

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 year 1

Revision of reception work

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

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
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

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
-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
The /v/ sound at the end of words	English words hardly ever end with the letter v , so if a word ends with a /v/ sound, the letter e usually needs to be added after the 'v'.	have, live, give
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	<p>-ing and -er always add an extra syllable to the word and -ed sometimes does.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>If the verb ends in two consonant letters (the same or different), the ending is simply added on.</p>	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

Vowel digraphs and trigraphs

Some may already be known, depending on the programmes used in Reception, but some will be new.

Vowel digraphs and trigraphs	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
ai, oi	The digraphs ai and oi are virtually never used at the end of English words.	rain, wait, train, paid, afraid oil, join, coin, point, soil
ay, oy	ay and oy are used for those sounds at the end of words and at the end of syllables.	day, play, say, way, stay boy, toy, enjoy, annoy
a–e		made, came, same, take, safe
e–e		these, theme, complete
i–e		five, ride, like, time, side
o–e		home, those, woke, hope, hole
u–e	Both the /u:/ and /ju:/ ('oo' and 'yoo') sounds can be spelt as u–e .	June, rule, rude, use, tube, tune
ar		car, start, park, arm, garden
ee		see, tree, green, meet, week
ea (/i:/)		sea, dream, meat, each, read (present tense)
ea (/ɛ/)		head, bread, meant, instead, read (past tense)
er (/ɜ:/)		(stressed sound): her, term, verb, person
er (/ə/)		(unstressed <i>schwa</i> sound): better, under, summer, winter, sister
ir		girl, bird, shirt, first, third
ur		turn, hurt, church, burst, Thursday

Vowel digraphs and trigraphs	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
oo (/u:/)	Very few words end with the letters oo , although the few that do are often words that primary children in year 1 will encounter, for example, <i>zoo</i>	food, pool, moon, zoo, soon
oo (/ʊ/)		book, took, foot, wood, good
oa	The digraph oa is very rare at the end of an English word.	boat, coat, road, coach, goal
oe		toe, goes
ou	The only common English word ending in ou is <i>you</i> .	out, about, mouth, around, sound
ow (/aʊ/) ow (/əʊ/) ue ew	Both the /u:/ and /ju:/ ('oo' and 'yoo') sounds can be spelt as u-e , ue and ew . If words end in the /oo/ sound, ue and ew are more common spellings than oo .	now, how, brown, down, town own, blow, snow, grow, show blue, clue, true, rescue, Tuesday new, few, grew, flew, drew, threw
ie (/aɪ/)		lie, tie, pie, cried, tried, dried
ie (/i:/)		chief, field, thief
igh		high, night, light, bright, right
or		for, short, born, horse, morning
ore		more, score, before, wore, shore
aw		saw, draw, yawn, crawl
au		author, August, dinosaur, astronaut
air		air, fair, pair, hair, chair
ear		dear, hear, beard, near, year
ear (/ɛə/)		bear, pear, wear
are (/ɛə/)		bare, dare, care, share, scared

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Words ending –y (/i:/ or /ɪ/)		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. <i>fat, fill, fun</i>).	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
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

Spelling – work for year 2

Revision of work from year 1

As words with new GPCs are introduced, many previously-taught GPCs can be revised at the same time as these words will usually contain them.

New work for year 2

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

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
The /l/ or /əl/ sound spelt –el at the end of words	The –el spelling is much less common than –le . The –el spelling is used after m, n, r, s, v, w and more often than not after s .	camel, tunnel, squirrel, travel, towel, tinsel
The /l/ or /əl/ sound spelt –al at the end of words	Not many nouns end in –al , but many adjectives do.	metal, pedal, capital, hospital, animal
Words ending –il	There are not many of these words.	pencil, fossil, nostril
The /aɪ/ sound spelt –y at the end of words	This is by far the most common spelling for this sound at the end of words.	cry, fly, dry, try, reply, July
Adding –es to nouns and verbs ending in –y	The y is changed to i before –es is added.	flies, tries, replies, copies, babies, carries
Adding –ed, –ing, –er and –est to a root word ending in –y with a consonant before it	The y is changed to i before –ed, –er and –est are added, but not before –ing as this would result in ii . The only ordinary words with ii are <i>skiing</i> and <i>taxiing</i> .	copied, copier, happier, happiest, cried, replied ... but copying, crying, replying
Adding the endings –ing, –ed, –er, –est and –y to words ending in –e with a consonant before it	The –e at the end of the root word is dropped before –ing, –ed, –er, –est, –y or any other suffix beginning with a vowel letter is added. Exception: <i>being</i> .	hiking, hiked, hiker, nicer, nicest, shiny
Adding –ing, –ed, –er, –est and –y to words of one syllable ending in a single consonant letter after a single vowel letter	The last consonant letter of the root word is doubled to keep the /æ/, /ɛ/, /ɪ/, /ɒ/ and /ʌ/ sound (i.e. to keep the vowel ‘short’). Exception: The letter ‘x’ is never doubled: <i>mixing, mixed, boxer, sixes</i> .	patting, patted, humming, hummed, dropping, dropped, sadder, saddest, fatter, fattest, runner, runny
The /ɔ:/ sound spelt a before I and II	The /ɔ:/ sound (‘or’) is usually spelt as a before I and II .	all, ball, call, walk, talk, always
The /ʌ/ sound spelt o		other, mother, brother, nothing, Monday

