



Nourishing the fitrah of each unique child

English Policy

*“Read and your Lord is the Most Generous. Who taught by the pen.
Taught man that which he knew not. “*

(Surah Alaq, 93: 3 – 5)

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English Curriculum Policy

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

Aims

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

- read easily, fluently and with good understanding
- develop the habit of reading widely and often, for both pleasure and information
- acquire a wide vocabulary, an understanding of grammar and knowledge of linguistic conventions for reading, writing and spoken language
- appreciate our rich and varied literary heritage
- write clearly, accurately and coherently, adapting their language and style in and for a range of contexts, purposes and audiences
- use discussion in order to learn; they should be able to elaborate and explain clearly their understanding and ideas
- are competent in the arts of speaking and listening, making formal presentations, demonstrating to others and participating in debate.

National Curriculum 2014

The National Curriculum English programme of study is based on four areas, which are;

- Spoken language
- Reading
- Writing
- Spelling, grammar and punctuation

The National Curriculum is divided into 3 Key stages; Key Stage 1, Lower Key Stage 2 (Years 3 and 4) and Upper Key Stage 2 (Years 5 and 6). By the end of each key stage, pupils are expected to know, apply and understand the matters, skills and processes specified in the relevant programme of study.

Spoken Language

The national curriculum for English reflects the importance of spoken language in pupils' development across the whole curriculum – cognitively, socially and linguistically. Spoken language underpins the development of reading and writing. The quality and variety of language that pupils hear and speak are vital for developing their vocabulary and grammar, and their understanding for reading and writing. Teachers should therefore ensure the continual development of pupils' confidence and competence in spoken language and listening skills. Pupils should develop a capacity to explain their understanding of books and other reading, and to prepare their ideas before they write. They must be assisted in making their thinking clear to themselves as well as to others and teachers should ensure that pupils build secure foundations by using discussion to probe and remedy their misconceptions. Pupils should also be taught to understand and use the conventions for discussion and debate.

The development of children's speaking and listening skills are essential so that each child can understand the world around them and communicate their thoughts clearly and effectively in a language that is fluent and interesting.

We ensure that every opportunity is taken to enhance speaking and listening into the curriculum. It is integral to children's lives at school and their development. Examples include:

- discussion
- debating
- interviewing
- sharing views
- explaining ideas and strategies
- speaking in assemblies and school plays.
- role play activities
- sharing written work
- speaking and listening during circle times; sharing thoughts and expressing feelings

Pupils are also entitled to gain knowledge, competence and confidence in the use of Standard English, thus empowering them to use whichever is most appropriate to purpose, audience and situation. Teachers are encouraged modelling the use of Standard English.

In the Early Years Foundation Stage, provision for English will be made for the development of communication and literacy skills in the following areas:

- Communication and language – comprising listening and attention, understanding and speaking
- Literacy – comprising reading and writing.

Communication and language is a prime area, meaning it is a priority area for learning and attainment in the EYFS, and children must attain the expected standard to be considered to be making a good level of development at the end of the Foundation Stage.

A range of texts are used to ensure children are exposed to a wide variety of genres, both fiction and non-fiction. These include: stories, diaries, play scripts, letters, reports, recounts, explanations, instructions, lists, and persuasive texts.

Role play

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

Teachers incorporate role play and role play techniques into the curriculum wherever possible, not only to develop speaking and listening, an essential component to the national curriculum in English but to develop other areas of the curriculum through role play which can inspire and stimulate children's imagination.

Pupils are taught to:

- Explore ideas and stories through role play
- Accept and engage in imaginary roles and situations
- Perform to groups of peers
- Respond to plays they have seen or been in

Pupils are given opportunities to:

- Engage in role play
- Explore the differences between pretence and reality
- Discover the expressive possibilities of their voices and bodies Perform in the classroom and in assembly
- See plays performed by professional companies
- Contribute their thoughts and feelings about a play to class discussions

Pupils are encouraged to:

- Make decisions about the development of their work in role play
- Relate what they have learned in role play to other areas of the curriculum Explore the crafts associated with role play, such as masks and puppets Express preferences about plays they see or take part in
- See plays outside school hours

Regular Techniques used are

- Still Pictures – Freezing in a scene (or a series of scenes)
- Thought tapping – Asking questions of characters to gather more information.
- Modelling (body sculpting) – Moving people into appropriate positions and poses
- Thought tunnels – Characters walking through a tunnel of people who are speaking the characters thoughts.
- Collective speaking – Deciding as a group what a character would say.
- Hot Seating – One person taking on a role and the others questioning.
- Character role (in groups) – Drawing around a person. Deciding on a character and then clothing the person with words. Props are chosen representing the character. Groups compose questions about the character.

Phonics

EYFS

- In nursery and reception class, children will be taught phonics through the Jolly phonics programme.
- Children will have opportunities to develop their communication, language and literacy skills on a daily basis in child initiated and adult led activities.

Key Stage 1

- In Key Stage 1, children will be taught phonics through the jolly phonics programme.

Key Stage 2

- In Key Stage 2, phonics will be used as a strategy for supporting reading, writing and spelling.

Reading

The programmes of study for reading consist of two dimensions:

- word reading
- comprehension (both listening and reading).

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

Skilled word reading involves both the speedy working out of the pronunciation of unfamiliar printed words (decoding) and the speedy recognition of familiar printed words. Underpinning both is the understanding that the letters on the page represent the sounds in spoken words.

This is why phonics should be emphasised in the early teaching of reading to beginners (i.e. unskilled readers) when they start school.

Good comprehension draws from linguistic knowledge (in particular of vocabulary and grammar) and on knowledge of the world. Comprehension skills develop through pupils' experience of high-quality discussion with the teacher, as well as from reading and discussing a range of stories, poems and non-fiction. All pupils must be encouraged to read widely across both fiction and non-fiction to develop their knowledge of themselves and the

world in which they live, to establish an appreciation and love of reading, and to gain knowledge across the curriculum. Reading widely and often increases pupils' vocabulary because they encounter words they would rarely hear or use in everyday speech. Reading also feeds pupils' imagination and opens up a treasure-house of wonder and joy for curious young minds.

It is essential that, by the end of their infant education, all pupils are able to read fluently and with confidence.

Reading Aloud

Teachers will be encouraged to read aloud to the class every day, and match the children's interests, age and class topic to ensure a wide range of books are read throughout the year. Reading aloud should be used by the teacher to encourage the children's own reading interest, and to model reading with intonation and expression.

Home Reading

From the start of Nursery, all children are provided with a reading book from the school reading scheme to use for practise at home.

Parents are asked to record their shared reading experiences in the Reading Record book which goes between home and school.

Other reading opportunities:

The school has a book corner in each class which can be accessed by children and staff to support learning across the curriculum. Pupils will be encouraged to join and visit their local library regularly.

Writing

The programmes of study for writing are as follows:

- transcription (spelling)
- Handwriting and presentation
- composition (articulating ideas and structuring them in speech and writing).
- Grammar and Punctuation

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

Writing down ideas fluently depends on effective transcription: that is, on spelling quickly and accurately through knowing the relationship between sounds and letters (phonics) and understanding the morphology (word structure) and orthography (spelling structure) of words. Effective composition involves forming, articulating and communicating ideas, and then organising them coherently for a reader.

