



Christ Church, Church of England (VC) Primary School

*Aspire, celebrate and learn in an inclusive community*

# NATIONAL CURRICULUM 2014

## Y1 Spelling, Vocabulary, Grammar and Punctuation

This document contains the Y1 Spelling, Vocabulary, Grammar and Punctuation appendix and should be used to support the planning, teaching and learning in Year 1.

Children will be taught spelling strategies within their English lessons as well as during phonics lesson.

Spelling lists will coincide with the school's key words lists.

## **Spelling and Phonics strategies**

### *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

<i>Statutory requirements</i>	<i>Rules and guidance (non-statutory)</i>	<i>Example words (non-statutory)</i>
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 <b>ff</b> , <b>ll</b> , <b>ss</b> , <b>zz</b> and <b>ck</b> if they come straight after a single vowel letter in short words. <b>Exceptions:</b> 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

<i>Statutory requirements</i>	<i>Rules and guidance (non-statutory)</i>	<i>Example words (non-statutory)</i>
-tch	The /tʃ/ sound is usually spelt as <b>tch</b> if it comes straight after a single vowel letter. <b>Exceptions:</b> 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 <b>v</b> , so if a word ends with a /v/ sound, the letter <b>e</b> 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 <b>-s</b> . If the ending sounds like /ɪz/ and forms an extra syllable or 'beat' in the word, it is spelt as <b>-es</b> .	cats, dogs, spends, rocks, thanks, catches
Adding the endings –ing, –ed and –er to verbs where no change is needed to the root word	<b>-ing</b> and <b>-er</b> always add an extra syllable to the word and <b>-ed</b> sometimes does.  The past tense of some verbs may sound as if it ends in /ɪd/ (extra syllable), /d/ or /t/ (no extra syllable), but all these endings are spelt <b>-ed</b> . If the verb ends in two consonant letters (the same or different), the ending is simply added on.	hunting, hunted, hunter, buzzing, buzzed, buzzer, jumping, jumped, jumper
Adding –er and –est to adjectives where no change is needed to the root word	As with verbs (see above), if the adjective ends in two consonant letters (the same or different), the ending is simply added on.	grander, grandest, fresher, freshest, quicker, quickest

## Vowel digraphs and trigraphs

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

<i>Vowel digraphs and trigraphs</i>	<i>Rules and guidance (non-statutory)</i>	<i>Example words (non-statutory)</i>
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	<b>ay</b> and <b>oy</b> 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 <b>u-e</b> .	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

<i>Vowel digraphs and trigraphs</i>	<i>Rules and guidance (non-statutory)</i>	<i>Example words (non-statutory)</i>
oo (/u:/)	Very few words end with the letters <b>oo</b> , 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

<i>Vowel digraphs and trigraphs</i>	<i>Rules and guidance (non-statutory)</i>	<i>Example words (non-statutory)</i>
oo (/ʊ/)		book, took, foot, wood, good
oa	The digraph <b>oa</b> 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 <b>ou</b> 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 <b>u-e</b> , <b>ue</b> and <b>ew</b> . If words end in the /oo/ sound, <b>ue</b> and <b>ew</b> are more common spellings than <b>oo</b> .	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

<i>Statutory requirements</i>	<i>Rules and guidance (non-statutory)</i>	<i>Example words (non-statutory)</i>
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 <b>ph</b> 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 <b>k</b> rather than as <b>c</b> before <b>e, i</b> and <b>y</b> .	Kent, sketch, kit, skin, frisky
Adding the prefix –un	The prefix <b>un–</b> 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