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
The /i:/ sound spelt –ey	The plural of these words is formed by the addition of –s (<i>donkeys, monkeys, etc.</i>).	key, donkey, monkey, chimney, valley
The /b/ sound spelt a after w and qu	a is the most common spelling for the /b/ ('hot') sound after w and qu .	want, watch, wander, quantity, squash
The /ɜ:/ sound spelt or after w	There are not many of these words.	word, work, worm, world, worth
The /ɔ:/ sound spelt ar after w	There are not many of these words.	war, warm, towards
The /z/ sound spelt s		television, treasure, usual
The suffixes –ment, –ness, –ful, –less and –ly	<p>If a suffix starts with a consonant letter, it is added straight on to most root words without any change to the last letter of those words.</p> <p>Exceptions:</p> <p>(1) <i>argument</i></p> <p>(2) root words ending in –y with a consonant before it but only if the root word has more than one syllable.</p>	<p>enjoyment, sadness, careful, playful, hopeless, plainness (plain + ness), badly</p> <p>merriment, happiness, plentiful, penniless, happily</p>
Contractions	<p>In contractions, the apostrophe shows where a letter or letters would be if the words were written in full (e.g. <i>can't – cannot</i>).</p> <p><i>It's</i> means <i>it is</i> (e.g. <i>It's</i> raining) or sometimes <i>it has</i> (e.g. <i>It's</i> been raining), but <i>it's</i> is never used for the possessive.</p>	can't, didn't, hasn't, couldn't, it's, I'll
The possessive apostrophe (singular nouns)		Megan's, Ravi's, the girl's, the child's, the man's
Words ending in –tion		station, fiction, motion, national, section

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Homophones and near-homophones	It is important to know the difference in meaning between homophones.	there/their/they're, here/hear, quite/quiet, see/sea, bare/bear, one/won, sun/son, to/too/two, be/bee, blue/blew, night/knight
Common exception words	<p>Some words are exceptions in some accents but not in others – e.g. <i>past</i>, <i>last</i>, <i>fast</i>, <i>path</i> and <i>bath</i> are not exceptions in accents where the a in these words is pronounced /æ/, as in <i>cat</i>.</p> <p><i>Great</i>, <i>break</i> and <i>steak</i> are the only common words where the /eɪ/ sound is spelt ea.</p>	<p>door, floor, poor, because, find, kind, mind, behind, child, children*, wild, climb, most, only, both, old, cold, gold, hold, told, every, everybody, even, great, break, steak, pretty, beautiful, after, fast, last, past, father, class, grass, pass, plant, path, bath, hour, move, prove, improve, sure, sugar, eye, could, should, would, who, whole, any, many, clothes, busy, people, water, again, half, money, Mr, Mrs, parents, Christmas – and/or others according to programme used.</p> <p>Note: 'children' is not an exception to what has been taught so far but is included because of its relationship with 'child'.</p>

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

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

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
	<p>Exceptions:</p> <p>(1) If the root word ends in –y with a consonant letter before it, the y is changed to i, but only if the root word has more than one syllable.</p> <p>(2) If the root word ends with –le, the –le is changed to –ly.</p> <p>(3) If the root word ends with –ic, –ally is added rather than just –ly, except in the word <i>publicly</i>.</p> <p>(4) The words <i>truly</i>, <i>duly</i>, <i>wholly</i>.</p>	<p>happily, angrily</p> <p>gently, simply, humbly, nobly</p> <p>basically, frantically, dramatically</p>
Words with endings sounding like /ʒə/ or /tʃə/	<p>The ending sounding like /ʒə/ is always spelt –sure.</p> <p>The ending sounding like /tʃə/ is often spelt –ture, but check that the word is not a root word ending in (t)ch with an er ending – e.g. <i>teacher</i>, <i>catcher</i>, <i>richer</i>, <i>stretcher</i>.</p>	<p>measure, treasure, pleasure, enclosure</p> <p>creature, furniture, picture, nature, adventure</p>
Endings which sound like /ʒən/	<p>If the ending sounds like /ʒən/, it is spelt as –sion.</p>	<p>division, invasion, confusion, decision, collision, television</p>
The suffix –ous	<p>Sometimes the root word is obvious and the usual rules apply for adding suffixes beginning with vowel letters.</p> <p>Sometimes there is no obvious root word.</p> <p>–our is changed to –or before –ous is added.</p> <p>A final ‘e’ of the root word must be kept if the /dʒ/ sound of ‘g’ is to be kept.</p> <p>If there is an /i:/ sound before the –ous ending, it is usually spelt as i, but a few words have e.</p>	<p>poisonous, dangerous, mountainous, famous, various</p> <p>tremendous, enormous, jealous</p> <p>humorous, glamorous, vigorous</p> <p>courageous, outrageous</p> <p>serious, obvious, curious</p> <p>hideous, spontaneous, courteous</p>

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Endings which sound like /ʃən/, spelt –tion, –sion, –ssion, –cian	<p>Strictly speaking, the suffixes are –ion and –ian. Clues about whether to put t, s, ss or c before these suffixes often come from the last letter or letters of the root word.</p> <p>–tion is the most common spelling. It is used if the root word ends in t or te.</p> <p>–ssion is used if the root word ends in ss or –mit.</p> <p>–sion is used if the root word ends in d or se.</p> <p>Exceptions: <i>attend – attention, intend – intention.</i></p> <p>–cian is used if the root word ends in c or cs.</p>	<p>invention, injection, action, hesitation, completion</p> <p>expression, discussion, confession, permission, admission</p> <p>expansion, extension, comprehension, tension</p> <p>musician, electrician, magician, politician, mathematician</p>
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 <i>is</i> added if the plural does not end in -s (i.e. is an irregular plural – e.g. <i>children's</i>).	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**.