This requires clarity, awareness of the audience, purpose and context, and an increasingly wide knowledge of vocabulary and grammar.

Writing also depends on fluent, legible and eventually speedy handwriting.

Grammar

Grammar is embedded into English lessons through the Hamilton Trust planning that we use. All children must be taught the grammatical terminology for their year group.

Spelling in EYFS

Spelling in EYFS should be interwoven into Phonics and English sessions with a focus on phonetic spelling and the spelling of tricky words.

Spelling in KS1

Spelling in KS1 is to be focused on common exception words and the KS1 spelling rules. Common exception words are to be taught every week. Spelling rules are to be taught three times a week. Teachers should use the Jolly Grammar, Spelling and Punctuation book for Year 1 and Year 2 to support the teaching of spelling rules.

Spelling in KS2

Spelling in KS2 is to be focused on frequency words and the KS2 spelling rules, following the Jolly Grammar, Spelling and Punctuation scheme.

Special Educational Needs

It has to be noted that the abilities of children with SEN will differ greatly. The key ideas in this Scheme of Work are a guide that the majority of children will work from, however others will not. This is reflected in each child's own Individual Education Plan.

Cross Curricular Learning

By its nature, reading, writing, oracy and listening occurs far more widely in school than in discrete English lessons alone. It is therefore often taught and practised in a range of other subjects' teaching: for example, writing up experiments in science sessions and exploring first handwritten accounts in history sessions.

We aim to create classroom environments rich with writing and reading (through wall displays, interactive table top displays and free flow provision) so that there is an opportunity for English learning at all times.

We make sure there is progression of skills as the children travel through the year groups, and we ensure the same grammatical vocabulary is used by all staff to ensure coherent learning for the children.

A range of texts are used to ensure children are exposed to a wide variety of genres, both fiction and non-fiction. These include: stories, diaries, play scripts, letters, reports, recounts, explanations, instructions, lists, and persuasive texts.

The English curriculum is delivered by class teachers with support from class teaching assistants and staff members who deliver SEN teaching or interventions in English. Teaching is differentiated to meet the needs of all pupils and enable children of all abilities to work at the level that is right for them.

The Learning Environment

Each classroom will have an English working wall, which reflects the current text and the current genre being taught. These and other displays in the classroom are used as learning tools by the pupils and the skills, vocabulary and knowledge shown are transferable between different areas of the curriculum.

Throughout the school, teachers should be using some or all of the following, as appropriate to the needs of their class:

- English working wall
- Key vocabulary according to current unit being taught
- Descriptions of text types and examples
- Access to dictionaries and thesaurus'
- Grammar and Punctuation appropriate to year group
- Common exception words
- Spelling rules and patterns and examples of these
- Range of vocabulary to support writing
- Phonics display and phonics working wall
- Reading strategies
- Handwriting examples
- Alphabet

Assessment

Effective assessment involves careful observation, analysis and review by teachers of each child's knowledge, skills and understanding, in order to track their progress and make informed decisions about planning for the next steps of learning.

- Assessment is on a continuous basis, taking into account the children's work throughout the year.
- Work is monitored by the class teacher and Headteacher
- A scrutiny of work is carried out across the school. This is discussed in SLT meetings.
- Target Tracker is used to track and analyse English data.
- Phonics assessment activities are used and half termly assessment data is passed to the Headteacher.
- Jolly Phonics test materials will be used to assess Reading termly.

Time allocations for English

- English is taught every day for 1 hour.
- Reading/Jolly Phonics to be taught five times a week for 20 minutes (EYFS and KS1) 30 minutes (KS2).
- Handwriting taught sessions three times a week 15 minutes as required.
- Comprehension will be taught weekly as required.
- Extended writing taught across the curriculum.
- Punctuation and grammar should be embedded in all English teaching and should be evident within planning.
- Spelling lessons 3 times a week for around 15 minutes.
- Phonics interventions or whole class focus where needed.

Resources

- Jolly Phonics levelled reading books
- Texts – each class has a library/book corner
- English Core texts
- Reading Records

Pupils are given the opportunity to practise library skills through monthly visits to the library.

Role of the English Coordinator: Headteacher

The Headteacher will:

- Taking the lead in English policy development
- Auditing and supporting staff in their CPD
- Liaise with the School Administrator to purchasing and organising resources
- Keeping up to date with recent English developments and disseminating to staff
- To provide guidance and support to staff in implementing the English curriculum
- To scrutinise the learning environment and displays to ensure English is represented and that it is useful to maximum impact
- To attend any relevant courses on new developments and communicate these developments back to colleagues
- To write, organise, review and maintain an inventory of policies, schemes and resources
- To ensure staff use 'best practice' in the teaching of English and take part in CPD
- To ensure continuity and progression throughout the school's curriculum for English, including monitoring medium term plans and short term plans
- To evaluate end of year assessments and SATs results to highlight any areas for concern
- To report to the Trustees about attainment and teaching and learning in English

Monitoring

Monitoring of the standards of the children's work and of the quality of teaching in English is the responsibility of the Headteacher. The Headteacher supports colleagues in the teaching of English, being informed about current developments in the subject, and providing a strategic lead and direction for the subject in the school. A termly summary report is written about the strengths and weaknesses in the subject, and indicates areas for further improvement. The Headteacher has specially-allocated time in order to review samples of the children's work and undertake lesson observations of English teaching across the school.

Vocabulary, grammar and punctuation

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</i>, or <i>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 word,</p> <p>singular, plural 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 in the year 2 spelling section in English Appendix 1)</p> <p>Use of the suffixes –er, –est 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 coordination (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>
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	Formation of nouns using a range of prefixes [for example <i>super-</i> , <i>anti-</i> , <i>auto-</i>] 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</i> rock, <i>an</i> open box] Word families based on common words , showing how words are related in form and meaning [for example, <i>solve</i> , <i>solution</i> , <i>solver</i> , <i>dissolve</i> , <i>insoluble</i>]
Sentence	Expressing time, place and cause using conjunctions [for example, <i>when</i> , <i>before</i> , <i>after</i> , <i>while</i> , <i>so</i> , <i>because</i>], adverbs [for example, <i>then</i> , <i>next</i> , <i>soon</i> , <i>therefore</i>], or prepositions [for example, <i>before</i> , <i>after</i> , <i>during</i> , <i>in</i> , <i>because of</i>]
Text	Introduction to paragraphs as a way to group related material Headings and subheadings to aid presentation 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>]
Punctuation	Introduction to inverted commas to punctuate direct speech
Terminology for pupils	preposition, conjunction word family, prefix clause, subordinate clause direct speech consonant, consonant letter vowel, vowel letter inverted commas (or 'speech marks')

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

Year 5: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Word	Converting nouns or adjectives into verbs using suffixes [for example, <i>-ate</i> ; <i>-ise</i> ; <i>-ify</i>] Verb prefixes [for example, <i>dis-</i> , <i>de-</i> , <i>mis-</i> , <i>over-</i> and <i>re-</i>]
Sentence	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 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>]
Text	Devices to build cohesion within a paragraph [for example, <i>then</i> , <i>after that</i> , <i>this</i> , <i>firstly</i>] 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]
Punctuation	Brackets, dashes or commas to indicate parenthesis Use of commas to clarify meaning or avoid ambiguity
Terminology for pupils	modal verb, relative pronoun relative clause parenthesis, bracket, dash cohesion, ambiguity