## Y1 Vocabulary, Grammar and Punctuation appendix

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

## Glossary of terms

Term	Guidance	Example
<b>active voice</b>	An active <u>verb</u> has its usual pattern of <u>subject</u> and <u>object</u> (in contrast with the <u>passive</u> ).	Active: <i>The school arranged a visit.</i>  Passive: <i>A visit was arranged by the school.</i>
<b>adjective</b>	<p>The surest way to identify adjectives is by the ways they can be used:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>before a noun, to make the noun's meaning more specific (i.e. to <u>modify</u> the noun), or</li> <li>after the verb <i>be</i>, as its <u>complement</u>.</li> </ul> <p>Adjectives cannot be modified by other adjectives. This distinguishes them from <u>nouns</u>, which can be.</p> <p>Adjectives are sometimes called 'describing words' because they pick out single characteristics such as size or colour. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adjectives from other word classes, because <u>verbs</u>, <u>nouns</u> and <u>adverbs</u> can do the same thing.</p>	<p><i>The pupils did some really <u>good</u> work.</i> [adjective used before a noun, to modify it]</p> <p><i>Their work was <u>good</u>.</i> [adjective used after the verb <i>be</i>, as its complement]</p> <p>Not adjectives:</p> <p><i>The lamp <u>glowed</u>.</i> [verb]  <i>It was such a bright <u>red</u>!</i> [noun]  <i>He spoke <u>loudly</u>.</i> [adverb]  <i>It was a French <u>grammar</u> book.</i> [noun]</p>
<b>adverb</b>	<p>The surest way to identify adverbs is by the ways they can be used: they can <u>modify</u> a <u>verb</u>, an <u>adjective</u>, another adverb or even a whole clause.</p> <p>Adverbs are sometimes said to describe manner or time. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adverbs from other word classes that can be used as <u>adverbials</u>, such as <u>preposition phrases</u>, <u>noun phrases</u> and <u>subordinate clauses</u>.</p>	<p><i>Usha <u>soon</u> started snoring <u>loudly</u>.</i> [adverbs modifying the verbs <i>started</i> and <i>snoring</i>]</p> <p><i>That match was <u>really</u> exciting!</i> [adverb modifying the adjective <i>exciting</i>]</p> <p><i>We don't get to play games <u>very</u> often.</i> [adverb modifying the other adverb, <i>often</i>]</p> <p><i><u>Fortunately</u>, it didn't rain.</i> [adverb modifying the whole clause 'it didn't rain' by commenting on it]</p> <p>Not adverbs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><i>Usha went <u>up the stairs</u>.</i> [preposition phrase used as adverbial]</li> <li><i>She finished her work <u>this evening</u>.</i> [noun phrase used as adverbial]</li> <li><i>She finished <u>when the teacher got cross</u>.</i> [subordinate clause used as adverbial]</li> </ul>
<b>adverbial</b>	An adverbial is a word or phrase that is used, like an adverb, to modify a verb or	<i>The bus leaves <u>in five minutes</u>.</i> [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies



Term	Guidance	Example
	clause. Of course, <u>adverbs</u> can be used as adverbials, but many other types of words and phrases can be used this way, including <u>preposition phrases</u> and <u>subordinate clauses</u> .	<i>leaves</i>  <i>She promised to see him <u>last night</u>.</i> [noun phrase modifying either <i>promised</i> or <i>see</i> , according to the intended meaning]  <i>She worked until she had finished.</i> [subordinate clause as adverbial]
<b>antonym</b>	Two words are antonyms if their meanings are opposites.	<i>hot – cold</i>  <i>light – dark</i>  <i>light – heavy</i>
<b>apostrophe</b>	Apostrophes have two completely different uses: <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>▪ showing the place of missing letters (e.g. <i>I'm</i> for <i>I am</i>)</li><li>▪ marking <u>possessives</u> (e.g. <i>Hannah's mother</i>).</li></ul>	<i>I'm going out and I <u>won't</u> be long.</i> [showing missing letters]  <i><u>Hannah's</u> mother went to town in <u>Justin's</u> car.</i> [marking possessives]
<b>article</b>	The articles <i>the</i> (definite) and <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> (indefinite) are the most common type of <u>determiner</u> .	<i><u>The</u> dog found <u>a</u> bone in <u>an</u> old box.</i>
<b>auxiliary verb</b>	The auxiliary <u>verbs</u> are: <i>be</i> , <i>have</i> , <i>do</i> and the <u>modal verbs</u> . They can be used to make questions and negative statements. In addition: <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>▪ <i>be</i> is used in the <u>progressive</u> and <u>passive</u></li><li>▪ <i>have</i> is used in the <u>perfect</u></li><li>▪ <i>do</i> is used to form questions and negative statements if no other auxiliary verb is present</li></ul>	<i>They <u>are</u> winning the match.</i> [ <i>be</i> used in the progressive]  <i><u>Have</u> you finished your picture?</i> [ <i>have</i> used to make a question, and the perfect]  <i>No, I <u>don't</u> know him.</i> [ <i>do</i> used to make a negative; no other auxiliary is present]  <i><u>Will</u> you come with me or not?</i> [modal verb <i>will</i> used to make a question about the other person's willingness]
<b>clause</b>	A clause is a special type of <u>phrase</u> whose <u>head</u> is a <u>verb</u> . Clauses can sometimes be complete sentences. Clauses may be <u>main</u> or <u>subordinate</u> .  Traditionally, a clause had to have a <u>finite verb</u> , but most modern grammarians also recognise non-finite clauses.	<i>It was raining.</i> [single-clause sentence]  <i>It was raining but we were indoors.</i> [two finite clauses]  <i>If you are coming to the party, please let us know.</i> [finite subordinate clause inside a finite main clause]  <i>Usha went upstairs <u>to play on her computer</u>.</i> [non-finite clause]
<b>cohesion</b>	A text has cohesion if it is clear how the meanings of its parts fit together. <u>Cohesive devices</u> can help to do this.  In the example, there are repeated	<b>A visit</b> has been arranged for <b><u>Year 6</u></b> , to the <u>Mountain Peaks Field Study Centre</u> , leaving school at 9.30am. <b>This is an overnight visit.</b> <u>The centre</u> has beautiful grounds and <i>a nature trail</i> . During the