Spelling – years 5 and 6

Revise work done in previous years

New work for years 5 and 6

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Endings which sound like /ʃəs/ spelt –cious or –tious	<p>Not many common words end like this. If the root word ends in –ce, the /ʃ/ sound is usually spelt as c – e.g. <i>vice</i> – <i>vicious</i>, <i>grace</i> – <i>gracious</i>, <i>space</i> – <i>spacious</i>, <i>malice</i> – <i>malicious</i>.</p> <p>Exception: <i>anxious</i>.</p>	<p>vicious, precious, conscious, delicious, malicious, suspicious, ambitious, cautious, fictitious, infectious, nutritious</p>
Endings which sound like /ʃəl/	<p>–cial is common after a vowel letter and –tial after a consonant letter, but there are some exceptions.</p> <p>Exceptions: initial, financial, commercial, provincial (the spelling of the last three is clearly related to <i>finance</i>, <i>commerce</i> and <i>province</i>).</p>	<p>official, special, artificial, partial, confidential, essential</p>
Words ending in –ant, –ance/–ancy, –ent, –ence/–ency	<p>Use –ant and –ance/–ancy if there is a related word with a /æ/ or /eɪ/ sound in the right position; –ation endings are often a clue.</p> <p>Use –ent and –ence/–ency after soft c (/s/ sound), soft g (/dʒ/ sound) and qu, or if there is a related word with a clear /ɛ/ sound in the right position.</p> <p>There are many words, however, where the above guidance does not help. These words just have to be learnt.</p>	<p>observant, observance, (observ<u>a</u>tion), expectant (expect<u>a</u>tion), hesitant, hesitancy (hesit<u>a</u>tion), tolerant, tolerance (toler<u>a</u>tion), substance (subst<u>a</u>ntial)</p> <p>innocent, innocence, decent, decency, frequent, frequency, confident, confidence (confid<u>e</u>ntial)</p> <p>assistant, assistance, obedient, obedience, independent, independ<u>e</u>nce</p>

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
<p>Words ending in –able and –ible</p> <p>Words ending in –ably and –ibly</p>	<p>The –able/–ably endings are far more common than the –ible/–ibly endings. As with –ant and –ance/–ancy, the –able ending is used if there is a related word ending in –ation.</p> <p>If the –able ending is added to a word ending in –ce or –ge, the e after the c or g must be kept as those letters would otherwise have their ‘hard’ sounds (as in <i>cap</i> and <i>gap</i>) before the a of the –able ending.</p> <p>The –able ending is usually but not always used if a complete root word can be heard before it, even if there is no related word ending in –ation. The first five examples opposite are obvious; in <i>reliable</i>, the complete word <i>rely</i> is heard, but the y changes to i in accordance with the rule.</p> <p>The –ible ending is common if a complete root word can’t be heard before it but it also sometimes occurs when a complete word <i>can</i> be heard (e.g. <i>sensible</i>).</p>	<p>adorable/adorably (adoration),</p> <p>applicable/applicably (application),</p> <p>considerable/considerably (consideration),</p> <p>tolerable/tolerably (toleration)</p> <p>changeable, noticeable, forcible, legible</p> <p>dependable, comfortable, understandable, reasonable, enjoyable, reliable</p> <p>possible/possibly, horrible/horribly, terrible/terribly, visible/visibly, incredible/incredibly, sensible/sensibly</p>
<p>Adding suffixes beginning with vowel letters to words ending in –fer</p>	<p>The r is doubled if the –fer is still stressed when the ending is added.</p> <p>The r is not doubled if the –fer is no longer stressed.</p>	<p>referring, referred, referral, preferring, preferred, transferring, transferred</p> <p>reference, referee, preference, transference</p>
<p>Use of the hyphen</p>	<p>Hyphens can be used to join a prefix to a root word, especially if the prefix ends in a vowel letter and the root word also begins with one.</p>	<p>co-ordinate, re-enter, co-operate, co-own</p>

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Words with the /i:/ sound spelt ei after c	<p>The 'i before e except after c' rule applies to words where the sound spelt by ei is /i:/.</p> <p>Exceptions: <i>protein, caffeine, seize</i> (and <i>either</i> and <i>neither</i> if pronounced with an initial /i:/ sound).</p>	deceive, conceive, receive, perceive, ceiling
Words containing the letter-string ough	<p>ough is one of the trickiest spellings in English – it can be used to spell a number of different sounds.</p>	ought, bought, thought, nought, brought, fought rough, tough, enough cough though, although, dough through thorough, borough plough, bough
Words with 'silent' letters (i.e. letters whose presence cannot be predicted from the pronunciation of the word)	<p>Some letters which are no longer sounded used to be sounded hundreds of years ago: e.g. in <i>knight</i>, there was a /k/ sound before the /n/, and the gh used to represent the sound that 'ch' now represents in the Scottish word <i>loch</i>.</p>	doubt, island, lamb, solemn, thistle, knight

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

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

Word list – years 5 and 6

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

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. Many of the words in the list above can be used for practice in adding suffixes.

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

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

Examples:

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

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		Vowels	
/b/	bad	/ɑː/	father, arm
/d/	dog	/ɒ/	hot
/ð/	this	/æ/	cat
/dʒ/	gem, jug	/aɪ/	mind, fine, pie, high
/f/	if, puff, photo	/aʊ/	out, cow
/g/	gum	/ɛ/	hen, head
/h/	how	/eɪ/	say, came, bait
/j/	yes	/ɛə/	air
/k/	cat, check, key, school	/əʊ/	cold, boat, cone, blow
/l/	leg, hill	/ɪ/	hit
/m/	man	/ɪə/	beer
/n/	man	/iː/	she, bead, see, scheme, chief
/ŋ/	sing	/ɔː/	launch, raw, born
/θ/	both	/ɔɪ/	coin, boy
/p/	pet	/ʊ/	book
/r/	red	/ʊə/	tour
/s/	sit, miss, cell	/uː/	room, you, blue, brute
/ʃ/	she, chef	/ʌ/	cup
/t/	tea	/ɜː/	fern, turn, girl
/tʃ/	check	/ə/	farmer
/v/	vet		
/w/	wet, when		
/z/	zip, hens, buzz		
/ʒ/	pleasure		