Year 6: Detail of content to be introduced (statutory requirement)	
Word	The difference between vocabulary typical of informal speech and vocabulary appropriate for formal speech and writing [for example, <i>find out – discover; ask for – request; go in – enter</i>] How words are related by meaning as synonyms and antonyms [for example, <i>big, large, little</i>].
Sentence	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>]. 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 <u>I were</u> or <u>Were they</u> to come</i> in some very formal writing and speech]
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, in contrast, or as a consequence</i>], and ellipsis Layout devices [for example, headings, sub-headings, columns, bullets, or tables, to structure text]
Punctuation	Use of the semicolon, 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 semicolons 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

Spelling – work for year 1

R

Statutory requirements

The sounds /f/, /l/, /s/,
/z/ and /k/ spelt ff, ll, ss, zz and ck

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

The /ŋ/ sound spelt n
before k

Division of words into syllables

<u>Rules and guidance (non-statutory)</u>	<u>Example words (non-statutory)</u>
<p>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.</p> <p>Exceptions: if, pal, us, bus, yes.</p>	<p>off, well, miss, buzz, back</p>
	<p>bank, think, honk, sunk</p>
<p>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.</p>	<p>pocket, rabbit, carrot, thunder, sunset</p>

<u>Statutory requirements</u>
-tch
The /v/ sound at the end of words
Adding s and es to words (plural of nouns and the third person singular of verbs)
Adding the endings -ing, -ed and -er to verbs where no change is needed to the root word
Adding -er and -est to adjectives where no change is needed to the root word

<u>Rules and guidance (non-statutory)</u>	<u>Example words (non-statutory)</u>
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

<p>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’.</p>	<p>have, live, give</p>
<p>If the ending sounds like /s/ or /z/, it is spelt as -s. If the ending sounds like /rʒ/ and forms an extra syllable or ‘beat’ in the word, it is spelt as -es.</p>	<p>cats, dogs, spends, rocks, thanks, catches</p>
<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 /rd/ (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>	<p>hunting, hunted, hunter, buzzing, buzzed, buzzer, jumping, jumped, jumper</p>
<p>As with verbs (see above), if the adjective ends in two consonant letters (the same or different), the ending is simply added on.</p>	<p>grander, grandest, fresher, freshest, quicker, quickest</p>

Vowel digraphs and trigraphs

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

<u>Vowel digraphs and trigraphs</u>
ai, oi
ay, oy
a-e
e-e
i-e
o-e
u-e
ar
ee
ea (/i:/)
ea (/E/)
er (/ɜ:/)
er (/ɛ:/)
ir
ur

<u>Rules and guidance (non-statutory)</u>	<u>Example words (non-statutory)</u>
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 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
	made, came, same, take, safe
	these, theme, complete
	five, ride, like, time, side
	home, those, woke, hope, hole
Both the /u:/ and /ju:/ (‘oo’ and ‘yoo’) sounds can be spelt as u-e .	June, rule, rude, use, tube, tune
	car, start, park, arm, garden
	see, tree, green, meet, week
	sea, dream, meat, each, read (present tense)
	head, bread, meant, instead, read (past tense)
	(stressed sound): her, term, verb, person
	(unstressed <i>schwa</i> sound): better, under, summer, winter, sister
	girl, bird, shirt, first, third
	turn, hurt, church, burst, Thursday

**Vowel digraphs
and trigraphs**

oo (/u:/)

oo (/ʊ/)

oa

oe

ou

ow (/aʊ/)

ow

(/ɔɪ/)

ue

ew

ie (/aɪ/)

ie (/i:/)

igh

or

ore

aw

au

air
ear
ear (/E↔/)

<u>Rules and guidance (non-statutory)</u>	<u>Example words (non-statutory)</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
	book, took, foot, wood, good
The digraph oa is very rare at the end of an English word.	boat, coat, road, coach, goal
	toe, goes
The only common English word ending in ou is <i>you</i> .	out, about, mouth, around, sound
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
	lie, tie, pie, cried, tried, dried
	chief, field, thief
	high, night, light, bright, right
	for, short, born, horse, morning

	more, score, before, wore, shore
	saw, draw, yawn, crawl
	author, August, dinosaur, astronaut
	air, fair, pair, hair, chair
	dear, hear, beard, near, year
	bear, pear, wear

**Vowel
digraphs and
trigraphs**

<u>Rules and guidance (non-statutory)</u>	<u>Example words (non-statutory)</u>
	bare, dare, care, share, scared

are (/Eɪ/)

<u>Statutory requirements</u>
Words ending -y (/i:/ or /r/)
New consonant spellings ph and wh
Using k for the /k/ sound
Adding the prefix -un
Compound words

Common exception words

<u>Rules and guidance (non-statutory)</u>	<u>Example words (non-statutory)</u>
	very, happy, funny, party, family
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
The /k/ sound is spelt as k rather than as c before e, i and y .	Kent, sketch, kit, skin, frisky
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 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
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

R

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.

Z

Statutory requirements

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

The /s/ sound spelt c before e, i and y

The /n/ sound spelt kn and (less often) gn at the beginning of words

The /r/ sound spelt wr at the beginning of words

The /l/ or /ɫ/ sound spelt –le at the end of words

<u>Rules and guidance (non-statutory)</u>	<u>Example words (non-statutory)</u>
<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/, /E/, /r/, /'O/, /A/ 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, giraffe, energy jacket, jar, jog, join, adjust</p>
	<p>race, ice, cell, city, fancy</p>
<p>The 'k' and 'g' at the beginning of these words was sounded hundreds of years ago.</p>	<p>knock, know, knee, gnat, gnaw</p>
<p>This spelling probably also reflects an old pronunciation.</p>	<p>write, written, wrote, wrong, wrap</p>
<p>The -le spelling is the most common spelling for this sound at the end of words.</p>	<p>table, apple, bottle, little, middle</p>

Statutory requirements

The /l/ or /ɫ/ sound spelt -el at the end of words

The /l/ or /ɫ/ sound spelt -al at the end of words

Words ending -il

The /aɪ/ sound spelt -y at the end of words

Adding -es to nouns and verbs ending in
-y

Adding -ed, -ing, -er and -
est to a root word ending in
-y with a consonant before it

Adding the endings -ing, -ed, -er, -est and -y to
words ending in -e with a consonant before it

Adding -ing, -ed,
-er, -est and -y to words of one syllable ending in a
single consonant letter after a single vowel letter

The /ɔ:/ sound spelt a before l and ll

The /ɒ/ sound spelt o

<u>Rules and guidance (non-statutory)</u>	<u>Example words (non-statutory)</u>
<p>The -el spelling is much less common than -le.</p> <p>The -el spelling is used after m, n, r, s, v, w and more often than not after s.</p>	<p>camel, tunnel, squirrel, travel, towel, tinsel</p>
<p>Not many nouns end in -al, but many adjectives do.</p>	<p>metal, pedal, capital, hospital, animal</p>
<p>There are not many of these words.</p>	<p>pencil, fossil, nostril</p>
<p>This is by far the most common spelling for this sound at the end of words.</p>	<p>cry, fly, dry, try, reply, July</p>
<p>The y is changed to i before -es is added.</p>	<p>flies, tries, replies, copies, babies, carries</p>
<p>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>.</p>	<p>copied, copier, happier, happiest, cried, replied ...but copying, crying, replying</p>
<p>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>.</p>	<p>hiking, hiked, hiker, nicer, nicest, shiny</p>
<p>The last consonant letter of the root word is doubled to keep the /æ/, /E/, /r/, /'O/ and /A/ sound (i.e. to keep the vowel 'short').</p> <p>Exception: The letter 'x' is never doubled: <i>mixing, mixed, boxer, sixes</i>.</p>	<p>patting, patted, humming, hummed, dropping, dropped, sadder, saddest, fatter, fattest, runner, runny</p>
<p>The /):/ sound ('or') is usually spelt as a before l and ll.</p>	<p>all, ball, call, walk, talk, always</p>

	other, mother, brother, nothing, Monday
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Statutory requirements