Term	Guidance	Example
	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.	afternoon, <b>the children</b> will follow <i>the trail</i> .
<b>cohesive device</b>	<p>Cohesive devices are words used to show how the different parts of a text fit together. In other words, they create <u>cohesion</u>.</p> <p>Some examples of cohesive devices are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ <u>determiners</u> and <u>pronouns</u>, which can refer back to earlier words</li> <li>▪ <u>conjunctions</u> and <u>adverbs</u>, which can make relations between words clear</li> <li>▪ <u>ellipsis</u> of expected words.</li> </ul>	<p><i>Julia's dad bought her a football. <b>The</b> football was expensive!</i> [determiner; refers us back to a particular football]</p> <p><i>Joe was given a bike for Christmas. <b>He</b> liked <u>it</u> very much.</i> [the pronouns refer back to Joe and the bike]</p> <p><i>We'll be going shopping <u>before</u> we go to the park.</i> [<u>conjunction</u>; makes a relationship of time clear]</p> <p><i>I'm afraid we're going to have to wait for the next train. <u>Meanwhile</u>, we could have a cup of tea.</i> [<u>adverb</u>; refers back to the time of waiting]</p> <p><i>Where are you going? [ ] To school!</i> [ellipsis of the expected words <i>I'm going</i>; links the answer back to the question]</p>
<b>complement</b>	<p>A verb's subject complement adds more information about its <u>subject</u>, and its object complement does the same for its <u>object</u>.</p> <p>Unlike the verb's object, its complement may be an adjective. The verb <i>be</i> normally has a complement.</p>	<p><i>She is <u>our teacher</u>.</i> [adds more information about the subject, <i>she</i>]</p> <p><i>They seem very 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>
<b>compound, compounding</b>	A compound word contains at least two <u>root words</u> in its <u>morphology</u> ; e.g. <i>whiteboard</i> , <i>superman</i> . Compounding is very important in English.	<i>blackbird, blow-dry, bookshop, ice-cream, English teacher, inkjet, one-eyed, bone-dry, baby-sit, daydream, outgrow</i>
<b>conjunction</b>	<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"> <li>▪ <u>co-ordinating</u> conjunctions (e.g. <i>and</i>) link two words or phrases together as an equal pair</li> <li>▪ subordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>when</i>) introduce a <u>subordinate clause</u>.</li> </ul>	<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>
<b>consonant</b>	A sound which is produced when the speaker closes off or obstructs the flow of	/p/ [flow of air stopped by the lips, then released]

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>air through the vocal tract, usually using lips, tongue or teeth.</p> <p>Most of the letters of the alphabet represent consonants. Only the letters <i>a, e, i, o, u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent <u>vowel</u> sounds.</p>	<p>/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 <u>progressive</u>	
co-ordinate, co-ordination	<p>Words or phrases are co-ordinated if they are linked as an equal pair by a co-ordinating <u>conjunction</u> (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 <u>subordination</u> is that, in subordination, the two linked elements are not equal.</p>	<p><b>Susan <u>and</u> Amra</b> met in a café. [links the words <i>Susan</i> and <i>Amra</i> as an equal pair]</p> <p><b>They talked <u>and</u> drank tea</b> for an hour. [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p><b>Susan got a bus <u>but</u> Amra walked.</b> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p>Not co-ordination: <i>They ate <u>before</u> they met.</i> [<i>before</i> introduces a subordinate clause]</p>
determiner	<p>A determiner specifies a noun as known or unknown, and it goes before any modifiers (e.g. adjectives or other nouns).</p> <p>Some examples of determiners are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>articles (<i>the, a</i> or <i>an</i>)</li> <li>demonstratives (e.g. <i>this, those</i>)</li> <li>possessives (e.g. <i>my, your</i>)</li> <li>quantifiers (e.g. <i>some, every</i>).</li> </ul>	<p><u>the</u> home team [article, specifies the team as known]</p> <p><u>a</u> good team [article, specifies the team as unknown]</p> <p><u>that</u> pupil [demonstrative, known]</p> <p><u>Julia's</u> parents [possessive, known]</p> <p><u>some</u> big boys [quantifier, unknown]</p> <p>Contrast: <i>home <u>the</u> team, big <u>some</u> boys</i> [both incorrect, because the determiner should come before other modifiers]</p>
digraph	<p>A type of <u>grapheme</u> where two letters represent one <u>phoneme</u>.</p> <p>Sometimes, these two letters are not next to one another; this is called a split digraph.</p>	<p>The digraph <u>ea</u> in <u>each</u> is pronounced /i:/. The digraph <u>sh</u> in <u>shed</u> is pronounced /ʃ/. The split digraph <u>i-e</u> in <u>line</u> is pronounced /aɪ/.</p>
ellipsis	Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.	<p><i>Frankie waved to Ivana and <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	<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>,</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
	come from Greek, Latin or French.	meaning 'word'.  The word <i>mutton</i> comes from French <i>mouton</i> , meaning 'sheep'.
<b>finite verb</b>	<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> [<a href="#">present tense</a>]</p> <p><i>Even Hana <u>did</u> the dishes yesterday.</i> [<a href="#">past tense</a>]</p> <p><i><u>Do</u> the dishes, Naser!</i> [imperative]</p> <p>Not finite verbs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ <i>I have <u>done</u> them.</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>have</i>]</li> <li>▪ <i>I will <u>do</u> them.</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>will</i>]</li> <li>▪ <i>I want to <u>do</u> them!</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>want</i>]</li> </ul>
<b>fronting, fronted</b>	<p>A word or phrase that normally comes after the <a href="#">verb</a> may be moved before the verb: when this happens, we say it has been 'fronted'. For example, a fronted adverbial is an <a href="#">adverbial</a> 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>
<b>future</b>	<p>Reference to future time can be marked in a number of different ways in English. All these ways involve the use of a <a href="#">present-tense verb</a>.</p> <p>See also <a href="#">tense</a>.</p> <p>Unlike many other languages (such as French, Spanish or Italian), English has no distinct 'future tense' form of the verb comparable with its <a href="#">present</a> and <a href="#">past</a> tenses.</p>	<p><i>He <u>will leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>will</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]</p> <p><i>He <u>may leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>may</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]</p> <p><i>He <u>leaves</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>leaves</i>]</p> <p><i>He <u>is going to leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense <i>is</i> followed by <i>going to</i> plus the infinitive <i>leave</i>]</p>
<b>GPC</b>	See <a href="#">grapheme-phoneme correspondences</a> .	
<b>grapheme</b>	A letter, or combination of letters, that corresponds to a single <a href="#">phoneme</a> within a word.	<p>The grapheme <i>t</i> in the words <i>ten</i>, <i>bet</i> and <i>ate</i> corresponds to the phoneme /t/.</p> <p>The grapheme <i>ph</i> in the word <i>dolphin</i> corresponds to the phoneme /f/.</p>

