taught to:

- use the diagonal and horizontal strokes that are needed to join letters and understand which letters, when adjacent to one another, are best left unjoined

- increase the legibility, consistency and quality of their handwriting [for example, by ensuring that the downstrokes of letters are parallel and equidistant; that lines of writing are spaced sufficiently so that the ascenders and descenders of letters do not touch].

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Pupils should be using joined handwriting throughout their independent writing. Handwriting should continue to be taught, with the aim of increasing the fluency with which pupils are able to write down what they want to say. This, in turn, will support their composition and spelling.

Writing – composition

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

- plan their writing by:
  - discussing writing similar to that which they are planning to write in order to understand and learn from its structure, vocabulary and grammar
  - discussing and recording ideas

- draft and write by:
  - composing and rehearsing sentences orally (including dialogue), progressively building a varied and rich vocabulary and an increasing range of sentence structures (English Appendix 2)
  - organising paragraphs around a theme
  - in narratives, creating settings, characters and plot
  - in non-narrative material, using simple organisational devices [for example, headings and sub-headings]

- evaluate and edit by:
  - assessing the effectiveness of their own and others' writing and suggesting improvements
  - proposing changes to grammar and vocabulary to improve consistency, including the accurate use of pronouns in sentences

- proof-read for spelling and punctuation errors

- read aloud their own writing, to a group or the whole class, using appropriate intonation and controlling the tone and volume so that the meaning is clear.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

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

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

Writing – vocabulary, grammar and punctuation

Statutory requirements

Pupils should be taught to:

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

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Grammar should be taught explicitly: pupils should be taught the terminology and concepts set out in English Appendix 2, and be able to apply them correctly to examples of real language, such as their own writing or books that they have read.

At this stage, pupils should start to learn about some of the differences between Standard English and non-Standard English and begin to apply what they have learnt [for example, in writing dialogue for characters].

English Appendix 1: Spelling

Most people read words more accurately than they spell them. The younger pupils are, the truer this is.

By the end of year 1, pupils should be able to read a large number of different words containing the GPCs that they have learnt, whether or not they have seen these words before. Spelling, however, is a very different matter. Once pupils have learnt more than one way of spelling particular sounds, choosing the right letter or letters depends on their either having made a conscious effort to learn the words or having absorbed them less consciously through their reading. Younger pupils have not had enough time to learn or absorb the accurate spelling of all the words that they may want to write.

This appendix provides examples of words embodying each pattern which is taught. Many of the words listed as 'example words' for years 1 and 2, including almost all those listed as 'exception words', are used frequently in pupils' writing, and therefore it is worth pupils learning the correct spelling. The 'exception words' contain GPCs which have not yet been taught as widely applicable, but this may be because they are applicable in very few age-appropriate words rather than because they are rare in English words in general.

The word-lists for years 3 and 4 and years 5 and 6 are statutory. The lists are a mixture of words pupils frequently use in their writing and those which they often misspell. Some of the listed words may be thought of as quite challenging, but the 100 words in each list can easily be taught within the four years of key stage 2 alongside other words that teachers consider appropriate.

The rules and guidance are intended to support the teaching of spelling. Phonic knowledge should continue to underpin spelling after key stage 1; teachers should still draw pupils' attention to GPCs that do and do not fit in with what has been taught so far. Increasingly, however, pupils also need to understand the role of morphology and etymology. Although particular GPCs in root words simply have to be learnt, teachers can help pupils to understand relationships between meaning and spelling where these are relevant. For example, understanding the relationship between *medical* and *medicine* may help pupils to spell the /s/ sound in *medicine* with the letter 'c'. Pupils can also be helped to spell words with prefixes and suffixes correctly if they understand some general principles for adding them. Teachers should be familiar with what pupils have been taught about spelling in earlier years, such as which rules pupils have been taught for adding prefixes and suffixes.

In this spelling appendix, the left-hand column is statutory; the middle and right-hand columns are non-statutory guidance.

The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) is used to represent sounds (phonemes). A table showing the IPA is provided in this document.

Spelling – work for years 3 and 4

Revision of work from years 1 and 2

Pay special attention to the rules for adding suffixes.

New work for years 3 and 4

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
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
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
More prefixes	Most prefixes are added to the beginning of root words without any changes in spelling, but see **in–** below. Like **un–**, the prefixes **dis–** and **mis–** have negative meanings. The prefix **in–** can mean both 'not' and 'in'/'into'. In the words given here it means 'not'.	 **dis–**: disappoint, disagree, disobey **mis–**: misbehave, mislead, misspell (mis + spell) **in–**: inactive, incorrect

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
	Before a root word starting with **l**, **in–** becomes **il**.	illegal, illegible
	Before a root word starting with **m** or **p**, **in–** becomes **im–**.	immature, immortal, impossible, impatient, imperfect
	Before a root word starting with **r**, **in–** becomes **ir–**.	irregular, irrelevant, irresponsible
	re– means 'again' or 'back'.	**re–**: redo, refresh, return, reappear, redecorate
	sub– means 'under'.	**sub–**: subdivide, subheading, submarine, submerge
	inter– means 'between' or 'among'.	**inter–**: interact, intercity, international, interrelated (inter + related)
	super– means 'above'.	**super–**: supermarket, superman, superstar
	anti– means 'against'.	**anti–**: antiseptic, anti-clockwise, antisocial
	auto– means 'self' or 'own'.	**auto–**: autobiography, autograph
The suffix –ation	The suffix **–ation** is added to verbs to form nouns. The rules already learnt still apply.	information, adoration, sensation, preparation, admiration
The suffix –ly	The suffix **–ly** is added to an adjective to form an adverb. The rules already learnt still apply. The suffix **–ly** starts with a consonant letter, so it is added straight on to most root words.	sadly, completely, usually (usual + ly), finally (final + ly), comically (comical + ly)