The /i:/ sound spelt
-ey

The /ʊ/ sound spelt a after w
and qu

The /ɜ:/ sound spelt or after
w

The /ɪ:/ sound spelt ar after
w

The /ɜ/ sound spelt s

The suffixes -ment,
-ness, -ful , -less and -ly

Contractions

The possessive apostrophe
(singular nouns)

Words ending in -tion

Statutory requirements

Homophones and near-

<u>Rules and guidance (non-statutory)</u>	<u>Example words (non-statutory)</u>
The plural of these words is formed by the addition of -s (<i>donkeys, monkeys, etc.</i>).	key, donkey, monkey, chimney, valley
a is the most common spelling for the /'O/ ('hqt') sound after w and qu .	want, watch, wander, quantity, squash
There are not many of these words.	word, work, worm, world, worth
There are not many of these words.	war, warm, towards
	television, treasure, usual
<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>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>
<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 means 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 is</i> never used for the possessive.</p>	can't, didn't, hasn't, couldn't, it's, I'll

	Megan's, Ravi's, the girl's, the child's, the man's
	station, fiction, motion, national, section
<u>Rules and guidance (non-statutory)</u>	<u>Example words (non-statutory)</u>
It is important to know the difference in meaning	there/their/they're, here/hear, quite/quiet, see/sea, bare/bear, one/won, sun/son,

**Statutory
requirements**

homophones

Common exception words

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>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>

Statutory requirements
The suffix –ation
The suffix –ly

Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
super– means ‘above’.	super– : supermarket, superman, superstar
anti– means ‘against’.	anti– : antiseptic, anti-clockwise, antisocial
auto– means ‘self’ or ‘own’.	auto– : autobiography, autograph
The suffix –ation is added to verbs to form nouns. The rules already learnt still apply.	information, adoration, sensation, preparation, admiration
The suffix –ly is added to an adjective to form an adverb. The rules already learnt still apply. The suffix –ly starts with a consonant letter, so it is added straight on to most root words.	sadly, completely, usually (usual + ly), finally (final + ly), comically (comical + ly)

Statutory requirements
Words with endings sounding like /ʒə/ or /tʃə/
Endings which sound like /ʒən/
The suffix –ous

Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Exceptions: (1) If the root word ends in –y with a consonant letter before it, the y is changed to i , but only if the root word has more than one syllable. (2) If the root word ends with –le , the –le is changed to –ly . (3) If the root word ends with –ic , –ally is added rather than just –ly , except in the word <i>publicly</i> . (4) The words <i>truly, duly, wholly</i> .	happily, angrily gently, simply, humbly, nobly basically, frantically, dramatically
The ending sounding like /ʒə/ is always spelt –sure . 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, catcher, richer, stretcher</i> .	measure, treasure, pleasure, enclosure creature, furniture, picture, nature, adventure
If the ending sounds like /ʒən/, it is spelt as –sion .	division, invasion, confusion, decision, collision, television
Sometimes the root word is obvious and the usual rules apply for adding suffixes beginning with vowel letters. Sometimes there is no obvious root word. –our is changed to –or before –ous is added. A final ‘e’ of the root word must be kept if the /dʒ/ sound of ‘g’ is to be kept. If there is an /i:/ sound before the –ous ending, it is usually spelt as i , but a few words have e .	poisonous, dangerous, mountainous, famous, various tremendous, enormous, jealous humorous, glamorous, vigorous courageous, outrageous serious, obvious, curious hideous, spontaneous, courteous

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

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Possessive apostrophe with plural words	The apostrophe is placed after the plural form of the word; -s is not added if the plural already ends in -s , but <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)	disappear	interest	pressure
actual(ly)	early	island	probably
address	earth	knowledge	promise
answer	eight/eighth	learn	purpose
appear	enough	length	quarter
arrive	exercise	library	question
believe	experience	material	recent
bicycle	experiment	medicine	regular
breath	extreme	mention	reign
breathe	famous	minute	remember
build	favourite	natural	sentence
busy/business	February	naughty	separate
calendar	forward(s)	notice	special
caught	fruit	occasion(ally)	straight
centre	grammar	often	strange
century	group	opposite	strength
certain	guard	ordinary	suppose
circle	guide	particular	surprise
complete	heard	peculiar	therefore
consider	heart	perhaps	though/although
continue	height	popular	thought
decide	history	position	through
describe	imagine	possess(ion)	various
different	increase	possible	weight
difficult	important	potatoes	woman/women

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.

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 *appears* 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	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> . Exception: <i>anxious</i> .	<i>vicious</i> , <i>precious</i> , <i>conscious</i> , <i>delicious</i> , <i>malicious</i> , <i>suspicious</i> <i>ambitious</i> , <i>cautious</i> , <i>fictitious</i> , <i>infectious</i> , <i>nutritious</i>
Endings which sound like	-cial is common after a vowel letter and -tial after a consonant	<i>official</i> , <i>special</i> , <i>artificial</i> , <i>partial</i> , <i>confidential</i> ,

Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
/ʃəl/	letter, but there are some exceptions. 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>).	essential
Words ending in –ant, –ance/–ancy, –ent, –ence/–ency	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. 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. There are many words, however, where the above guidance does not help. These words just have to be learnt.	observant, observance, (observat <u>ion</u>), expectant (expectat <u>ion</u>), hesitant, hesitancy (hesitat <u>ion</u>), tolerant, tolerance (tolerat <u>ion</u>), substance (substant <u>ial</u>) innocent, innocence, decent, decency, frequent, frequency, confident, confidence (confident <u>ial</u>) assistant, assistance, obedient, obedience, independent, independence
Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Words ending in –able and –ible Words ending in –ably and –ibly	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 . 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. 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. 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>).	adorable/adorably (adoration), applicable/applicably (application), considerable/considerably (consideration), tolerable/tolerably (toleration) changeable, noticeable, forcible, legible dependable, comfortable, understandable, reasonable, enjoyable, reliable possible/possibly, horrible/horribly, terrible/terribly, visible/visibly, incredible/incredibly, sensible/sensibly
Adding suffixes beginning with vowel letters to words ending in –fer	The r is doubled if the –fer is still stressed when the ending is added. The r is not doubled if the –fer is no longer stressed.	referring, referred, referral, preferring, preferred, transferring, transferred reference, referee, preference, transference
Use of the hyphen	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.	co-ordinate, re-enter, co-operate, co-own
Statutory requirements	Rules and guidance (non-statutory)	Example words (non-statutory)
Words with the /i:/ sound spelt ei after c	The ‘ i before e except after c ’ rule applies to words where the sound spelt by ei is /i:/. Exceptions: <i>protein</i> , <i>caffeine</i> , <i>seize</i> (and <i>either</i> and <i>neither</i> if pronounced with an initial /i:/ sound).	deceive, conceive, receive, perceive, ceiling
Words containing the letter-string ough	ough is one of the trickiest spellings in English – it can be used to spell a number of different sounds.	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	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> .	doubt, island, lamb, solemn, thistle, knight