<i>Term</i>	<i>Guidance</i>	<i>Example</i>
<b>grapheme-phoneme correspondences</b>	The links between letters, or combinations of letters ( <a href="#">graphemes</a> ) and the speech sounds ( <a href="#">phonemes</a> ) that they represent.  In the English writing system, graphemes may correspond to different phonemes in different words.	The grapheme <i>s</i> corresponds to the phoneme /s/ in the word <i>see</i> , but...  ...it corresponds to the phoneme /z/ in the word <i>easy</i> .
<b>head</b>	See <a href="#">phrase</a> .	
<b>homonym</b>	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>
<b>homophone</b>	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>
<b>infinitive</b>	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"> <li>▪ after <i>to</i></li> <li>▪ after <a href="#">modal verbs</a>.</li> </ul>	<i>I want to <u>walk</u>.</i>  <i>I will <u>be</u> quiet.</i>
<b>inflection</b>	When we add <i>-ed</i> to <i>walk</i> , or change <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i> , this change of <a href="#">morphology</a> produces an inflection ('bending') of the basic word which has special grammar (e.g. <a href="#">past tense</a> or <a href="#">plural</a> ). In contrast, adding <i>-er</i> to <i>walk</i> produces a completely different word, <i>walker</i> , which is part of the same <a href="#">word family</a> . Inflection is sometimes thought of as merely a change of ending, but, in fact, some words change completely when inflected.	<i>dogs</i> is an inflection of <i>dog</i> .  <i>went</i> is an inflection of <i>go</i> .  <i>better</i> is an inflection of <i>good</i> .
<b>intransitive verb</b>	A verb which does not need an object in a sentence to complete its meaning is described as intransitive. See ' <a href="#">transitive verb</a> '.	<i>We all <u>laughed</u>.</i>  <i>We would like to stay longer, but we must <u>leave</u>.</i>
<b>main clause</b>	A <a href="#">sentence</a> contains at least one <a href="#">clause</a> which is not a <a href="#">subordinate clause</a> ; such a clause is a main clause. A main clause may contain any number of subordinate clauses.	<i><u>It was raining but 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