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
	Exceptions:	happily, angrily
	(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.	
	(2) If the root word ends with **–le**, the **–le** is changed to **–ly**.	gently, simply, humbly, nobly
	(3) If the root word ends with **–ic**, **–ally** is added rather than just **–ly**, except in the word *publicly*.	basically, frantically, dramatically
	(4) The words *truly*, *duly*, *wholly.*	
Words with endings sounding like /ʒə/ or /tʃə/	The ending sounding like /ʒə/ is always spelt –**sure**.	measure, treasure, pleasure, enclosure
	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. *teacher, catcher, richer, stretcher.*	creature, furniture, picture, nature, adventure
Endings which sound like /ʒən/	If the ending sounds like /ʒən/, it is spelt as **–sion**.	division, invasion, confusion, decision, collision, television
The suffix –ous	Sometimes the root word is obvious and the usual rules apply for adding suffixes beginning with vowel letters.	poisonous, dangerous, mountainous, famous, various
	Sometimes there is no obvious root word.	tremendous, enormous, jealous
	–our is changed to **–or** before **–ous** is added.	humorous, glamorous, vigorous
	A final 'e' of the root word must be kept if the /dʒ/ sound of 'g' is to be kept.	courageous, outrageous
	If there is an /iː/ sound before the **–ous** ending, it is usually spelt as **i**, but a few words have **e**.	serious, obvious, curious
		hideous, spontaneous, courteous

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Endings which sound like /ʃən/, spelt –tion, –sion, –ssion, –cian	Strictly speaking, the suffixes are **–ion** and **–ian**. Clues about whether to put **t**, **s**, **ss** or **c** before these suffixes often come from the last letter or letters of the root word.	
	–tion is the most common spelling. It is used if the root word ends in **t** or **te**.	invention, injection, action, hesitation, completion
	–ssion is used if the root word ends in **ss** or **–mit**.	expression, discussion, confession, permission, admission
	–sion is used if the root word ends in **d** or **se**. **Exceptions**: *attend – attention, intend – intention.*	expansion, extension, comprehension, tension
	–cian is used if the root word ends in **c** or **cs**.	musician, electrician, magician, politician, mathematician
Words with the /k/ sound spelt ch (Greek in origin)		scheme, chorus, chemist, echo, character
Words with the /ʃ/ sound spelt ch (mostly French in origin)		chef, chalet, machine, brochure
Words ending with the /g/ sound spelt –gue and the /k/ sound spelt –que (French in origin)		league, tongue, antique, unique
Words with the /s/ sound spelt sc (Latin in origin)	In the Latin words from which these words come, the Romans probably pronounced the **c** and the **k** as two sounds rather than one – /s/ /k/.	science, scene, discipline, fascinate, crescent
Words with the /eɪ/ sound spelt ei, eigh, or ey		vein, weigh, eight, neighbour, they, obey

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

Word list – years 3 and 4

accident(ally)	early	knowledge	purpose
actual(ly)	earth	learn	quarter
address	eight/eighth	length	question
answer	enough	library	recent
appear	exercise	material	regular
arrive	experience	medicine	reign
believe	experiment	mention	remember
bicycle	extreme	minute	sentence
breath	famous	natural	separate
breathe	favourite	naughty	special
build	February	notice	straight
busy/business	forward(s)	occasion(ally)	strange
calendar	fruit	often	strength
caught	grammar	opposite	suppose
centre	group	ordinary	surprise
century	guard	particular	therefore
certain	guide	peculiar	though/although
circle	heard	perhaps	thought
complete	heart	popular	through
consider	height	position	various
continue	history	possess(ion)	weight
decide	imagine	possible	woman/women
describe	increase	potatoes	
different	important	pressure	
difficult	interest	probably	
disappear	island	promise	

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Teachers should continue to emphasise to pupils the relationships between sounds and letters, even when the relationships are unusual. Once root words are learnt in this way, longer words can be spelt correctly, if the rules and guidance for adding prefixes and suffixes are also known.

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**.

International Phonetic Alphabet (non-statutory)

The table below shows each symbol of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) and provides examples of the associated grapheme(s).[1] The table is not a comprehensive alphabetic code chart; it is intended simply as guidance for teachers in understanding the IPA symbols used in the spelling appendix (English Appendix 1). The pronunciations in the table are, by convention, based on Received Pronunciation and could be significantly different in other accents.

Consonants	
/b/	**b**ad
/d/	**d**og
/ð/	**th**is
/dʒ/	**g**em, **j**ug
/f/	i**f**, pu**ff**, **ph**oto
/g/	**g**um
/h/	**h**ow
/j/	**y**es
/k/	**c**at, che**ck**, **k**ey, s**ch**ool
/l/	**l**eg, hi**ll**
/m/	**m**an
/n/	ma**n**
/ŋ/	si**ng**
/θ/	bo**th**
/p/	**p**et
/r/	**r**ed
/s/	**s**it, mi**ss**, **c**ell
/ʃ/	**sh**e, **ch**ef
/t/	**t**ea
/tʃ/	**ch**eck
/v/	**v**et
/w/	**w**et, **wh**en
/z/	**z**ip, hen**s**, bu**zz**
/ʒ/	plea**s**ure

Vowels	
/ɑː/	f**a**ther, **ar**m
/ɒ/	h**o**t
/æ/	c**a**t
/aɪ/	m**i**nd, f**i**n**e**, p**ie**, h**igh**
/aʊ/	**ou**t, c**ow**
/ɛ/	h**e**n, h**ea**d
/eɪ/	s**ay**, c**a**m**e**, b**ai**t
/ɛə/	**air**
/əʊ/	c**o**ld, b**oa**t, c**o**n**e**, bl**ow**
/ɪ/	h**i**t
/ɪə/	b**eer**
/iː/	sh**e**, b**ea**d, s**ee**, sch**e**m**e**, ch**ie**f
/ɔː/	l**au**nch, r**aw**, b**or**n
/ɔɪ/	c**oi**n, b**oy**
/ʊ/	b**oo**k
/ʊə/	t**our**
/uː/	r**oo**m, y**ou**, bl**ue**, br**u**t**e**
/ʌ/	c**u**p
/ɜː/	f**er**n, t**ur**n, g**ir**l
/ə/	farm**er**

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[1] This chart is adapted slightly from the version provided on the DfE's website to support the Year 1 phonics screening check.