word)		
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.</p> <p>aloud: out loud. allowed: permitted.</p> <p>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>).</p> <p>altar: a table-like piece of furniture in a church. alter: to change.</p> <p>ascent: the act of ascending (going up). assent: to agree/agreement (verb and noun).</p> <p>bridal: to do with a bride at a wedding. bridle: reins etc. for controlling a horse.</p> <p>cereal: made from grain (e.g. breakfast cereal). serial: adjective from the noun <i>series</i> – a succession of things one after the other.</p> <p>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/prophecy</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</p> <p>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). 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) 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>) 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>) principle: basic truth or belief profit: money that is made in selling things prophet: someone who foretells the future stationary: not moving stationery: paper, envelopes etc. steal: take something that does not belong to you steel: metal wary: cautious weary: tired who's: contraction of <i>who is</i> or <i>who has</i> whose: belonging to someone (e.g. <i>Whose jacket is that?</i>)</p>

Word list – years 5 and 6

accommodate	average	conscious*	disastrous
accompany	awkward	controversy	embarrass
according	bargain	convenience	environment
achieve	bruise	correspond	equip (–ped, –ment)
aggressive	category	criticise (critic + ise)	especially
amateur	cemetery	curiosity	exaggerate
ancient	committee	definite	excellent
apparent	communicate	desperate	existence
appreciate	community	determined	explanation
attached	competition	develop	familiar
available	conscience*	dictionary	foreign

forty
frequently
government
guarantee
harass
hindrance
identity
immediate(ly)
individual
interfere
interrupt
language
leisure
lightning
marvellous
mischievous
muscle
necessary
neighbour
nuisance
occupy
occur
opportunity
parliament
persuade
physical
prejudice
privilege
profession
programme
pronunciation
queue
recognise
recommend
relevant
restaurant
rhyme
rhythm
sacrifice
secretary
shoulder
signature
sincere(ly)
soldier
stomach
sufficient
suggest
symbol
system
temperature
thorough
twelfth
variety
vegetable
vehicle
yacht

Notes and guidance (non-statutory)

Teachers should continue to emphasize 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.

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**.

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	The surest way to identify adjectives is by the ways they can be used: before a noun, to make the noun's meaning more specific (i.e. to modify the noun), or after the verb <i>be</i> , as its complement . Adjectives cannot be modified by other adjectives. This distinguishes them from nouns , which can be. Adjectives are sometimes called 'describing words' because they pick out single characteristics such as size or colour. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adjectives from other word classes, because verbs , nouns and adverbs can do the same thing.	<i>The pupils did some really good work.</i> [adjective used before a noun, to modify it] <i>Their work was good.</i> [adjective used after the verb <i>be</i> , as its complement] Not adjectives: <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]
adverb	The surest way to identify adverbs is by the ways they can be used: they can modify a verb , an adjective , another adverb or even a whole clause. Adverbs are sometimes said to describe manner or time. This is often true, but it doesn't help to distinguish adverbs from	<i>Usha soon started snoring loudly.</i> [adverbs modifying the verbs <i>started</i> and <i>snoring</i>] <i>That match was really exciting!</i> [adverb modifying the adjective <i>exciting</i>] <i>We don't get to play games very often.</i> [adverb modifying the other adverb,

Term	Guidance	Example
	other word classes that can be used as adverbials , such as preposition phrases , noun phrases and subordinate clauses .	<p><i>often</i>]</p> <p><i>Fortunately, it didn't rain.</i> [adverb modifying the whole clause 'it didn't rain' by commenting on it] Not</p> <p>adverbs:</p> <p><i>Usha went <u>up the stairs</u>.</i> [preposition phrase used as adverbial]</p> <p><i>She finished her work <u>this evening</u>.</i> [noun phrase used as adverbial]</p> <p><i>She finished <u>when the teacher got cross</u>.</i> [subordinate clause used as adverbial]</p>
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 bus leaves <u>in five minutes</u>. [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	Apostrophes have two completely different uses: showing the place of missing letters (e.g. <i>I'm</i> for <i>I am</i>) marking possessives (e.g. <i>Hannah's mother</i>).	<p><i><u>I'm</u> going out and <u>I 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>
article	The articles <i>the</i> (definite) and <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> (indefinite) are the most common type of determiner .	<p><i><u>The</u> dog found <u>a</u> bone in <u>an</u> old box.</i></p>
auxiliary verb	The auxiliary verbs are: <i>be</i> , <i>have</i> , <i>do</i> and the modal verbs . They can be used to make questions and negative statements. In addition: <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	A clause is a special type of phrase whose head is a verb .	<p><i>It was raining.</i> [single-clause sentence]</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>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 but we were indoors.</i> [two finite clauses]</p> <p><i>If you are coming to the party, 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 Year 6, to the Mountain Peaks Field Study Centre, leaving school at 9.30am. This is an overnight visit. The centre has beautiful grounds and <i>a nature trail</i>. During the afternoon, the children will follow <i>the trail</i>.</p>
cohesive device	<p>Cohesive devices are words used to show how the different parts of a text fit together. In other words, they create cohesion.</p> <p>Some examples of cohesive devices are:</p> <p>determiners and pronouns, which can refer back to earlier words</p> <p>conjunctions and adverbs, which can make relations between words clear</p> <p>ellipsis of expected words.</p>	<p><i>Julia's dad bought her a football. <u>The football</u> was expensive!</i> [determiner; refers us back to a particular football]</p> <p><i>Joe was given a bike. <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>To school!</u></i> [ellipsis of the expected words <i>I'm going</i>; links the answer back to the question]</p>
complement	<p>A verb's subject complement adds more information about its subject, and its object complement does the same for its object.</p> <p>Unlike the verb's object, its complement may be an adjective.</p> <p>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>] <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. There are two main types of conjunctions:</p> <p>co-ordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>and</i>) link two words or</p>	<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>