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		clause containing another.]
<b>modal verb</b>	<p>Modal verbs are used to change the meaning of other <u>verbs</u>. 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 <u>finite</u> forms and has no <u>suffixes</u> (e.g. <i>I sing – he sings</i>, but not <i>I must – he musts</i>).</p>	<p><i>I <u>can</u> do this maths work by myself.</i></p> <p><i>This ride <u>may</u> be too scary for you!</i></p> <p><i>You <u>should</u> help your little brother.</i></p> <p><i>Is it going to rain? Yes, it <u>might</u>.</i></p> <p><i>Canning swim is important.</i> [not possible because <i>can</i> must be finite; contrast: <i>Being able to swim is important</i>, where <i>being</i> is not a modal verb]</p>
<b>modify, modifier</b>	<p>One word or phrase modifies another by making its meaning more specific.</p> <p>Because the two words make a <u>phrase</u>, 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"> <li><i>teacher</i> is modified by <i>primary-school</i> (to mean a specific kind of teacher)</li> <li><i>school</i> is modified by <i>primary</i> (to mean a specific kind of school).</li> </ul>
<b>morphology</b>	<p>A word’s morphology is its internal make-up in terms of <u>root words</u> and <u>suffixes</u> or <u>prefixes</u>, as well as other kinds of change such as the change of <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i>.</p> <p>Morphology may be used to produce different <u>inflections</u> of the same word (e.g. <i>boy – boys</i>), or entirely new words (e.g. <i>boy – boyish</i>) belonging to the same <u>word family</u>.</p> <p>A word that contains two or more root words is a <u>compound</u> (e.g. <i>news+paper, ice+cream</i>).</p>	<p><i>dogs</i> has the morphological make-up: <i>dog</i> + <i>s</i>.</p> <p><i>unhelpfulness</i> has the morphological make-up:</p> <p><i>unhelpful</i> + <i>ness</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>where <i>unhelpful</i> = <i>un</i> + <i>helpful</i></li> <li>and <i>helpful</i> = <i>help</i> + <i>ful</i></li> </ul>
<b>noun</b>	<p>The surest way to identify nouns is by the ways they can be used after <u>determiners</u> such as <i>the</i>: for example, most nouns will fit into the frame “The ___ matters/matter.”</p> <p>Nouns are sometimes called ‘naming words’ because they name people, places and ‘things’; this is often true, but it doesn’t help to distinguish nouns from other <u>word classes</u>. For example, <u>prepositions</u> can name places and <u>verbs</u> can name ‘things’ such as actions.</p> <p>Nouns may be classified as <b>common</b> (e.g. <i>boy, day</i>) or <b>proper</b> (e.g. <i>Ivan, Wednesday</i>), and also as <b>countable</b> (e.g. <i>thing, boy</i>) or</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"> <li><i>He’s <u>behind</u> you!</i> [this names a place, but is a preposition, not a noun]</li> <li><i>She can <u>jump</u> so high!</i> [this names an action, but is a verb, not a noun]</li> </ul> <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>

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	<b>non-countable</b> (e.g. <i>stuff, money</i> ). These classes can be recognised by the determiners they combine with.	common, non-countable: <u>money</u> , <i>some chocolate</i> , <i>less imagination</i>  proper, countable: <u>Marilyn</u> , <u>London</u> , <u>Wednesday</u>
<b>noun phrase</b>	A noun phrase is a <u>phrase</u> with a noun as its <u>head</u> , 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> .	<i>Adult foxes can jump</i> . [ <i>adult</i> modifies <i>foxes</i> , so <i>adult</i> belongs to the noun phrase]  <i>Almost all healthy adult foxes in this area can jump</i> . [all the other words help to modify <i>foxes</i> , so they all belong to the noun phrase]
<b>object</b>	An object is normally a <u>noun</u> , <u>pronoun</u> or <u>noun phrase</u> that comes straight after the <u>verb</u> , and shows what the verb is acting upon.  Objects can be turned into the <u>subject</u> of a <u>passive</u> verb, and cannot be <u>adjectives</u> (contrast with <u>complements</u> ).	<i>Year 2 designed puppets</i> . [noun acting as object]  <i>I like that</i> . [pronoun acting as object]  <i>Some people suggested a pretty display</i> . [noun phrase acting as object]  Contrast: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><i>A display was suggested</i>. [object of active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb]</li> <li><i>Year 2 designed pretty</i>. [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]</li> </ul>
<b>participle</b>	Verbs in English have two participles, called 'present participle' (e.g. <i>walking, taking</i> ) and 'past participle' (e.g. <i>walked, taken</i> ).  Unfortunately, these terms can be confusing to learners, because: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>they don't necessarily have anything to do with present or past time</li> <li>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>).</li> </ul>	<i>He is walking to school</i> . [present participle in a <u>progressive</u> ]  <i>He has taken the bus to school</i> . [past participle in a <u>perfect</u> ]  <i>The photo was taken in the rain</i> . [past participle in a <u>passive</u> ]
<b>passive</b>	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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>the past <u>participle</u> form <i>eaten</i></li> <li>the normal <u>object</u> (<i>it</i>) turned into the <u>subject</u></li> <li>the normal subject (<i>our dog</i>) turned into an optional <u>preposition phrase</u></li> </ul>	<i>A visit was arranged by the school</i> .  <i>Our cat got run over by a bus</i> .  Active versions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><i>The school arranged a visit</i>.</li> <li><i>A bus ran over our cat</i>.</li> </ul> Not passive: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><i>He received a warning</i>. [past</li> </ul>