English Appendix 2: Vocabulary, grammar and punctuation

The grammar of our first language is learnt naturally and implicitly through interactions with other speakers and from reading. Explicit knowledge of grammar is, however, very important, as it gives us more conscious control and choice in our language. Building this knowledge is best achieved through a focus on grammar within the teaching of reading, writing and speaking. Once pupils are familiar with a grammatical concept [for example 'modal verb'], they should be encouraged to apply and explore this concept in the grammar of their own speech and writing and to note where it is used by others. Young pupils, in particular, use more complex language in speech than in writing, and teachers should build on this, aiming for a smooth transition to sophisticated writing.

The table below focuses on Standard English and should be read in conjunction with the programmes of study as it sets out the statutory requirements. The table shows when concepts should be introduced first, not necessarily when they should be completely understood. It is very important, therefore, that the content in earlier years be revisited in subsequent years to consolidate knowledge and build on pupils' understanding. Teachers should also go beyond the content set out here if they feel it is appropriate.

The grammatical terms that pupils should learn are labelled as 'terminology for pupils'. They should learn to recognise and use the terminology through discussion and practice. All terms in **bold** should be understood with the meanings set out in the Glossary.

Vocabulary, grammar and punctuation – Years 3 & 4

Year 3: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Word	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, <u>*a*</u> *rock*, <u>*an*</u> *open box*]
	Word families based on common **words**, showing how words are related in form and meaning [for example, *solve, solution, solver, dissolve, insoluble*]
Sentence	Expressing time, place and cause using **conjunctions** [for example, *when*, *before*, *after*, *while*, *so*, *because*], **adverbs** [for example, *then*, *next*, *soon*, *therefore*], or **prepositions** [for example, *before*, *after*, *during*, *in*, *because of*]
Text	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*]
Punctuation	Introduction to inverted commas to **punctuate** direct speech
Terminology for pupils	preposition conjunction
	word family, prefix
	clause, subordinate clause
	direct speech
	consonant, consonant letter vowel, vowel letter
	inverted commas (or 'speech marks')

Year 4: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Word	The grammatical difference between **plural** and **possessive** *–s*
	Standard English forms for **verb inflections** instead of local spoken forms [for example, *we were* instead of *we was*, or *I did* instead of *I done*]
Sentence	Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and preposition phrases (e.g. *the teacher* expanded to: *the strict maths teacher with curly hair*)
	Fronted adverbials [for example, <u>*Later that day*</u>, *I heard the bad news.*]

Year 4: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Text	Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme
	Appropriate choice of **pronoun** or **noun** within and across **sentences** to aid **cohesion** and avoid repetition
Punctuation	Use of inverted commas and other **punctuation** to indicate direct speech [for example, a comma after the reporting clause; end punctuation within inverted commas: *The conductor shouted, "Sit down!"*]
	Apostrophes to mark **plural** possession [for example, *the girl's name*, *the girls' names*]
	Use of commas after **fronted adverbials**
Terminology for pupils	determiner
	pronoun, possessive pronoun
	adverbial

Glossary for the programmes of study for English (non-statutory)

The following glossary includes all the technical grammatical terms used in the programmes of study for English, as well as others that might be useful. It is intended as an aid for teachers, not as the body of knowledge that should be learnt by pupils. Apart from a few which are used only in schools (for example, *root word*), the terms below are used with the meanings defined here in most modern books on English grammar. It is recognised that there are different schools of thought on grammar, but the terms defined here clarify those being used in the programmes of study. For further details, teachers should consult the many books that are available.

Terms in definitions

As in any tightly structured area of knowledge, grammar, vocabulary and spelling involve a network of technical concepts that help to define each other. Consequently, the definition of one concept builds on other concepts that are equally technical. Concepts that are defined elsewhere in the glossary are hyperlinked. For some concepts, the technical definition may be slightly different from the meaning that some teachers may have learnt at school or may have been using with their own pupils; in these cases, the more familiar meaning is also discussed.

Term	Guidance	Example
active voice	An active verb has its usual pattern of subject and object (in contrast with the passive).	Active: *The school arranged a visit.* Passive: *A visit was arranged* by the school.
adjective	The surest way to identify adjectives is by the ways they can be used: ▪ before a noun, to make the noun's meaning more specific (i.e. to modify the noun), or ▪ after the verb *be*, as its complement. Adjectives cannot be modified by other adjectives. This distinguishes them from nouns, which can be. Adjectives are sometimes called 'describing words' because they pick out single characteristics such as size or colour. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adjectives from other word classes,	*The pupils did some really good work.* [adjective used before a noun, to modify it] *Their work was good.* [adjective used after the verb *be*, as its complement] Not adjectives: *The lamp glowed.* [verb] *It was such a bright red!* [noun] *He spoke loudly.* [adverb] *It was a French grammar book.* [noun]