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 1 to 6

Year 1: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Word	<p>Regular plural noun suffixes –s or –es [for example, <i>dog, dogs; wish, wishes</i>], including the effects of these suffixes on the meaning of the noun</p> <p>Suffixes that can be added to verbs where no change is needed in the spelling of root words (e.g. <i>helping, helped, helper</i>)</p> <p>How the prefix un– changes the meaning of verbs and adjectives [negation, for example, <i>unkind, or undoing: untie the boat</i>]</p>
Sentence	<p>How words can combine to make sentences</p> <p>Joining words and joining clauses using <i>and</i></p>
Text	Sequencing sentences to form short narratives
Punctuation	<p>Separation of words with spaces</p> <p>Introduction to capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences</p> <p>Capital letters for names and for the personal pronoun I</p>
Terminology for pupils	<p>letter, capital letter</p> <p>word, singular, plural</p> <p>sentence</p> <p>punctuation, full stop, question mark, exclamation mark</p>

Year 2: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Word	<p>Formation of nouns using suffixes such as <i>–ness, –er</i> and by compounding [for example, <i>whiteboard, superman</i>]</p> <p>Formation of adjectives using suffixes such as <i>–ful, –less</i></p> <p>(A fuller list of suffixes can be found on page 8 in the year 2 spelling section in English Appendix 1)</p> <p>Use of the suffixes <i>–er, –est</i> in adjectives and the use of <i>–ly</i> in Standard English to turn adjectives into adverbs</p>
Sentence	<p>Subordination (using <i>when, if, that, because</i>) and co-ordination (using <i>or, and, but</i>)</p> <p>Expanded noun phrases for description and specification [for example, <i>the blue butterfly, plain flour, the man in the moon</i>]</p> <p>How the grammatical patterns in a sentence indicate its function as a statement, question, exclamation or command</p>

Year 2: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Text	<p>Correct choice and consistent use of present tense and past tense throughout writing</p> <p>Use of the progressive form of verbs in the present and past tense to mark actions in progress [for example, <i>she is drumming, he was shouting</i>]</p>
Punctuation	<p>Use of capital letters, full stops, question marks and exclamation marks to demarcate sentences</p> <p>Commas to separate items in a list</p> <p>Apostrophes to mark where letters are missing in spelling and to mark singular possession in nouns [for example, <i>the girl's name</i>]</p>
Terminology for pupils	<p>noun, noun phrase</p> <p>statement, question, exclamation, command</p> <p>compound, suffix</p> <p>adjective, adverb, verb</p> <p>tense (past, present)</p> <p>apostrophe, comma</p>

Year 3: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Word	<p>Formation of nouns using a range of prefixes [for example <i>super-</i>, <i>anti-</i>, <i>auto-</i>]</p> <p>Use of the forms <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> according to whether the next word begins with a consonant or a vowel [for example, <i>a rock, an open box</i>]</p> <p>Word families based on common words, showing how words are related in form and meaning [for example, <i>solve, solution, solver, dissolve, insoluble</i>]</p>
Sentence	<p>Expressing time, place and cause using conjunctions [for example, <i>when, before, after, while, so, because</i>], adverbs [for example, <i>then, next, soon, therefore</i>], or prepositions [for example, <i>before, after, during, in, because of</i>]</p>
Text	<p>Introduction to paragraphs as a way to group related material</p> <p>Headings and sub-headings to aid presentation</p> <p>Use of the present perfect form of verbs instead of the simple past [for example, <i>He has gone out to play</i> contrasted with <i>He went out to play</i>]</p>
Punctuation	<p>Introduction to inverted commas to punctuate direct speech</p>

Year 3: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Terminology for pupils	<p>preposition, conjunction</p> <p>word family, prefix</p> <p>clause, subordinate clause</p> <p>direct speech</p> <p>consonant, consonant letter vowel, vowel letter</p> <p>inverted commas (or 'speech marks')</p>

Year 4: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Word	<p>The grammatical difference between plural and possessive –s</p> <p>Standard English forms for verb inflections instead of local spoken forms [for example, <i>we were</i> instead of <i>we was</i>, or <i>I did</i> instead of <i>I done</i>]</p>
Sentence	<p>Noun phrases expanded by the addition of modifying adjectives, nouns and preposition phrases (e.g. <i>the teacher</i> expanded to: <i>the strict maths teacher with curly hair</i>)</p> <p>Fronted adverbials [for example, <i>Later that day, I heard the bad news.</i>]</p>
Text	<p>Use of paragraphs to organise ideas around a theme</p> <p>Appropriate choice of pronoun or noun within and across sentences to aid cohesion and avoid repetition</p>
Punctuation	<p>Use of inverted commas and other punctuation to indicate direct speech [for example, a comma after the reporting clause; end punctuation within inverted commas: <i>The conductor shouted, "Sit down!"</i>]</p> <p>Apostrophes to mark plural possession [for example, <i>the girl's name, the girls' names</i>]</p> <p>Use of commas after fronted adverbials</p>
Terminology for pupils	<p>determiner</p> <p>pronoun, possessive pronoun</p> <p>adverbial</p>

Year 5: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Word	<p>Converting nouns or adjectives into verbs using suffixes [for example, <i>-ate; -ise; -ify</i>]</p> <p>Verb prefixes [for example, <i>dis-</i>, <i>de-</i>, <i>mis-</i>, <i>over-</i> and <i>re-</i>]</p>
Sentence	<p>Relative clauses beginning with <i>who</i>, <i>which</i>, <i>where</i>, <i>when</i>, <i>whose</i>, <i>that</i>, or an omitted relative pronoun</p> <p>Indicating degrees of possibility using adverbs [for example, <i>perhaps</i>, <i>surely</i>] or modal verbs [for example, <i>might</i>, <i>should</i>, <i>will</i>, <i>must</i>]</p>
Text	<p>Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph [for example, <i>then</i>, <i>after that</i>, <i>this</i>, <i>firstly</i>]</p> <p>Linking ideas across paragraphs using adverbials of time [for example, <i>later</i>], place [for example, <i>nearby</i>] and number [for example, <i>secondly</i>] or tense choices [for example, he <i>had</i> seen her before]</p>
Punctuation	<p>Brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis</p> <p>Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity</p>
Terminology for pupils	<p>modal verb, relative pronoun</p> <p>relative clause</p> <p>parenthesis, bracket, dash</p> <p>cohesion, ambiguity</p>