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	<p>with <i>by</i> as its <u>head</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>the verb <i>be(was)</i>, or some other verb such as <i>get</i>.</li> </ul> <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>tense, active <i>received</i>]</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><i>We had an accident.</i> [past tense, active <i>had</i>]</li> </ul>
<b>past tense</b>	<p><u>Verbs</u> in the past tense are commonly used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>talk about the past</li> <li>talk about imagined situations</li> <li>make a request sound more polite.</li> </ul> <p>Most verbs take a <u>suffix</u> <i>-ed</i>, to form their past tense, but many commonly-used verbs are irregular.</p> <p>See also <u>tense</u>.</p>	<p><i>Tom and Chris <u>showed</u> me their new TV.</i> [names an event in the past]</p> <p><i>Antonio <u>went</u> on holiday to Brazil.</i> [names an event in the past; irregular past of <i>go</i>]</p> <p><i>I wish I <u>had</u> a puppy.</i> [names an imagined situation, not a situation in the past]</p> <p><i>I <u>was</u> hoping you'd help tomorrow.</i> [makes an implied request sound more polite]</p>
<b>perfect</b>	<p>The perfect form of a <u>verb</u> 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"> <li>turning the verb into its past <u>participle inflection</u></li> <li>adding a form of the verb <i>have</i> before it.</li> </ul> <p>It can also be combined with the <u>progressive</u> (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>
<b>phoneme</b>	<p>A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that signals a distinct, contrasting meaning. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>/t/ contrasts with /k/ to signal the difference between <i>tap</i> and <i>cap</i></li> <li>/t/ contrasts with /l/ to signal the difference between <i>bought</i> and <i>ball</i>.</li> </ul> <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;</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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	the exact number depends on regional accents. A single phoneme may be represented in writing by one, two, three or four letters constituting a single <u>grapheme</u> .	
<b>phrase</b>	A phrase is a group of words that are grammatically connected so that they stay together, and that expand a single word, called the 'head'. The phrase is a <u>noun phrase</u> if its head is a noun, a <u>preposition phrase</u> if its head is a preposition, and so on; but if the head is a <u>verb</u> , the phrase is called a <u>clause</u> . Phrases can be made up of other phrases.	<i>She waved to <u>her mother</u>.</i> [a noun phrase, with the noun <i>mother</i> as its head] <i>She waved <u>to her mother</u>.</i> [a preposition phrase, with the preposition <i>to</i> as its head] <i><u>She waved to her mother</u>.</i> [a clause, with the verb <i>waved</i> as its head]
<b>plural</b>	A plural <u>noun</u> normally has a <u>suffix</u> –s or –es and means 'more than one'.  There are a few nouns with different <u>morphology</u> in the plural (e.g. <i>mice</i> , <i>formulae</i> ).	<i><u>dogs</u></i> [more than one dog]; <i><u>boxes</u></i> [more than one box] <i><u>mice</u></i> [more than one mouse]
<b>possessive</b>	A possessive can be: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a <u>noun</u> followed by an <u>apostrophe</u>, with or without s</li> <li>a possessive <u>pronoun</u>.</li> </ul> The relation expressed by a possessive goes well beyond ordinary ideas of 'possession'. A possessive may act as a <u>determiner</u> .	<i><u>Tariq's</u> book</i> [Tariq has the book] <i>The <u>boys'</u> arrival</i> [the boys arrive] <i><u>His</u> obituary</i> [the obituary is about him] <i>That essay is <u>mine</u>.</i> [I wrote the essay]
<b>prefix</b>	A prefix is added at the beginning of a <u>word</u> in order to turn it into another word.  Contrast <u>suffix</u> .	<i><u>overtake</u>, <u>disappear</u></i>
<b>preposition</b>	A preposition links a following <u>noun</u> , <u>pronoun</u> or <u>noun phrase</u> to some other word in the sentence. Prepositions often describe locations or directions, but can describe other things, such as relations of time.  Words like <i>before</i> or <i>since</i> can act either as prepositions or as <u>conjunctions</u> .	<i>Tom waved goodbye <u>to</u> Christy. She'll be back <u>from</u> Australia <u>in</u> two weeks.</i> <i>I haven't seen my dog <u>since</u> this morning.</i> Contrast: <i>I'm going, <u>since</u> no-one wants me here!</i> [conjunction: links two clauses]
<b>preposition phrase</b>	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>
<b>present tense</b>	<u>Verbs</u> in the present tense are commonly	<i>Jamal <u>goes</u> to the pool every day.</i>

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	<p>used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>talk about the present</li> <li>talk about the <u>future</u>.</li> </ul> <p>They may take a suffix –s (depending on the <u>subject</u>).</p> <p>See also <u>tense</u>.</p>	<p>[describes a habit that exists now]</p> <p><i>He <u>can</u> swim.</i> [describes a state that is true now]</p> <p><i>The bus <u>arrives</u> at three.</i> [scheduled now]</p> <p><i>My friends <u>are</u> coming to play.</i> [describes a plan in progress now]</p>
progressive	<p>The progressive (also known as the ‘continuous’) form of a <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>	<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"> <li>they are grammatically more specialised</li> <li>it is harder to <u>modify</u> them</li> </ul> <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><b>Amanda</b> waved to <b>Michael</b>.</i> <i><u>She</u> waved to <u>him</u>.</i></p> <p><i><b>John’s</b> mother is over there. <u>His</u> mother is over there.</i></p> <p><i>The <b>visit</b> will be an overnight <b>visit</b>. <u>This</u> will be an overnight <b>visit</b>.</i></p> <p><i><b>Simon</b> is the person: <b>Simon</b> broke it. <u>He</u> is the one <u>who</u> broke it.</i></p>
punctuation	<p>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.</p>	<p><i><u>“I’m going out, Usha, and I won’t be long.”</u></i> <i><u>Mum said.</u></i></p>
Received Pronunciation	<p>Received Pronunciation (often abbreviated to RP) is an accent which is used only by a small minority of English speakers in England. It is not associated with any one region. Because of its regional neutrality, it is the accent which is generally shown in dictionaries in the UK (but not, of course, in the USA). RP has no special status in the national curriculum.</p>	
register	<p>Classroom lessons, football commentaries and novels use different registers of the</p>	<p><i>I regret to inform you that Mr Joseph</i></p>