Term	Guidance	Example
	because verbs, nouns and adverbs can do the same thing.	
adverb	The surest way to identify adverbs is by the ways they can be used: they can modify a verb, an adjective, another adverb or even a whole clause. Adverbs are sometimes said to describe manner or time. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adverbs from other word classes that can be used as adverbials, such as preposition phrases, noun phrases and subordinate clauses.	*Usha soon started snoring loudly.* [adverbs modifying the verbs *started* and *snoring*] *That match was really exciting!* [adverb modifying the adjective *exciting*] *We don't get to play games very often.* [adverb modifying the other adverb, *often*] *Fortunately, it didn't rain.* [adverb modifying the whole clause 'it didn't rain' by commenting on it] Not adverbs: ▪ *Usha went up the stairs.* [preposition phrase used as adverbial] ▪ *She finished her work this evening.* [noun phrase used as adverbial] ▪ *She finished when the teacher got cross.* [subordinate clause used as adverbial]
adverbial	An adverbial is a word or phrase that is used, like an adverb, to modify a verb or clause. Of course, adverbs can be used as adverbials, but many other types of words and phrases can be used this way, including preposition phrases and subordinate clauses.	The *bus leaves in five minutes.* [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies *leaves*] *She promised to see him last night.* [noun phrase modifying either *promised* or *see,* according to the intended meaning] *She worked until she had finished.* [subordinate clause as adverbial]
antonym	Two words are antonyms if their meanings are opposites.	*hot – cold* *light – dark* *light – heavy*
apostrophe	Apostrophes have two completely different uses: ▪ showing the place of missing letters (e.g. *I'm* for *I am*)	*I'm going out and I won't be long.* [showing missing letters] *Hannah's mother went to town in Justin's car.* [marking possessives]

Term	Guidance	Example
	▪ marking possessives (e.g. *Hannah's mother*).	
article	The articles *the* (definite) and *a* or *an* (indefinite) are the most common type of determiner.	*The dog found a bone in an old box.*
auxiliary verb	The auxiliary verbs are: *be, have, do* and the modal verbs. They can be used to make questions and negative statements. In addition: ▪ *be* is used in the progressive and passive ▪ *have* is used in the perfect ▪ *do* is used to form questions and negative statements if no other auxiliary verb is present	*They are winning the match.* [*be* used in the progressive] *Have you finished your picture?* [*have* used to make a question, and the perfect] *No, I don't know him.* [*do* used to make a negative; no other auxiliary is present] *Will you come with me or not?* [modal verb *will* used to make a question about the other person's willingness]
clause	A clause is a special type of phrase whose head is a verb. Clauses can sometimes be complete sentences. Clauses may be main or subordinate. Traditionally, a clause had to have a finite verb, but most modern grammarians also recognise non-finite clauses.	*It was raining.* [single-clause sentence] *It was raining but we were indoors.* [two finite clauses] *If you are coming to the party, please let us know.* [finite subordinate clause inside a finite main clause] *Usha went upstairs to play on her computer.* [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 together. In other words, they create cohesion.	*Julia's dad bought her a football. The football was expensive!* [determiner; refers us back to a particular football]

Term	Guidance	Example
	Some examples of cohesive devices are: • determiners and pronouns, which can refer back to earlier words • conjunctions and adverbs, which can make relations between words clear • ellipsis of expected words.	*Joe was given a bike for Christmas. He liked it very much.* [the pronouns refer back to Joe and the bike] *We'll be going shopping before we go to the park.* [conjunction; makes a relationship of time clear] *I'm afraid we're going to have to wait for the next train. Meanwhile, we could have a cup of tea.* [adverb; refers back to the time of waiting] *Where are you going? [_] To school!* [ellipsis of the expected words *I'm going*; links the answer back to the question]
complement	A verb's subject complement adds more information about its subject, and its object complement does the same for its object. Unlike the verb's object, its complement may be an adjective. The verb *be* normally has a complement.	*She is our teacher.* [adds more information about the subject, *she*] *They seem very competent.* [adds more information about the subject, *they*] *Learning makes me happy.* [adds more information about the object, *me*]
compound, compounding	A compound word contains at least two root words in its morphology; e.g. *whiteboard, superman.* Compounding is very important in English.	*blackbird, blow-dry, bookshop, ice-cream, English teacher, inkjet, one-eyed, bone-dry, baby-sit, daydream, outgrow*
conjunction	A conjunction links two words or phrases together. There are two main types of conjunctions: • co-ordinating conjunctions (e.g. *and*) link two words or phrases together as an equal pair • subordinating conjunctions (e.g. *when*) introduce a subordinate clause.	*James bought a bat and ball.* [links the words *bat* and *ball* as an equal pair] *Kylie is young but she can kick the ball hard.* [links two clauses as an equal pair] *Everyone watches when Kyle does back-flips.* [introduces a subordinate clause] *Joe can't practise kicking because he's injured.* [introduces a subordinate clause]

Term	Guidance	Example
consonant	A sound which is produced when the speaker closes off or obstructs the flow of air through the vocal tract, usually using lips, tongue or teeth. Most of the letters of the alphabet represent consonants. Only the letters *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u* and *y* can represent vowel sounds.	/p/ [flow of air stopped by the lips, then released] /t/ [flow of air stopped by the tongue touching the roof of the mouth, then released] /f/ [flow of air obstructed by the bottom lip touching the top teeth] /s/ [flow of air obstructed by the tip of the tongue touching the gum line]
continuous	See progressive	
co-ordinate, co-ordination	Words or phrases are co-ordinated if they are linked as an equal pair by a co-ordinating conjunction (i.e. *and, but, or*). In the examples on the right, the co-ordinated elements are shown in bold, and the conjunction is underlined. The difference between co-ordination and subordination is that, in subordination, the two linked elements are not equal.	***Susan*** <u>and</u> ***Amra*** *met in a café.* [links the words *Susan* and *Amra* as an equal pair] ***They talked*** <u>and</u> ***drank tea*** *for an hour.* [links two clauses as an equal pair] ***Susan got a bus*** <u>but</u> ***Amra walked***. [links two clauses as an equal pair] Not co-ordination: *They ate* <u>before</u> *they met.* [*before* introduces a subordinate clause]
determiner	A determiner specifies a noun as known or unknown, and it goes before any modifiers (e.g. adjectives or other nouns). Some examples of determiners are: ▪ articles (*the*, *a* or *an*) ▪ demonstratives (e.g. *this*, *those*) ▪ possessives (e.g. *my*, *your*) ▪ quantifiers (e.g. *some*, *every*).	<u>the</u> *home team* [article, specifies the team as known] <u>a</u> *good team* [article, specifies the team as unknown] <u>that</u> *pupil* [demonstrative, known] <u>Julia's</u> *parents* [possessive, known] <u>some</u> *big boys* [quantifier, unknown] Contrast: *home* <u>the</u> *team, big* <u>some</u> *boys* [both incorrect, because the determiner should come before other modifiers]
digraph	A type of grapheme where two letters represent one phoneme. Sometimes, these two letters are not next to one another; this is called a	The digraph <u>ea</u> in <u>each</u> is pronounced /iː/. The digraph <u>sh</u> in <u>shed</u> is pronounced /ʃ/.