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

Term	Guidance	Example
ellipsis	Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.	<i>Frankie waved to Ivana and she watched her drive away.</i> <i>She did it because she wanted to <u>do it</u>.</i>
etymology	A word's etymology is its history: its origins in earlier forms of English or other languages, and how its form and meaning have changed. Many words in English have come from Greek, Latin or French.	The word <i>school</i> was borrowed from a Greek word <i>σχολή</i> (<i>skholē</i>) meaning 'leisure'. The word <i>verb</i> comes from Latin <i>verbum</i> , meaning 'word'. The word <i>mutton</i> comes from French <i>mouton</i> , meaning 'sheep'.
finite verb	Every sentence typically has at least one verb which is either past or present tense. Such verbs are called 'finite'. The imperative verb in a command is also finite. Verbs that are not finite, such as participles or infinitives, cannot stand on their own: they are linked to another verb in the sentence.	<i>Lizzie <u>does</u> the dishes every day.</i> [present tense] <i>Even Hana <u>did</u> the dishes yesterday.</i> [past tense] <i><u>Do</u> the dishes, Naser!</i> [imperative] Not finite verbs: <i>I have <u>done</u> them.</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>have</i>] <i>I will <u>do</u> them.</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>will</i>] <i>I want to <u>do</u> them!</i> [combined with the finite verb <i>want</i>]
fronting, fronted	A word or phrase that normally comes after the verb may be moved before the verb: when this happens, we say it has been 'fronted'. For example, a fronted adverbial is an adverbial which has been moved before the verb. When writing fronted phrases, we often follow them with a comma.	<i><u>Before we begin</u>, make sure you've got a pencil.</i> [Without fronting: <i>Make sure you've got a pencil before we begin.</i>] <i><u>The day after tomorrow</u>, I'm visiting my granddad.</i> [Without fronting: <i>I'm visiting my granddad the day after tomorrow.</i>]
future	Reference to future time can be marked in a number of different ways in English. All these ways involve the use of a present-tense verb . See also tense . Unlike many other languages (such as French, Spanish or Italian), English has no distinct 'future tense' form of the verb comparable with its present and past tenses.	<i>He <u>will leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>will</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>] <i>He <u>may leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>may</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>] <i>He <u>leaves</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>leaves</i>] <i>He <u>is going to leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense <i>is</i> followed by <i>going to</i> plus the infinitive <i>leave</i>]
GPC	See grapheme-phoneme correspondences .	
grapheme	A letter, or combination of letters, that corresponds to a single phoneme within a word.	The grapheme <i>t</i> in <u>the</u> words <i>ten</i> , <i>bet</i> <u>and</u> <i>ate</i> <u>correspon</u> ds to the phoneme /t/. The grapheme <i>ph</i> in the word <i>dolphin</i> corresponds to the phoneme /f/.

Term	Guidance	Example
grapheme-phoneme correspondences	The links between letters, or combinations of letters (graphemes) and the speech sounds (phonemes) that they represent. In the English writing system, graphemes may correspond to different phonemes in different words.	The grapheme <i>s</i> corresponds to the phoneme /s/ in the word <i>see</i> , but... ...it corresponds to the phoneme /z/ in the word <i>easy</i> .
head	See phrase .	
homonym	Two different words are homonyms if they both look exactly the same when written, and sound exactly the same when pronounced.	<i>Has he <u>left</u> yet? Yes – he went through the door on the <u>left</u>. 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> <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: after <i>to</i> after modal verbs .	<i>I want to <u>walk</u>. 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 or plural). In contrast, adding <i>-er</i> to <i>walk</i> produces a completely different word, <i>walker</i> , which is part of the same word family . Inflection is sometimes thought of as merely a change of ending, but, in fact, some words change completely when inflected.	<i><u>dogs</u> is an inflection of <i>dog</i>. <u>went</u> is an inflection of <i>go</i>. <u>better</u> is an inflection of <i>good</i>.</i>
intransitive verb	A verb which does not need an object in a sentence to complete its meaning is described as intransitive. See ' transitive verb '.	<i>We all <u>laughed</u>. We would like to stay longer, but we must <u>leave</u>.</i>
main clause	A sentence contains at least one clause which is not a subordinate clause ; such a clause is a main clause. A main clause may contain any number of subordinate clauses.	<i><u>It was raining</u> but <u>the sun was shining</u>. [two main clauses] <u>The man who wrote it told me that it was true</u>. [one main clause containing two subordinate clauses.] She said, "It rained all day." [one main clause containing another.]</i>

Term	Guidance	Example
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 – he sings</i>, but not <i>I must – he musts</i>).</p>	<p><i>I can do this maths work by myself. This ride may be too scary for you! You should help your little brother. Is it going to rain? Yes, it might.</i></p> <p><i>Canning swim is important. [not possible because can must be finite; contrast: Being able to swim is important, where being is not a modal verb]</i></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>: <i>teacher</i> is modified by <i>primary-school</i> (to mean a specific kind of teacher) <i>school</i> is modified by <i>primary</i> (to mean a specific kind of school).</p>
morphology	<p>A word’s morphology is its internal make-up in terms of root words and suffixes or prefixes, as well as other kinds of change such as the change of <i>mouse</i> to <i>mice</i>.</p> <p>Morphology may be used to produce different inflections of the same word (e.g. <i>boy – boys</i>), or entirely new words (e.g. <i>boy – boyish</i>) belonging to the same word family.</p> <p>A word that contains two or more root words is a compound (e.g. <i>news+paper, ice+cream</i>).</p>	<p><i>dogs</i> has the morphological make-up: <i>dog + s</i>.</p> <p><i>unhelpfulness</i> has the morphological make-up: <i>unhelpful + ness</i> where <i>unhelpful</i> = <i>un + helpful</i> and <i>helpful</i> = <i>help + ful</i></p>
noun	<p>The surest way to identify nouns is by the ways they can be used after determiners such as <i>the</i>: for example, most nouns will fit into the frame “The matters/matter.”</p> <p>Nouns are sometimes called ‘naming words’ because they name people, places and ‘things’; this is often true, but it doesn’t help to distinguish nouns from other word classes. For example, prepositions can name places and verbs can name ‘things’ such as actions.</p> <p>Nouns may be classified as common (e.g. <i>boy, day</i>) or proper (e.g. <i>Ivan, Wednesday</i>), and also as countable (e.g. <i>thing, boy</i>) or uncountable (e.g. <i>stuff, money</i>). These classes can be recognised by the determiners they combine with.</p>	<p><i>Our dog bit the burglar on his behind!</i></p> <p><i>My big brother did an amazing jump on his skateboard. Actions speak louder than words.</i></p> <p>Not nouns: <i>He’s behind you!</i> [this names a place, but is a preposition, not a noun] <i>She can jump so high!</i> [this names an action, but is a verb, not a noun] common, countable: <i>a book, books, two chocolates, one day, fewer ideas</i> common, non-countable: <i>money, some chocolate, less imagination</i> proper, countable: <i>Marilyn, London, Wednesday</i></p>
noun phrase	<p>A noun phrase is a phrase with a noun as its head, e.g. <i>some</i></p>	<p><i>Adult foxes can jump.</i> [<i>adult</i> modifies <i>foxes</i>, so <i>adult</i> belongs to the noun</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p><i>foxes, foxes with bushy tails.</i> Some grammarians recognise one-word phrases, so that <i>foxes are multiplying</i> would contain the noun <i>foxes</i> acting as the head of the noun phrase <i>foxes</i>.</p>	<p>phrase]</p> <p><i>Almost all healthy adult foxes in this area can jump.</i> [all the other words help to modify <i>foxes</i>, so they all belong to the noun phrase]</p>
object	<p>An object is normally a noun, pronoun or noun phrase that comes straight after the verb, and shows what the verb is acting upon.</p> <p>Objects can be turned into the subject of a passive verb, and cannot be adjectives (contrast with complements).</p>	<p><i>Year 2 designed <u>puppets</u>.</i> [noun acting as object]</p> <p><i>I like <u>that</u>.</i> [pronoun acting as object]</p> <p>Some people suggested a pretty display. [noun phrase acting as object] Contrast:</p> <p><i>A display was suggested.</i> [object of active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb]</p> <p><i>Year 2 designed <u>pretty</u>.</i> [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]</p>
participle	<p>Verbs in English have two participles, called ‘present participle’ (e.g. <i>walking, taking</i>) and ‘past participle’ (e.g. <i>walked, taken</i>).</p> <p>Unfortunately, these terms can be confusing to learners, because: they don’t necessarily have anything to do with present or past time</p> <p>Although past participles are used as perfects (e.g. <i>has eaten</i>) they are also used as passives (e.g. <i>was eaten</i>).</p>	<p><i>He is <u>walking</u> to school.</i> [present participle in a progressive] <i>He has <u>taken</u> the bus to school.</i> [past participle in a perfect] <i>The photo was <u>taken</u> in the rain.</i> [past participle in a passive]</p>
passive	<p>The sentence <i>It was eaten by our dog</i> is the passive form of <i>Our dog ate it</i>. A passive is recognisable from:</p> <p>the past participle form <i>eaten</i></p> <p>the normal object (<i>it</i>) turned into the subject</p> <p>the normal subject (<i>our dog</i>) turned into an optional preposition phrase with <i>by</i> as its head</p> <p>the verb <i>be(was)</i>, or some other verb such as <i>get</i>. Contrast active.</p> <p>A verb is not ‘passive’ just because it has a passive meaning: it must be the passive version of an active verb.</p>	<p><i>A visit was <u>arranged</u> by the school. Our cat got <u>run</u> over by a bus.</i></p> <p>Active versions:</p> <p><i>The school arranged a visit. A bus ran over our cat.</i></p> <p>Not passive:</p> <p><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>Verbs 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 past]</p>