Year 6: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Word	<p>The difference between vocabulary typical of informal speech and vocabulary appropriate for formal speech and writing [for example, <i>find out</i> – <i>discover</i>; <i>ask for</i> – <i>request</i>; <i>go in</i> – <i>enter</i>]</p> <p>How words are related by meaning as synonyms and antonyms [for example, <i>big</i>, <i>large</i>, <i>little</i>].</p>
Sentence	<p>Use of the passive to affect the presentation of information in a sentence [for example, <i>I broke the window in the greenhouse</i> versus <i>The window in the greenhouse was broken (by me)</i>].</p> <p>The difference between structures typical of informal speech and structures appropriate for formal speech and writing [for example, the use of question tags: <i>He's your friend, isn't he?</i>, or the use of subjunctive forms such as <i>If I were</i> or <i>Were they to come</i> in some very formal writing and speech]</p>

Year 6: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)

Text	Linking ideas across paragraphs using a wider range of cohesive devices : repetition of a word or phrase, grammatical connections [for example, the use of adverbials such as <i>on the other hand</i> , <i>in contrast</i> , or <i>as a consequence</i>], and ellipsis Layout devices [for example, headings, sub-headings, columns, bullets, or tables, to structure text]
Punctuation	Use of the semi-colon, colon and dash to mark the boundary between independent clauses [for example, <i>It's raining; I'm fed up</i>] Use of the colon to introduce a list and use of semi-colons within lists Punctuation of bullet points to list information How hyphens can be used to avoid ambiguity [for example, <i>man eating shark</i> versus <i>man-eating shark</i> , or <i>recover</i> versus <i>re-cover</i>]
Terminology for pupils	subject, object active, passive synonym, antonym ellipsis, hyphen, colon, semi-colon, bullet points