Term	Guidance	Example
	split digraph.	The split digraph *i–e* in *line* is pronounced /aɪ/.
ellipsis	Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.	*Frankie waved to Ivana and ~~she~~ watched her drive away.* *She did it because she wanted to ~~do it~~.*
etymology	A word's etymology is its history: its origins in earlier forms of English or other languages, and how its form and meaning have changed. Many words in English have come from Greek, Latin or French.	The word *school* was borrowed from a Greek word *ό÷ïëÞ* (*skholé*) meaning 'leisure'. The word *verb* comes from Latin *verbum*, meaning 'word'. The word *mutton* comes from French *mouton*, meaning 'sheep'.
finite verb	Every sentence typically has at least one verb which is either past or present tense. Such verbs are called 'finite'. The imperative verb in a command is also finite. Verbs that are not finite, such as participles or infinitives, cannot stand on their own: they are linked to another verb in the sentence.	*Lizzie <u>does</u> the dishes every day.* [present tense] *Even Hana <u>did</u> the dishes yesterday.* [past tense] *<u>Do</u> the dishes, Naser!* [imperative] Not finite verbs: ■ *I have <u>done</u> them.* [combined with the finite verb *have*] ■ *I will <u>do</u> them.* [combined with the finite verb *will*] ■ *I want to <u>do</u> them!* [combined with the finite verb *want*]
fronting, fronted	A word or phrase that normally comes after the verb may be moved before the verb: when this happens, we say it has been 'fronted'. For example, a fronted adverbial is an adverbial which has been moved before the verb. When writing fronted phrases, we often follow them with a comma.	*<u>Before we begin</u>, make sure you've got a pencil.* [Without fronting: *Make sure you've got a pencil before we begin.*] *<u>The day after tomorrow</u>, I'm visiting my granddad.* [Without fronting: *I'm visiting my granddad the day after tomorrow.*]
future	Reference to future time can be marked in a number of different ways in English. All these ways involve the use of a present-tense verb. See also tense. Unlike many other languages (such	*He <u>will leave</u> tomorrow.* [present-tense *will* followed by infinitive *leave*] *He <u>may leave</u> tomorrow.* [present-tense *may* followed by infinitive *leave*]

Term	Guidance	Example
	as French, Spanish or Italian), English has no distinct 'future tense' form of the verb comparable with its present and past tenses.	*He leaves tomorrow.* [present-tense *leaves*] *He is going to leave tomorrow.* [present tense *is* followed by *going to* plus the infinitive *leave*]
GPC	See grapheme-phoneme correspondences.	
grapheme	A letter, or combination of letters, that corresponds to a single phoneme within a word.	The grapheme *t* in the words *ten*, *bet* and *ate* corresponds to the phoneme /t/. The grapheme *ph* in the word *dolphin* corresponds to the phoneme /f/.
grapheme-phoneme correspondences	The links between letters, or combinations of letters (graphemes) and the speech sounds (phonemes) that they represent. In the English writing system, graphemes may correspond to different phonemes in different words.	The grapheme *s* corresponds to the phoneme /s/ in the word *see*, but… …it corresponds to the phoneme /z/ in the word *easy*.
head	See phrase.	
homonym	Two different words are homonyms if they both look exactly the same when written, and sound exactly the same when pronounced.	*Has he left yet? Yes – he went through the door on the left.* *The noise a dog makes is called a bark. Trees have bark.*
homophone	Two different words are homophones if they sound exactly the same when pronounced.	*hear*, *here* *some*, *sum*
infinitive	A verb's infinitive is the basic form used as the head-word in a dictionary (e.g. *walk, be*). Infinitives are often used: ▪ after *to* ▪ after modal verbs.	*I want to walk.* *I will be quiet.*
inflection	When we add *-ed* to *walk*, or change *mouse* to *mice*, this change of morphology produces an inflection ('bending') of the basic word which has special grammar (e.g. past tense	*dogs* is an inflection of *dog.* *went* is an inflection of *go.* *better* is an inflection of *good.*

Term	Guidance	Example
	or plural). In contrast, adding -er to walk produces a completely different word, walker, which is part of the same word family. Inflection is sometimes thought of as merely a change of ending, but, in fact, some words change completely when inflected.	
intransitive verb	A verb which does not need an object in a sentence to complete its meaning is described as intransitive. See 'transitive verb'.	We all _laughed_. We would like to stay longer, but we must _leave_.
main clause	A sentence contains at least one clause which is not a subordinate clause; such a clause is a main clause. A main clause may contain any number of subordinate clauses.	_It was raining but the sun was shining_. [two main clauses] _The man **who wrote it** told me **that it was true**_. [one main clause containing two subordinate clauses.] _She said, "It rained all day."_ [one main clause containing another.]
modal verb	Modal verbs are used to change the meaning of other verbs. They can express meanings such as certainty, ability, or obligation. The main modal verbs are _will, would, can, could, may, might, shall, should, must_ and _ought_. A modal verb only has finite forms and has no suffixes (e.g. _I sing – he sings_, but not _I must – he musts_).	_I can do this maths work by myself._ _This ride may be too scary for you!_ _You should help your little brother._ _Is it going to rain? Yes, it might._ _Canning swim is important._ [not possible because _can_ must be finite; contrast: _Being able to swim is important_, where _being_ is not a modal verb]
modify, modifier	One word or phrase modifies another by making its meaning more specific. Because the two words make a phrase, the 'modifier' is normally close to the modified word.	In the phrase _primary-school teacher_: ▪ _teacher_ is modified by _primary-school_ (to mean a specific kind of teacher) ▪ _school_ is modified by _primary_ (to mean a specific kind of school).
morphology	A word's morphology is its internal make-up in terms of root words and suffixes or prefixes, as well as other kinds of change such as the change	_dogs_ has the morphological make-up: _dog + s_. _unhelpfulness_ has the