Term	Guidance	Example
	<p>talk about the past</p> <p>talk about imagined situations</p> <p>make a request sound more polite.</p> <p>Most verbs take a suffix <i>-ed</i>, to form their past tense, but many commonly-used verbs are irregular.</p> <p>See also tense.</p>	<p><i>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> <p>turning the verb into its past participle inflection adding a form of the verb <i>have</i> before it.</p> <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> <p><i>/t/</i> contrasts with <i>/k/</i> to signal the difference between <i>tap</i> and <i>cap</i></p> <p><i>/t/</i> contrasts with <i>/l/</i> to signal the difference between <i>bought</i> and <i>ball</i>.</p> <p>It is this contrast in meaning that tells us there are two distinct phonemes at work.</p> <p>There are around 44 phonemes in English; the exact number depends on regional accents. A single phoneme may be represented in writing by one, two, three or four letters constituting a single grapheme.</p>	<p>The word <i>cat</i> has three letters and three phonemes: /kæt/ The word <i>catch</i> has five letters and three phonemes: /kɑːtʃ/ The word <i>caught</i> has six letters and three phonemes: /kɑːt/</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</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</p>

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	<p>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.</p> <p>Phrases can be made up of other phrases.</p>	<p>head]</p> <p><i>She waved to her mother.</i> [a clause, with the verb <i>waved</i> as its head]</p>
plural	<p>A plural noun normally has a suffix –s or –es and means ‘more than one’.</p> <p>There are a few nouns with different morphology in the plural (e.g. <i>mice</i>, <i>formulae</i>).</p>	<p><i>dogs</i> [more than one dog]; <i>boxes</i> [more than one box]</p> <p><i>mice</i> [more than one mouse]</p>
possessive	<p>A possessive can be:</p> <p>a noun followed by an apostrophe, with or without <i>s</i></p> <p>a possessive pronoun.</p> <p>The relation expressed by a possessive goes well beyond ordinary ideas of ‘possession’. A possessive may act as a determiner.</p>	<p><i>Tariq’s book</i> [Tariq has the book]</p> <p><i>The boys’ arrival</i> [the boys arrive]</p> <p><i>His obituary</i> [the obituary is about him]</p> <p><i>That essay is mine.</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>overtake, disappear</i></p>
preposition	<p>A preposition links a following noun, pronoun or noun phrase to some other word in the sentence. Prepositions often describe locations or directions, but can describe other things, such as relations of time.</p> <p>Words like <i>before</i> or <i>since</i> can act either as prepositions or as conjunctions.</p>	<p><i>Tom waved goodbye to Christy. She’ll be back from Australia in two weeks.</i></p> <p><i>I haven’t seen my dog since this morning.</i></p> <p>Contrast: <i>I’m going, since no-one wants me here!</i> [conjunction: links two clauses]</p>
preposition phrase	<p>A preposition phrase has a preposition as its head followed by a noun, pronoun or noun phrase.</p>	<p><i>He was in bed.</i></p> <p><i>I met them after the party.</i></p>
present tense	<p>Verbs in the present tense are commonly used to: talk about the present</p> <p>talk about the future.</p> <p>They may take a suffix –s (depending on the subject). See also tense.</p>	<p><i>Jamal goes to the pool every day.</i> [describes a habit that exists now]</p> <p><i>He can swim.</i> [describes a state that is true now]</p> <p><i>The bus arrives at three.</i> [scheduled now]</p> <p><i>My friends are coming to play.</i> [describes a plan in progress now]</p>

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progressive	The progressive (also known as the ‘continuous’) form of a <u>verb</u> generally describes events in progress. It is formed by combining the verb’s present <u>participle</u> (e.g. <i>singing</i>) with a form of the verb <i>be</i> (e.g. <i>he was singing</i>). The progressive can also be combined with the <u>perfect</u> (e.g. <i>he has been singing</i>).	<i>Michael <u>is singing</u> in the store room.</i> [present progressive] <i>Amanda <u>was making</u> a patchwork quilt.</i> [past progressive] <i>Usha <u>had been practising</u> for an hour when I called.</i> [past perfect progressive]
pronoun	Pronouns are normally used like <u>nouns</u> , except that: they are grammatically more specialised it is harder to <u>modify</u> them In the examples, each sentence is written twice: once with nouns, and once with pronouns (underlined). Where the same thing is being talked about, the words are shown in bold.	<i>Amanda waved to Michael. <u>She</u></i> <i>waved to <u>him</u>.</i> <i>John’s mother is over there. <u>His</u> mother is over there.</i> <i>The visit will be an overnight visit. <u>This</u> will be an overnight visit. Simon is the person: <u>Simon</u> broke it. He is the one <u>who</u> broke it.</i>
punctuation	Punctuation includes any conventional features of writing other than spelling and general layout: the standard punctuation marks . , ; : ? ! - - () “ ” ‘ ’ , and also word- spaces, capital letters, apostrophes, paragraph breaks and bullet points. One important role of punctuation is to indicate <u>sentence</u> boundaries.	<i><u>“I’m going out, Usha, and I won’t be long.” Mum said.</u></i>
Received Pronunciation	Received Pronunciation (often abbreviated to RP) is an accent which is used only by a small minority of English speakers in England. It is not associated with any one region. Because of its regional neutrality, it is the accent which is generally shown in dictionaries in the UK (but not, of course, in the USA). RP has no special status in the national curriculum.	
register	Classroom lessons, football commentaries and novels use different registers of the same language, recognised by differences of vocabulary and grammar. Registers are ‘varieties’ of a language which are each tied to a range of uses, in contrast with dialects, which are tied to groups of users.	<i>I regret to inform you that Mr Joseph Smith has passed away.</i> [formal letter] <i>Have you heard that Joe has died?</i> [casual speech] <i>Joe falls down and dies, centre stage.</i> [stage direction]
relative clause	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. A relative clause may also be attached to a <u>clause</u> . In that case,	<i>That’s the boy <u>who</u> lives near school.</i> [<i>who</i> refers back to <i>boy</i>] <i>The prize <u>that</u> <u>Lwon</u> was a book.</i> [<i>that</i> refers back to <i>prize</i>] <i>The prize <u>Lwon</u> was a book.</i> [the pronoun <i>that</i> is omitted] <i>Tom broke the game, <u>which</u> annoyed Ali.</i> [<i>which</i> refers back to the whole