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: <i>The school arranged a visit.</i> Passive: <i>A visit was arranged by the school.</i>
adjective	<p>The surest way to identify adjectives is by the ways they can be used:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ before a noun, to make the noun's meaning more specific (i.e. to modify the noun), or ▪ after the verb <i>be</i>, as its complement. <p>Adjectives cannot be modified by other adjectives. This distinguishes them from nouns, which can be.</p> <p>Adjectives are sometimes called 'describing words' because they pick out single characteristics such as size or colour. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adjectives from other word classes,</p>	<p><i>The pupils did some really good work.</i> [adjective used before a noun, to modify it]</p> <p><i>Their work was good.</i> [adjective used after the verb <i>be</i>, as its complement]</p> <p>Not adjectives:</p> <p><i>The lamp glowed.</i> [verb] <i>It was such a bright red!</i> [noun] <i>He spoke loudly.</i> [adverb] <i>It was a French grammar book.</i> [noun]</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
	because verbs , nouns and adverbs can do the same thing.	
adverb	<p>The surest way to identify adverbs is by the ways they can be used: they can modify a verb, an adjective, another adverb or even a whole clause.</p> <p>Adverbs are sometimes said to describe manner or time. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adverbs from other word classes that can be used as adverbials, such as preposition phrases, noun phrases and subordinate clauses.</p>	<p><i>Usha <u>soon</u> started snoring <u>loudly</u>.</i> [adverbs modifying the verbs <i>started</i> and <i>snoring</i>]</p> <p><i>That match was <u>really</u> exciting!</i> [adverb modifying the adjective <i>exciting</i>]</p> <p><i>We don't get to play games <u>very</u> often.</i> [adverb modifying the other adverb, <i>often</i>]</p> <p><i><u>Fortunately</u>, it didn't rain.</i> [adverb modifying the whole clause 'it didn't rain' by commenting on it]</p> <p>Not adverbs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Usha went <u>up the stairs</u>.</i> [preposition phrase used as adverbial] ▪ <i>She finished her work <u>this evening</u>.</i> [noun phrase used as adverbial] ▪ <i>She finished <u>when the teacher got cross</u>.</i> [subordinate clause used as adverbial]
adverbial	An adverbial is a word or phrase that is used, like an adverb, to modify a verb or clause. Of course, adverbs can be used as adverbials, but many other types of words and phrases can be used this way, including preposition phrases and subordinate clauses .	<p>The <i>bus leaves <u>in five minutes</u>.</i> [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies <i>leaves</i>]</p> <p><i>She promised to see him <u>last night</u>.</i> [noun phrase modifying either <i>promised</i> or <i>see</i>, according to the intended meaning]</p> <p><i>She worked <u>until she had finished</u>.</i> [subordinate clause as adverbial]</p>
antonym	Two words are antonyms if their meanings are opposites.	<p><i>hot – cold</i></p> <p><i>light – dark</i></p> <p><i>light – heavy</i></p>
apostrophe	<p>Apostrophes have two completely different uses:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ showing the place of missing letters (e.g. <i>I'm</i> for <i>I am</i>) 	<p><i><u>I'm</u> going out and I <u>won't</u> be long.</i> [showing missing letters]</p> <p><i><u>Hannah's</u> mother went to town in <u>Justin's</u> car.</i> [marking possessives]</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> marking possessives (e.g. <i>Hannah's mother</i>). 	
article	The articles <i>the</i> (definite) and <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> (indefinite) are the most common type of determiner .	<i><u>The</u> dog found <u>a</u> bone in <u>an</u> old box.</i>
auxiliary verb	<p>The auxiliary verbs are: <i>be</i>, <i>have</i>, <i>do</i> and the modal verbs. They can be used to make questions and negative statements. In addition:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>be</i> is used in the progressive and passive <i>have</i> is used in the perfect <i>do</i> is used to form questions and negative statements if no other auxiliary verb is present 	<p><i>They <u>are</u> winning the match.</i> [<i>be</i> used in the progressive]</p> <p><i><u>Have</u> you finished your picture?</i> [<i>have</i> used to make a question, and the perfect]</p> <p><i>No, I <u>don't</u> know him.</i> [<i>do</i> used to make a negative; no other auxiliary is present]</p> <p><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]</p>
clause	<p>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.</p> <p>Traditionally, a clause had to have a finite verb, but most modern grammarians also recognise non-finite clauses.</p>	<p><i>It was raining.</i> [single-clause sentence]</p> <p><i>It was raining but we were indoors.</i> [two finite clauses]</p> <p><i><u>If you are coming to the party,</u> please let us know.</i> [finite subordinate clause inside a finite main clause]</p> <p><i>Usha went upstairs <u>to play on her computer.</u></i> [non-finite clause]</p>
cohesion	<p>A text has cohesion if it is clear how the meanings of its parts fit together. Cohesive devices can help to do this.</p> <p>In the example, there are repeated references to the same thing (shown by the different style pairings), and the logical relations, such as time and cause, between different parts are clear.</p>	<p>A visit has been arranged for <u>Year 6</u>, to the <u>Mountain Peaks Field Study Centre</u>, leaving school at 9.30am. This is an overnight visit. <u>The centre</u> has beautiful grounds and <i>a nature trail</i>. During the afternoon, <u>the children</u> will follow <i>the trail</i>.</p>
cohesive device	Cohesive devices are words used to show how the different parts of a text fit together. In other words, they create cohesion .	<p><i>Julia's dad bought her a football.</i> <i><u>The</u> football was expensive!</i> [determiner; refers us back to a particular football]</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>Some examples of cohesive devices are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ determiners and pronouns, which can refer back to earlier words ▪ conjunctions and adverbs, which can make relations between words clear ▪ ellipsis of expected words. 	<p><i>Joe was given a bike for Christmas. <u>He</u> liked <u>it</u> very much.</i> [the pronouns refer back to Joe and the bike]</p> <p><i>We'll be going shopping <u>before</u> we go to the park.</i> [conjunction; makes a relationship of time clear]</p> <p><i>I'm afraid we're going to have to wait for the next train. <u>Meanwhile</u>, we could have a cup of tea.</i> [adverb; refers back to the time of waiting]</p> <p><i>Where are you going? [<u> </u>] To school!</i> [ellipsis of the expected words <i>I'm going</i>; links the answer back to the question]</p>
complement	<p>A verb's subject complement adds more information about its subject, and its object complement does the same for its object.</p> <p>Unlike the verb's object, its complement may be an adjective. The verb <i>be</i> normally has a complement.</p>	<p><i>She is <u>our teacher</u>.</i> [adds more information about the subject, <i>she</i>]</p> <p><i>They seem very competent.</i> [adds more information about the subject, <i>they</i>]</p> <p><i>Learning makes me <u>happy</u>.</i> [adds more information about the object, <i>me</i>]</p>
compound, compounding	<p>A compound word contains at least two root words in its morphology; e.g. <i>whiteboard</i>, <i>superman</i>. Compounding is very important in English.</p>	<p><i>blackbird, blow-dry, bookshop, ice-cream, English teacher, inkjet, one-eyed, bone-dry, baby-sit, daydream, outgrow</i></p>
conjunction	<p>A conjunction links two words or phrases together.</p> <p>There are two main types of conjunctions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ co-ordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>and</i>) link two words or phrases together as an equal pair ▪ subordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>when</i>) introduce a subordinate clause. 	<p><i>James bought a bat <u>and</u> ball.</i> [links the words <i>bat</i> and <i>ball</i> as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>Kylie is young <u>but</u> she can kick the ball hard.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>Everyone watches <u>when</u> Kyle does back-flips.</i> [introduces a subordinate clause]</p> <p><i>Joe can't practise kicking <u>because</u> he's injured.</i> [introduces a subordinate clause]</p>

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

Term	Guidance	Example
	split digraph.	The split digraph <u>l</u> e in <u>l</u> <u>i</u> <u>n</u> <u>e</u> is pronounced /aɪ/.
ellipsis	Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.	<p><i>Frankie waved to Ivana and <u>she</u> watched her drive away.</i></p> <p><i>She did it because she wanted to <u>do it</u>.</i></p>
etymology	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	<p>Every sentence typically has at least one verb which is either past or present tense. Such verbs are called 'finite'. The imperative verb in a command is also finite.</p> <p>Verbs that are not finite, such as participles or infinitives, cannot stand on their own: they are linked to another verb in the sentence.</p>	<p><i>Lizzie <u>does</u> the dishes every day.</i> [present tense]</p> <p><i>Even Hana <u>did</u> the dishes yesterday.</i> [past tense]</p> <p><i><u>Do</u> the dishes, Naser!</i> [imperative]</p> <p>Not finite verbs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>I have <u>done</u> them.</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>have</i>] ▪ <i>I will <u>do</u> them.</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>will</i>] ▪ <i>I want to <u>do</u> them!</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>want</i>]
fronting, fronted	<p>A word or phrase that normally comes after the verb may be moved before the verb: when this happens, we say it has been 'fronted'. For example, a fronted adverbial is an adverbial which has been moved before the verb.</p> <p>When writing fronted phrases, we often follow them with a comma.</p>	<p><i><u>Before we begin</u>, make sure you've got a pencil.</i></p> <p>[Without fronting: <i>Make sure you've got a pencil before we begin.</i>]</p> <p><i><u>The day after tomorrow</u>, I'm visiting my granddad.</i></p> <p>[Without fronting: <i>I'm visiting my granddad the day after tomorrow.</i>]</p>
future	<p>Reference to future time can be marked in a number of different ways in English. All these ways involve the use of a present-tense verb.</p> <p>See also tense.</p> <p>Unlike many other languages (such</p>	<p><i>He <u>will leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>will</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]</p> <p><i>He <u>may leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>may</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]</p>