Term	Guidance	Example
	of *mouse* to *mice*. Morphology may be used to produce different inflections of the same word (e.g. *boy – boys*), or entirely new words (e.g. *boy – boyish*) belonging to the same word family. A word that contains two or more root words is a compound (e.g*. news+paper, ice+cream*).	morphological make-up: *unhelpful + ness* ▪ where *unhelpful = un + helpful* ▪ and *helpful = help + ful*
noun	The surest way to identify nouns is by the ways they can be used after determiners such as *the*: for example, most nouns will fit into the frame "The __ matters/matter." Nouns are sometimes called 'naming words' because they name people, places and 'things'; this is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish nouns from other word classes. For example, prepositions can name places and verbs can name 'things' such as actions. Nouns may be classified as **common** (e.g. *boy, day*) or **proper** (e.g. *Ivan*, *Wednesday*), and also as **countable** (e.g. *thing, boy*) or **non-countable** (e.g. *stuff, money*). These classes can be recognised by the determiners they combine with.	*Our dog bit the burglar on his behind!* *My big brother did an amazing jump on his skateboard.* *Actions speak louder than words.* Not nouns: ▪ *He's behind you!* [this names a place, but is a preposition, not a noun] ▪ *She can jump so high!* [this names an action, but is a verb, not a noun] common, countable: *a book, books, two chocolates, one day, fewer ideas* common, non-countable: *money, some chocolate, less imagination* proper, countable: *Marilyn, London, Wednesday*
noun phrase	A noun phrase is a phrase with a noun as its head, e.g. *some foxes, foxes with bushy tails*. Some grammarians recognise one-word phrases, so that *foxes are multiplying* would contain the noun *foxes* acting as the head of the noun phrase *foxes*.	*Adult foxes can jump.* [*adult* modifies *foxes*, so *adult* belongs to the noun phrase] *Almost all healthy adult foxes in this area can jump.* [all the other words help to modify *foxes*, so they all belong to the noun phrase]
object	An object is normally a noun, pronoun or noun phrase that comes straight after the verb, and shows what the verb is acting upon. Objects can be turned into the	*Year 2 designed puppets.* [noun acting as object] *I like that.* [pronoun acting as object]

Term	Guidance	Example
	subject of a passive verb, and cannot be adjectives (contrast with complements).	Some people suggested <u>a pretty display</u>. [noun phrase acting as object] Contrast: - *A display was suggested.* [object of active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb] - *Year 2 designed pretty.* [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]
participle	Verbs in English have two participles, called 'present participle' (e.g. *walking, taking*) and 'past participle' (e.g. *walked, taken*). Unfortunately, these terms can be confusing to learners, because: - they don't necessarily have anything to do with present or past time - although past participles are used as perfects (e.g. *has eaten*) they are also used as passives (e.g. *was eaten*).	*He is <u>walking</u> to school.* [present participle in a progressive] *He has <u>taken</u> the bus to school.* [past participle in a perfect] *The photo was <u>taken</u> in the rain.* [past participle in a passive]
passive	The sentence *It was eaten by our dog* is the passive of *Our dog ate it.* A passive is recognisable from: - the past participle form *eaten* - the normal object (*it*) turned into the subject - the normal subject (*our dog*) turned into an optional preposition phrase with *by* as its head - the verb *be*(*was*), or some other verb such as *get*. Contrast active. A verb is not 'passive' just because it has a passive meaning: it must be the passive version of an active verb.	*A visit was <u>arranged</u> by the school.* *Our cat got <u>run</u> over by a bus.* Active versions: - *The school arranged a visit.* - *A bus ran over our cat.* Not passive: - *He received a warning.* [past tense, active *received*] - *We had an accident.* [past tense, active *had*]
past tense	Verbs in the past tense are commonly used to:	*Tom and Chris <u>showed</u> me their new TV.* [names an event in the

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	▪ talk about the past ▪ talk about imagined situations ▪ make a request sound more polite. Most verbs take a [suffix] –*ed*, to form their past tense, but many commonly-used verbs are irregular. See also [tense].	past] *Antonio <u>went</u> on holiday to Brazil.* [names an event in the past; irregular past of *go*] *I wish I <u>had</u> a puppy.* [names an imagined situation, not a situation in the past] *I <u>was</u> hoping you'd help tomorrow.* [makes an implied request sound more polite]
perfect	The perfect form of a [verb] generally calls attention to the consequences of a prior event; for example, *he has gone to lunch* implies that he is still away, in contrast with *he went to lunch*. 'Had gone to lunch' takes a past time point (i.e. when we arrived) as its reference point and is another way of establishing time relations in a text. The perfect tense is formed by: ▪ turning the verb into its past [participle inflection] ▪ adding a form of the verb *have* before it. It can also be combined with the [progressive] (e.g. *he has been going*).	*She <u>has downloaded</u> some songs.* [present perfect; now she has some songs] *I <u>had eaten</u> lunch when you came.* [past perfect; I wasn't hungry when you came]
phoneme	A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that signals a distinct, contrasting meaning. For example: ▪ /t/ contrasts with /k/ to signal the difference between *tap* and *cap* ▪ /t/ contrasts with /l/ to signal the difference between *bought* and *ball*. It is this contrast in meaning that tells us there are two distinct phonemes at work. There are around 44 phonemes in English; the exact number depends on regional accents. A single	The word *cat* has three letters and three phonemes: /kæt/ The word *catch* has five letters and three phonemes: /katʃ/ The word *caught* has six letters and three phonemes: /kɔːt/