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	same language, recognised by differences of vocabulary and grammar. Registers are 'varieties' of a language which are each tied to a range of uses, in contrast with dialects, which are tied to groups of users.	<i>Smith has passed away.</i> [formal letter]  <i>Have you heard that Joe has died?</i> [casual speech]  <i>Joe falls down and dies, centre stage.</i> [stage direction]
<b>relative clause</b>	<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 <b>boy</b> <u>who lives near school</u>.</i> [<i>who</i> refers back to <i>boy</i>]</p> <p><i>The <b>prize</b> <u>that I won</u> was a book.</i> [<i>that</i> refers back to <i>prize</i>]</p> <p><i>The <b>prize</b> <u>I won</u> was a book.</i> [the pronoun <i>that</i> is omitted]</p> <p><i><b>Tom broke the game</b>, <u>which annoyed Ali</u>.</i> [<i>which</i> refers back to the whole clause]</p>
<b>root word</b>	<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>.</p> <p><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 root word (or words) of the word we are interested in.</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>
<b>schwa</b>	<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/ [<i>a</i>long]</p> <p>/bʌtə/ [<i>b</i>utter]</p> <p>/dɒktə/ [<i>d</i>octor]</p>
<b>sentence</b>	<p>A sentence is a group of <u>words</u> 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><i>John went to his friend's house. He stayed there till tea-time.</i></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-</p>

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	<p>A sentence may consist of a single clause or it may contain several clauses held together by subordination or co-ordination.</p> <p>Classifying sentences as 'simple', 'complex' or 'compound' can be confusing, because a 'simple' sentence may be complicated, and a 'complex' one may be straightforward.</p> <p>The terms '<b>single-clause sentence</b>' and '<b>multi-clause sentence</b>' may be more helpful.</p>	<p>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 <a href="#">digraph</a> .	
Standard English	<p>Standard English can be recognised by the use of a very small range of forms such as <i>those books</i>, <i>I did it</i> and <i>I wasn't doing anything</i> (rather than their non-Standard equivalents); it is not limited to any particular accent. It is the variety of English which is used, with only minor variation, as a major world language. Some people use Standard English all the time, in all situations from the most casual to the most formal, so it covers most <a href="#">registers</a>. The aim of the national curriculum is that everyone should be able to use Standard English as needed in writing and in relatively formal speaking.</p>	<p><i>I did it because they were not willing to undertake any more work on those houses.</i> [formal Standard English]</p> <p><i>I did it cos they wouldn't do any more work on those houses.</i> [casual Standard English]</p> <p><i>I done it cos they wouldn't do no more work on them houses.</i> [casual non-Standard English]</p>
stress	A <a href="#">syllable</a> is stressed if it is pronounced more forcefully than the syllables next to it. The other syllables are unstressed.	<p><i><u>about</u></i></p> <p><i><u>visit</u></i></p>
subject	<p>The subject of a verb is normally the <a href="#">noun</a>, <a href="#">noun phrase</a> or <a href="#">pronoun</a> that names the 'do-er' or 'be-er'. The subject's normal position is:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>just before the <a href="#">verb</a> in a statement</li> <li>just after the <a href="#">auxiliary verb</a>, in a question.</li> </ul> <p>Unlike the verb's <a href="#">object</a> and <a href="#">complement</a>, the subject can determine</p>	<p><i><u>Rula's mother</u> went out.</i></p> <p><i><u>That</u> is uncertain.</i></p> <p><i><u>The children</u> will study the animals.</i></p> <p><i>Will <u>the children</u> study the animals?</i></p>