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.	<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 <u>t</u> in the words <i>te<u>n</u></i> , <i>be<u>t</u></i> and <i>a<u>t</u>e</i> corresponds to the phoneme /t/. The grapheme <u>ph</u> in the word <i>do<u>lphin</u></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 s 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>
infinitive	A verb's infinitive is the basic form used as the head-word in a dictionary (e.g. <i>walk</i> , <i>be</i>). Infinitives are often used: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ after <i>to</i> ▪ after modal verbs. 	<i>I want to <u>walk</u>.</i> <i>I will <u>be</u> quiet.</i>
inflection	When we add <i>-ed</i> to <i>walk</i> , or change <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i> , this change of morphology produces an inflection ('bending') of the basic word which has special grammar (e.g. past tense	<i>dogs</i> is an inflection of <i>dog</i> . <i>went</i> is an inflection of <i>go</i> . <i>better</i> is an inflection of <i>good</i> .

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>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>	
intransitive verb	<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> <i>We would like to stay longer, but we must <u>leave</u>.</i></p>
main clause	<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] <i><u>The man who wrote it told me that it was true</u>.</i> [one main clause containing two subordinate clauses.] <i>She said, "It rained all day."</i> [one main clause containing another.]</p>
modal verb	<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</i> – <i>he sings</i>, but not <i>I must</i> – <i>he musts</i>).</p>	<p><i>I <u>can</u> do this maths work by myself.</i> <i>This ride <u>may</u> be too scary for you!</i> <i>You <u>should</u> help your little brother.</i> <i>Is it going to rain? Yes, it <u>might</u>.</i> <i>Canning swim is important.</i> [not possible because <i>can</i> must be finite; contrast: <i>Being able to swim is important</i>, where <i>being</i> is not a modal verb]</p>
modify, modifier	<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).
morphology	<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</p>	<p><i>dogs</i> has the morphological make-up: <i>dog</i> + <i>s</i>. <i>unhelpfulness</i> has the</p>

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

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p><u>subject</u> of a <u>passive</u> verb, and cannot be <u>adjectives</u> (contrast with <u>complements</u>).</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 <u>perfects</u> (e.g. <i>has eaten</i>) they are also used as <u>passives</u> (e.g. <i>was eaten</i>). 	<p><i>He is <u>walking</u> to school.</i> [present participle in a <u>progressive</u>]</p> <p><i>He has <u>taken</u> the bus to school.</i> [past participle in a <u>perfect</u>]</p> <p><i>The photo was <u>taken</u> in the rain.</i> [past participle in a <u>passive</u>]</p>
<p>passive</p>	<p>The sentence <i>It was eaten by our dog</i> is the passive of <i>Our dog ate it</i>. A passive is recognisable from:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ the past <u>participle</u> form <i>eaten</i> ▪ the normal <u>object</u> (<i>it</i>) turned into the <u>subject</u> ▪ the normal subject (<i>our dog</i>) turned into an optional <u>preposition phrase</u> with <i>by</i> as its <u>head</u> ▪ the verb <i>be(was)</i>, or some other verb such as <i>get</i>. <p>Contrast <u>active</u>.</p> <p>A verb is not ‘passive’ just because it has a passive meaning: it must be the passive version of an active verb.</p>	<p><i>A visit was <u>arranged</u> by the school.</i></p> <p><i>Our cat got <u>run</u> over by a bus.</i></p> <p>Active versions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>The school arranged a visit.</i> ▪ <i>A bus ran over our cat.</i> <p>Not passive:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>He received a warning.</i> [past tense, active <i>received</i>] ▪ <i>We had an accident.</i> [past tense, active <i>had</i>]
<p>past tense</p>	<p><u>Verbs</u> in the past tense are commonly used to:</p>	<p><i>Tom and Chris <u>showed</u> me their new TV.</i> [names an event in the</p>