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	phoneme may be represented in writing by one, two, three or four letters constituting a single grapheme.	
phrase	A phrase is a group of words that are grammatically connected so that they stay together, and that expand a single word, called the 'head'. The phrase is a noun phrase if its head is a noun, a preposition phrase if its head is a preposition, and so on; but if the head is a verb, the phrase is called a clause. Phrases can be made up of other phrases.	*She waved to <u>her mother</u>.* [a noun phrase, with the noun *mother* as its head] *She waved <u>to her mother</u>.* [a preposition phrase, with the preposition *to* as its head] <u>*She waved to her mother*</u>. [a clause, with the verb *waved* as its head]
plural	A plural noun normally has a suffix – *s* or –*es* and means 'more than one'. There are a few nouns with different morphology in the plural (e.g. *mice, formulae*).	<u>*dogs*</u> [more than one dog]*;* <u>*boxes*</u> [more than one box] <u>*mice*</u> [more than one mouse]
possessive	A possessive can be: ▪ a noun followed by an apostrophe, with or without *s* ▪ a possessive pronoun. The relation expressed by a possessive goes well beyond ordinary ideas of 'possession'. A possessive may act as a determiner.	<u>*Tariq's*</u> *book* [Tariq has the book] *The <u>boys'</u> arrival* [the boys arrive] <u>*His*</u> *obituary* [the obituary is about him] *That essay is <u>mine</u>.* [I wrote the essay]
prefix	A prefix is added at the beginning of a word in order to turn it into another word. Contrast suffix.	<u>*over*</u>*take,* <u>*dis*</u>*appear*
preposition	A preposition links a following noun, pronoun or noun phrase to some other word in the sentence. Prepositions often describe locations or directions, but can describe other things, such as relations of time. Words like *before* or *since* can act either as prepositions or as conjunctions.	*Tom waved goodbye <u>to</u> Christy. She'll be back <u>from</u> Australia <u>in</u> two weeks.* *I haven't seen my dog <u>since</u> this morning.* Contrast: *I'm going, <u>since</u> no-one wants me here!* [conjunction: links two clauses]

Term	Guidance	Example
preposition phrase	A preposition phrase has a preposition as its head followed by a noun, pronoun or noun phrase.	*He was <u>in bed</u>.* *I met them <u>after the party</u>.*
present tense	<u>Verbs</u> in the present tense are commonly used to: ▪ talk about the present ▪ talk about the <u>future</u>. They may take a suffix –*s* (depending on the <u>subject</u>). See also <u>tense</u>.	*Jamal <u>goes</u> to the pool every day.* [describes a habit that exists now] *He <u>can</u> swim.* [describes a state that is true now] *The bus <u>arrives</u> at three.* [scheduled now] *My friends <u>are</u> coming to play.* [describes a plan in progress now]
progressive	The progressive (also known as the 'continuous') form of a <u>verb</u> generally describes events in progress. It is formed by combining the verb's present <u>participle</u> (e.g. *singing*) with a form of the verb *be* (e.g. *he was singing*). The progressive can also be combined with the <u>perfect</u> (e.g. *he has been singing*).	*Michael <u>is singing</u> in the store room.* [present progressive] *Amanda <u>was making</u> a patchwork quilt.* [past progressive] *Usha <u>had been practising</u> for an hour when I called.* [past perfect progressive]
pronoun	Pronouns are normally used like <u>nouns</u>, except that: ▪ they are grammatically more specialised ▪ 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.	***Amanda** waved to **Michael**.* *<u>**She**</u> waved to <u>**him**</u>.* ***John's** mother is over there. <u>**His**</u> mother is over there.* *The **visit** will be an overnight **visit**. <u>**This**</u> will be an overnight **visit**.* ***Simon** is the person: **Simon** broke <u>it</u>. <u>**He**</u> is the one <u>**who**</u> broke it.*
punctuation	Punctuation includes any conventional features of writing other than spelling and general layout: the standard punctuation marks . , ; : ? ! - – ( ) " " ' ' , and also word-spaces, capital letters, apostrophes, paragraph breaks and bullet points. One important role of punctuation is to indicate <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	

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	minority of English speakers in England. It is not associated with any one region. Because of its regional neutrality, it is the accent which is generally shown in dictionaries in the UK (but not, of course, in the USA). RP has no special status in the national curriculum.	
register	Classroom lessons, football commentaries and novels use different registers of the same language, recognised by differences of vocabulary and grammar. Registers are 'varieties' of a language which are each tied to a range of uses, in contrast with dialects, which are tied to groups of users.	*I regret to inform you that Mr Joseph Smith has passed away.* [formal letter] *Have you heard that Joe has died?* [casual speech] *Joe falls down and dies, centre stage.* [stage direction]
relative clause	A relative clause is a special type of subordinate clause that modifies a noun. It often does this by using a relative pronoun such as *who* or *that* to refer back to that noun, though the relative pronoun *that* is often omitted. A relative clause may also be attached to a clause. In that case, the pronoun refers back to the whole clause, rather than referring back to a noun. In the examples, the relative clauses are underlined, and both the pronouns and the words they refer back to are in bold.	*That's the **boy <u>who</u> <u>lives near school</u>.* [*who* refers back to *boy*] *The **prize** <u>**that** I won</u> was a book.* [*that* refers back to *prize*] *The **prize** <u>I won</u> was a book.* [the pronoun *that* is omitted] ***Tom broke the game**, <u>**which annoyed Ali**</u>.* [*which* refers back to the whole clause]
root word	Morphology breaks words down into root words, which can stand alone, and suffixes or prefixes which can't. For example, *help* is the root word for other words in its word family such as *helpful* and *helpless*, and also for its inflections such as *helping.* Compound words (e.g. *help-desk*) contain two or more root words. When looking in a dictionary, we sometimes have to look for the	*<u>play</u>ed* [the root word is *play*] *un<u>fair</u>* [the root word is *fair*] *football* [the root words are *foot* and *ball*]