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	the form of the verb (e.g. <i>I am, you are</i> ).	
<b>subjunctive</b>	In some languages, the <u>inflections</u> of a <u>verb</u> include a large range of special forms which are used typically in <u>subordinate clauses</u> , and are called 'subjunctives'. English has very few such forms and those it has tend to be used in rather formal styles.	<i>The school requires that all pupils <u>be</u> honest.</i> <i>The school rules demand that pupils not <u>enter</u> the gym at lunchtime.</i> <i>If Zoë <u>were</u> the class president, things would be much better.</i>
<b>subordinate, subordination</b>	A subordinate word or phrase tells us more about the meaning of the word it is subordinate to. Subordination can be thought of as an unequal relationship between a subordinate word and a main word. For example: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>an adjective is subordinate to the noun it <u>modifies</u></li> <li><u>subjects</u> and <u>objects</u> are subordinate to their <u>verbs</u>.</li> </ul> Subordination is much more common than the equal relationship of <u>co-ordination</u> . See also <u>subordinate clause</u> .	<i><u>big</u> dogs</i> [ <i>big</i> is subordinate to <i>dogs</i> ] <i><u>Big dogs</u> need <u>long walks</u>.</i> [ <i>big dogs</i> and <i>long walks</i> are subordinate to <i>need</i> ] <i>We can watch TV <u>when we've finished</u>.</i> [ <i>when we've finished</i> is subordinate to <i>watch</i> ]
<b>subordinate clause</b>	A clause which is <u>subordinate</u> to some other part of the same <u>sentence</u> 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 <u>modifies</u> ). Subordinate clauses contrast with <u>co-ordinate</u> clauses as in <i>It was sour but looked very tasty</i> . (Contrast: <u>main clause</u> ) However, clauses that are directly quoted as direct speech are not subordinate clauses.	<i>That's the street <u>where Ben lives</u>.</i> [ <u>relative clause</u> ; modifies <i>street</i> ] <i>He watched her <u>as she disappeared</u>.</i> [ <u>adverbial</u> ; modifies <i>watched</i> ] <i><u>What you said</u> was very nice.</i> [acts as <u>subject</u> of <i>was</i> ] <i>She noticed <u>an hour had passed</u>.</i> [acts as <u>object</u> of <i>noticed</i> ] Not subordinate: <i>He shouted, "<u>Look out!</u>"</i>
<b>suffix</b>	A suffix is an 'ending', used at the end of one word to turn it into another word. Unlike <u>root words</u> , suffixes cannot stand on their own as a complete word. Contrast <u>prefix</u> .	<i>call – <u>called</u></i> <i>teach – <u>teacher</u></i> [turns a <u>verb</u> into a <u>noun</u> ] <i>terror – <u>terrorise</u></i> [turns a noun into a verb] <i>green – <u>greenish</u></i> [leaves <u>word class</u> unchanged]
<b>syllable</b>	A syllable sounds like a beat in a <u>word</u> . Syllables consist of at least one <u>vowel</u> , and	<i>Cat</i> has one syllable.

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	possibly one or more <u>consonants</u> .	<i>Fairy</i> has two syllables. <i>Hippopotamus</i> has five syllables.
<b>synonym</b>	Two words are synonyms if they have the same meaning, or similar meanings. Contrast <u>antonym</u> .	<i>talk – speak</i> <i>old – elderly</i>
<b>tense</b>	In English, tense is the choice between <u>present</u> and <u>past verbs</u> , which is special because it is signalled by <u>inflections</u> and normally indicates differences of time. In contrast, languages like French, Spanish and Italian, have three or more distinct tense forms, including a future tense. (See also: <u>future</u> .)  The simple tenses (present and past) may be combined in English with the <u>perfect</u> and <u>progressive</u> .	<i>He <u>studies</u>.</i> [present tense – present time] <i>He <u>studied</u> yesterday.</i> [past tense – past time] <i>He <u>studies</u> tomorrow, or else!</i> [present tense – future time] <i>He <u>may study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive – future time] <i>He <u>plans to study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive – future time] <i>If he <u>studied</u> tomorrow, he'd see the difference!</i> [past tense – imagined future]  Contrast three distinct tense forms in Spanish: ▪ <i>Estudia.</i> [present tense] ▪ <i>Estudió.</i> [past tense] ▪ <i>Estudiará.</i> [future tense]
<b>transitive verb</b>	A transitive verb takes at least one object in a sentence to complete its meaning, in contrast to an <u>intransitive verb</u> , which does not.	<i>He <u>loves</u> Juliet.</i> <i>She <u>understands</u> English grammar.</i>
<b>trigraph</b>	A type of <u>grapheme</u> where three letters represent one <u>phoneme</u> .	<i>High, pure, patch, hedge</i>
<b>unstressed</b>	See <u>stressed</u> .	
<b>verb</b>	The surest way to identify verbs is by the ways they can be used: they can usually have a <u>tense</u> , either <u>present</u> or <u>past</u> (see also <u>future</u> ).  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 <u>nouns</u> (which can also name actions). Moreover many verbs name states or feelings rather than actions.  Verbs can be classified in various ways: for example, as <u>auxiliary</u> , or <u>modal</u> ; as <u>transitive</u> or <u>intransitive</u> ; and as states or	<i>He <u>lives</u> in Birmingham.</i> [present tense] <i>The teacher <u>wrote</u> a song for the class.</i> [past tense] <i>He <u>likes</u> chocolate.</i> [present tense; not an action] <i>He <u>knew</u> my father.</i> [past tense; not an action]  Not verbs: ▪ <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]

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	events.	
<b>vowel</b>	<p>A vowel is a speech sound which is produced without any closure or obstruction of the vocal tract.</p> <p>Vowels can form <u>syllables</u> by themselves, or they may combine with <u>consonants</u>.</p> <p>In the English writing system, the letters <i>a, e, i, o, u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent vowels.</p>	
<b>word</b>	<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, he's</i>).</p>	<p><u>headteacher</u> or <u>head teacher</u> [can be written with or without a space]</p> <p><u>I'm</u> going out.</p> <p><u>9.30 am</u></p>
<b>word class</b>	<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>	
<b>word family</b>	<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>