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

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	<p>phoneme may be represented in writing by one, two, three or four letters constituting a single grapheme.</p>	
phrase	<p>A phrase is a group of words that are grammatically connected so that they stay together, and that expand a single word, called the 'head'. The phrase is a noun phrase if its head is a noun, a preposition phrase if its head is a preposition, and so on; but if the head is a verb, the phrase is called a clause. Phrases can be made up of other phrases.</p>	<p><i>She waved to <u>her mother</u>.</i> [a noun phrase, with the noun <i>mother</i> as its head]</p> <p><i>She waved <u>to her mother</u>.</i> [a preposition phrase, with the preposition <i>to</i> as its head]</p> <p><i><u>She waved to her mother</u>.</i> [a clause, with the verb <i>waved</i> as its head]</p>
plural	<p>A plural noun normally has a suffix –s or –es and means 'more than one'. There are a few nouns with different morphology in the plural (e.g. <i>mice</i>, <i>formulae</i>).</p>	<p><i><u>dogs</u></i> [more than one dog]; <i><u>boxes</u></i> [more than one box]</p> <p><i><u>mice</u></i> [more than one mouse]</p>
possessive	<p>A possessive can be:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ a noun followed by an apostrophe, with or without s ▪ a possessive pronoun. <p>The relation expressed by a possessive goes well beyond ordinary ideas of 'possession'. A possessive may act as a determiner.</p>	<p><i><u>Tariq's</u> book</i> [Tariq has the book]</p> <p><i>The <u>boys'</u> arrival</i> [the boys arrive]</p> <p><i><u>His</u> obituary</i> [the obituary is about him]</p> <p><i>That essay is <u>mine</u>.</i> [I wrote the essay]</p>
prefix	<p>A prefix is added at the beginning of a word in order to turn it into another word.</p> <p>Contrast suffix.</p>	<p><i><u>overtake</u>, <u>disappear</u></i></p>
preposition	<p>A preposition links a following noun, pronoun or noun phrase to some other word in the sentence. Prepositions often describe locations or directions, but can describe other things, such as relations of time. Words like <i>before</i> or <i>since</i> can act either as prepositions or as conjunctions.</p>	<p><i>Tom waved goodbye <u>to</u> Christy.</i> <i>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></p> <p>Contrast: <i>I'm going, <u>since</u> no-one wants me here!</i> [conjunction: links two clauses]</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
preposition phrase	A preposition phrase has a preposition as its head followed by a noun, pronoun or noun phrase.	<i>He was <u>in bed</u>.</i> <i>I met them <u>after the party</u>.</i>
present tense	<p><u>Verbs</u> in the present tense are commonly used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ talk about the present ▪ talk about the <u>future</u>. <p>They may take a suffix –s (depending on the <u>subject</u>).</p> <p>See also <u>tense</u>.</p>	<p><i>Jamal <u>goes</u> to the pool every day.</i> [describes a habit that exists now]</p> <p><i>He <u>can</u> swim.</i> [describes a state that is true now]</p> <p><i>The bus <u>arrives</u> at three.</i> [scheduled now]</p> <p><i>My friends <u>are</u> coming to play.</i> [describes a plan in progress now]</p>
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>).	<p><i>Michael <u>is singing</u> in the store room.</i> [present progressive]</p> <p><i>Amanda <u>was making</u> a patchwork quilt.</i> [past progressive]</p> <p><i>Usha <u>had been practising</u> for an hour when I called.</i> [past perfect progressive]</p>
pronoun	<p>Pronouns are normally used like <u>nouns</u>, except that:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ they are grammatically more specialised ▪ it is harder to <u>modify</u> them <p>In the examples, each sentence is written twice: once with nouns, and once with pronouns (underlined). Where the same thing is being talked about, the words are shown in bold.</p>	<p><i>Amanda waved to Michael.</i> <i><u>She</u> waved to <u>him</u>.</i></p> <p><i>John’s mother is over there. <u>His</u> mother is over there.</i></p> <p><i>The visit will be an overnight visit.</i> <i><u>This</u> will be an overnight visit.</i></p> <p><i>Simon is the person: <u>Simon</u> broke it. <u>He</u> is the one <u>who</u> broke it.</i></p>
punctuation	Punctuation includes any conventional features of writing other than spelling and general layout: the standard punctuation marks . , ; : ? ! - – () “ ” ‘ ’ , and also word-spaces, capital letters, apostrophes, paragraph breaks and bullet points. One important role of punctuation is to indicate <u>sentence</u> boundaries.	<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	

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

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	root word (or words) of the word we are interested in.	
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>a</u>long]</p> <p>/bʌtə/ [<u>u</u>tter]</p> <p>/dɒktə/ [<u>o</u>ctor]</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>John went to his friend's house. He stayed there till tea-time.</u></p> <p><i>John went to his friend's house, he stayed there till tea-time.</i> [This is a 'comma splice', a common error in which a comma is used where either a full stop or a semi-colon is needed to indicate the lack of any grammatical connection between the two clauses.]</p> <p><i>You are my friend.</i> [statement]</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 .	
Standard English	Standard English can be recognised by the use of a very small range of forms such as <i>those books</i> , <i>I did it</i> and <i>I wasn't doing anything</i> (rather than their non-Standard equivalents); it is not limited to any particular accent. It is the variety of English which is used, with only minor	<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>

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>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 done it cos they wouldn't do no more work on them houses.</i> [casual non-Standard English]</p>
stress	<p>A syllable is stressed if it is pronounced more forcefully than the syllables next to it. The other syllables are unstressed.</p>	<p><i><u>about</u></i> <i><u>visit</u></i></p>
subject	<p>The subject of a verb is normally the noun, noun phrase or pronoun that names the 'do-er' or 'be-er'. The subject's normal position is:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ just before the verb in a statement ▪ just after the auxiliary verb, in a question. <p>Unlike the verb's object and complement, the subject can determine the form of the verb (e.g. <i>I am</i>, <i>you are</i>).</p>	<p><i><u>Rula's mother</u> went out.</i> <i><u>That</u> is uncertain.</i> <i><u>The children</u> will study the animals.</i> <i>Will <u>the children</u> study the animals?</i></p>
subjunctive	<p>In some languages, the inflections of a verb include a large range of special forms which are used typically in subordinate clauses, and are called 'subjunctives'. English has very few such forms and those it has tend to be used in rather formal styles.</p>	<p><i>The school requires that all pupils <u>be</u> honest.</i> <i>The school rules demand that pupils not <u>enter</u> the gym at lunchtime.</i> <i>If Zoë <u>were</u> the class president, things would be much better.</i></p>
subordinate, subordination	<p>A subordinate word or phrase tells us more about the meaning of the word it is subordinate to. Subordination can be thought of as an unequal relationship between a subordinate word and a main word. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ an adjective is subordinate to the noun it modifies ▪ subjects and objects are 	<p><i><u>big</u> dogs [big is subordinate to dogs]</i> <i><u>Big dogs</u> need <u>long</u> walks.</i> [big dogs and long walks are subordinate to need] <i>We can watch TV <u>when we've finished</u>.</i> [when we've finished is subordinate to watch]</p>

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

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

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