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	root word (or words) of the word we are interested in.	
schwa	The name of a vowel sound that is found only in unstressed positions in English. It is the most common vowel sound in English. It is written as /ə/ in the International Phonetic Alphabet. In the English writing system, it can be written in many different ways.	/əlɒŋ/ [_along_] /bʌtə/ [_butter_] /dɒktə/ [_doctor_]
sentence	A sentence is a group of words which are grammatically connected to each other but not to any words outside the sentence. The form of a sentence's main clause shows whether it is being used as a statement, a question, a command or an exclamation. A sentence may consist of a single clause or it may contain several clauses held together by subordination or co-ordination. Classifying sentences as 'simple', 'complex' or 'compound' can be confusing, because a 'simple' sentence may be complicated, and a 'complex' one may be straightforward. The terms **'single-clause sentence'** and **'multi-clause sentence'** may be more helpful.	_John went to his friend's house_. _He stayed there till tea-time_. _John went to his friend's house, he stayed there till tea-time._ [This is a 'comma splice', a common error in which a comma is used where either a full stop or a semi-colon is needed to indicate the lack of any grammatical connection between the two clauses.] _You are my friend._ [statement] _Are you my friend?_ [question] _Be my friend!_ [command] _What a good friend you are!_ [exclamation] _Ali went home on his bike to his goldfish and his current library book about pets._ [single-clause sentence] _She went shopping but took back everything she had bought because she didn't like any of it._ [multi-clause sentence]
split digraph	See digraph.	
Standard English	Standard English can be recognised by the use of a very small range of forms such as _those books, I did it_ and _I wasn't doing anything_ (rather than their non-Standard equivalents); it is not limited to any particular accent. It is the variety of English which is used, with only minor	_I did it because they were not willing to undertake any more work on those houses._ [formal Standard English] _I did it cos they wouldn't do any more work on those houses._ [casual Standard English]

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	variation, as a major world language. Some people use Standard English all the time, in all situations from the most casual to the most formal, so it covers most registers. The aim of the national curriculum is that everyone should be able to use Standard English as needed in writing and in relatively formal speaking.	*I done it cos they wouldn't do no more work on them houses.* [casual non-Standard English]
stress	A syllable is stressed if it is pronounced more forcefully than the syllables next to it. The other syllables are unstressed.	*a<u>bout</u>* *<u>vis</u>it*
subject	The subject of a verb is normally the noun, noun phrase or pronoun that names the 'do-er' or 'be-er'. The subject's normal position is: ▪ just before the verb in a statement ▪ just after the auxiliary verb, in a question. Unlike the verb's object and complement, the subject can determine the form of the verb (e.g. *I am*, *you are*).	*<u>Rula's mother</u> went out.* *<u>That</u> is uncertain.* *<u>The children</u> will study the animals.* *Will <u>the children</u> study the animals?*
subjunctive	In some languages, the inflections of a verb include a large range of special forms which are used typically in subordinate clauses, and are called 'subjunctives'. English has very few such forms and those it has tend to be used in rather formal styles.	*The school requires that all pupils <u>be</u> honest.* *The school rules demand that pupils not <u>enter</u> the gym at lunchtime.* *If Zoë <u>were</u> the class president, things would be much better.*
subordinate, subordination	A subordinate word or phrase tells us more about the meaning of the word it is subordinate to. Subordination can be thought of as an unequal relationship between a subordinate word and a main word. For example: ▪ an adjective is subordinate to the noun it modifies ▪ subjects and objects are	*<u>big</u> dogs* [*big* is subordinate to *dogs*] *<u>Big dogs</u> need <u>long walks</u>.* [*big dogs* and *long walks* are subordinate to *need*] *We can watch TV <u>when we've finished</u>.* [*when we've finished* is subordinate to *watch*]

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

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	a future tense. (See also: future.) The simple tenses (present and past) may be combined in English with the perfect and progressive.	tense + infinitive – future time] *He plans to study tomorrow.* [present tense + infinitive – future time] *If he studied tomorrow, he'd see the difference!* [past tense – imagined future] Contrast three distinct tense forms in Spanish: ▪ *Estudia.* [present tense] ▪ *Estudió.* [past tense] ▪ *Estudiará.* [future tense]
transitive verb	A transitive verb takes at least one object in a sentence to complete its meaning, in contrast to an intransitive verb, which does not.	*He loves Juliet.* *She understands English grammar.*
trigraph	A type of grapheme where three letters represent one phoneme.	*High, pure, patch, hedge*
unstressed	See stressed.	
verb	The surest way to identify verbs is by the ways they can be used: they can usually have a tense, either present or past (see also future). Verbs are sometimes called 'doing words' because many verbs name an action that someone does; while this can be a way of recognising verbs, it doesn't distinguish verbs from nouns (which can also name actions). Moreover many verbs name states or feelings rather than actions. Verbs can be classified in various ways: for example, as auxiliary, or modal; as transitive or intransitive; and as states or events.	*He lives in Birmingham.* [present tense] *The teacher wrote a song for the class.* [past tense] *He likes chocolate.* [present tense; not an action] *He knew my father.* [past tense; not an action] Not verbs: ▪ *The walk to Halina's house will take an hour.* [noun] ▪ *All that surfing makes Morwenna so sleepy!* [noun]
vowel	A vowel is a speech sound which is produced without any closure or obstruction of the vocal tract. Vowels can form syllables by themselves, or they may combine with consonants. In the English writing system, the letters *a, e, i, o, u* and *y* can represent vowels.	

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