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	<p>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>clause]</p>
root word	<p>Morphology breaks words down into root words, which can stand alone, and suffixes or prefixes which can't. For example, <i>help</i> is the root word for other words in its word family such as <i>helpful</i> and <i>helpless</i>, and also for its inflections such as <i>helping</i>. Compound words (e.g. <i>help-desk</i>) contain two or more root words. When looking in a dictionary, we sometimes have to look for the root word (or words) of the word we are interested in.</p>	<p><i>played</i> [the root word is <i>play</i>] <i>unfair</i> [the root word is <i>fair</i>] <i>football</i> [the root words are <i>foot</i> and <i>ball</i>]</p>
schwa	<p>The name of a vowel sound that is found only in unstressed positions in English. It is the most common vowel sound in English.</p> <p>It is written as /◊/ in the International Phonetic Alphabet. In the English writing system, it can be written in many different ways.</p>	<p>/◊lɪŋ/ [<i>along</i>] /bʌt◊/ [<i>butte</i>] /dɒkt◊/ [<i>doct</i>]</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><i>John went to his friend's house. He stayed there till tea-time.</i> <i>John went to his friend's house, he stayed there till tea-time.</i> [This is a 'comma splice', a common error in which a comma is used where either a full stop or a semi-colon is needed to indicate the lack of any grammatical connection between the two clauses.]</p> <p><i>You are my friend.</i> [statement] <i>Are you my friend?</i> [question] <i>Be my friend!</i> [command] <i>What a good friend you are!</i> [exclamation]</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 .	

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Standard English	Standard English can be recognised by the use of a very small range of forms such as <i>those books</i> , <i>I did it</i> and <i>I wasn't doing anything</i> (rather than their non-Standard equivalents); it is not limited to any particular accent. It is the variety of English which is used, with only minor variation, as a major world language. Some people use Standard English all the time, in all situations from the most casual to 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><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 syllable 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 noun, noun phrase or pronoun that names the 'do-er' or 'be-er'. The subject's normal position is: just before the verb in a statement</p> <p>just after the auxiliary verb, in a question.</p> <p>Unlike the verb's object and complement, the subject can determine the form of the verb (e.g. <i>I am</i>, <i><u>you are</u></i>).</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. Will <u>the children</u> study the animals?</i></p>
subjunctive	In some languages, the inflections of a verb include a large range of special forms which are used typically in subordinate clauses , and are called 'subjunctives'. English has very few such forms and those it has tend to be used in rather formal styles.	<p><i>The school requires that all pupils <u>be</u> honest.</i></p> <p><i>The school rules demand that pupils not <u>enter</u> the gym at lunchtime. 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: an adjective is subordinate to the noun it modifies subjects and objects are subordinate to their verbs.</p> <p>Subordination is much more common than the equal relationship of co-ordination.</p>	<p><i><u>big dogs</u> [big is subordinate to dogs]</i></p> <p><i><u>Big dogs need long walks</u>. [big dogs and long walks are subordinate to need] We can watch TV <u>when we've finished</u>. [when we've finished is subordinate to watch]</i></p>

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	See also subordinate clause .	
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 where Ben lives.</i> [relative clause; modifies <i>street</i>] <i>He watched her as she disappeared.</i> [adverbial; modifies <i>watched</i>] <i>What you said was very nice.</i> [acts as subject of <i>was</i>]</p> <p><i>She noticed an hour had passed.</i> [acts as object of <i>noticed</i>] Not subordinate: <i>He shouted, "Look out!"</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 – called</i></p> <p><i>teach – teacher</i> [turns a verb into a noun]</p> <p><i>terror – terrorise</i> [turns a noun into a verb]</p> <p><i>green – greenish</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 – speak</i></p> <p><i>old – elderly</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 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><i>He studies.</i> [present tense – present time]</p> <p><i>He studied yesterday.</i> [past tense – past time]</p> <p><i>He studies tomorrow, or else!</i> [present tense – future time]</p> <p><i>He may study tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive – future time]</p> <p><i>He plans to study tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive – future time]</p> <p><i>If he studied tomorrow, he'd see the difference!</i> [past tense – imagined future] Contrast three distinct tense forms in Spanish:</p> <p><i>Estudia.</i> [present tense]</p> <p><i>Estudió.</i> [past tense]</p> <p><i>Estudiará.</i> [future tense]</p>

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transitive verb	A transitive verb takes at least one object in a sentence to complete its meaning, in contrast to an intransitive verb , which does not.	<i>He <u>loves</u> Juliet.</i> <i>She <u>understands</u> English grammar.</i>
trigraph	A type of grapheme where three letters represent one phoneme .	<i>High, pure, patch, hedge</i>
unstressed	See stressed .	
verb	<p>The surest way to identify verbs is by the ways they can be used: they can usually have a tense, either present or past (see also future).</p> <p>Verbs are sometimes called ‘doing words’ because many verbs name an action that someone does; while this can be a way of recognising verbs, it doesn’t distinguish verbs from nouns (which can also name actions). Moreover many verbs name states or feelings rather than actions.</p> <p>Verbs can be classified in various ways: for example, as auxiliary, or modal; as transitive or intransitive; and as states or events.</p>	<p><i>He <u>lives</u> in Birmingham.</i> [present tense] <i>The teacher <u>wrote</u> a song for the class.</i> [past tense] <i>He <u>likes</u> chocolate.</i> [present tense; not an action] <i>He <u>knew</u> my father.</i> [past tense; not an action]</p> <p>Not verbs: <i>The <u>walk</u> to Halina’s house will take an hour.</i> [noun] <i>All that <u>surfing</u> makes Morwenna so sleepy!</i> [noun]</p>
vowel	<p>A vowel is a speech sound which is produced without any closure or obstruction of the vocal tract.</p> <p>Vowels can form syllables by themselves, or they may combine with consonants.</p> <p>In the English writing system, the letters <i>a, e, i, o, u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent vowels.</p>	
word	<p>A word is a unit of grammar: it can be selected and moved around relatively independently, but cannot easily be split. In punctuation, words are normally separated by word spaces.</p> <p>Sometimes, a sequence that appears grammatically to be two words is collapsed into a single written word, indicated with a hyphen or apostrophe (e.g. <i>well-built, he’s</i>).</p>	<p><i><u>headteacher</u> or <u>head teacher</u></i> [can be written with or without a space] <i><u>I’m</u> going out.</i> <i><u>9.30 am</u></i></p>
word class	Every word belongs to a word class which summarises the ways in which it can be used in grammar. The major word classes for English are: noun , verb , adjective , adverb , preposition , determiner , pronoun , conjunction . Word classes are sometimes called ‘parts of speech’.	
word family	The words in a word family are normally related to each other by a combination of morphology , grammar and meaning.	<p><i>teach – teacher</i> <i>extend – extent – extensive</i></p>

