

Glossary for the programmes of study for English at Key Stages 1 and 2

The following glossary includes all the technical grammatical terms used in the programmes of study for English at Key Stages 1 and 2. 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 (e.g. *connective*, *root word*), the terms below are used with the meanings defined here in most modern books on English grammar. For further details, teachers should consult the many books that are available.

Terms in definitions

As in any tightly structured area of knowledge, grammar 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 appear in [blue](#), and are hyperlinked. For some concepts, the technical definition may be slightly different from the meaning that some teachers may have learnt at school themselves; in these cases, the more familiar meaning is also discussed.

active voice	A verb in the active voice has its usual pattern of subject and object (in contrast with the passive voice).	<i>The school arranged a visit.</i> Passive voice: <i>A visit was arranged.</i>
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adjective	<p>The surest way to identify adjectives is by the ways they can be used:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • before a noun, to make the noun’s meaning more specific (i.e. to modify the noun), or • after the verb <i>be</i>, as its complement. <p>Adjectives cannot be modified by other adjectives. This distinguishes them from nouns, which can be.</p> <p>Adjectives are sometimes called “describing words” because they pick out single characteristics such as size or colour. This is often true, but it doesn’t help to distinguish adjectives from other word classes, because verbs, nouns and adverbs can do the same thing.</p>	<p><i>The pupils did some really <u>good</u> work.</i> [adjective used before a noun, to modify it] <i>Their work was <u>good</u>.</i> [adjective used after the verb <i>be</i>, as its complement]</p> <p>Not adjectives:</p> <p><i>The lamp <u>glowed</u>.</i> [verb] <i>It was such a bright <u>red</u>!</i> [noun] <i>He walked <u>clumsily</u>.</i> [adverb] <i>It was a French <u>grammar</u> book.</i> [noun]</p>
adverb	<p>The surest way to identify adverbs is by the ways they can be used: they can modify a verb, an adjective, or even another adverb. Put another way, adverbs can make the meanings of these other words more specific.</p> <p>Adverbs are sometimes said to describe manner or time. This is often true, but it doesn’t help to distinguish adverbs from other word classes, because prepositions, nouns and subordinate clauses can also do this.</p>	<p><i>Usha went <u>upstairs</u> to play on her computer.</i> [adverb modifying the verb <i>went</i>] <i>That match was <u>really</u> exciting!</i> [adverb modifying the adjective <i>exciting</i>] <i>We don’t get to play games <u>very</u> often.</i> [adverb modifying the other adverb, <i>often</i>]</p> <p>Not adverbs:</p> <p><i>Usha went <u>up</u> the stairs.</i> [preposition] <i>She finished her work <u>this evening</u>.</i> [noun] <i>She finished <u>when the teacher got cross</u>.</i> [subordinate clause]</p>
adverbial	<p>An adverbial is a word or phrase that makes the meaning of a verb more specific (i.e. it modifies the verb).</p> <p>Of course, adverbs can be used as an adverbial, but many types of words and phrases can be used this way, including preposition phrases and subordinate clauses.</p>	<p><i>The bus leaves <u>in five minutes</u>.</i> [preposition phrase as adverbial: modifies <i>leaves</i>] <i>Alex forgot <u>to buy Easter eggs</u>.</i> [subordinate clause as adverbial: modifies <i>forgot</i>] <i>Priscila complained <u>constantly</u>.</i> [adverb: modifies <i>complained</i>]</p>
apostrophe	<p>Apostrophes have two completely different uses:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • showing the place of missing letters (e.g. <i>I’m</i> for <i>I am</i>) • showing possession (e.g. <i>Hannah’s mother</i>). 	<p><i>I’m going out and I <u>won’t</u> be long.</i> [showing missing letters] <i><u>Hannah’s</u> mother went to town in <u>Justin’s</u> car.</i> [showing possession]</p>
article	<p>The articles are <i>the</i> (definite) and <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> (indefinite). Articles are a type of determiner.</p>	<p><i><u>The</u> dog found <u>a</u> bone in <u>an</u> old box.</i></p>

auxiliary verb	<p>The auxiliary verbs are <i>be</i>, <i>have</i> and <i>do</i>, plus all the modal verbs. They can all be used to make questions and negative statements. In addition:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>be</i> is used in the continuous and passive • <i>have</i> is used in the perfect • <i>do</i> is used to make 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 continuous] <i><u>Have</u> you finished your picture?</i> [<i>have</i> used to make a question, and the perfect] <i>No, I <u>don't</u> know him.</i> [<i>do</i> used to make a negative; no other auxiliary is present] <i><u>Will</u> you come with me or not?</i> [modal verb <i>will</i> used to make a question]</p>
clause	<p>A clause is a special type of phrase, whose main word (or “head”) is a verb that describes an event or state of affairs. Clauses can sometimes be complete sentences.</p> <p>Traditionally, a clause had to have a finite verb, but most modern grammarians also recognise non-finite clauses.</p>	<p><i><u>Eleni's mother was out</u> so Eleni was left in charge.</i> <i>Eleni's mother went out so <u>Eleni was left in charge</u>.</i> <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 colours and underlines), and the logical relations, such as time and cause, between different parts are clear.</p>	<p><i><u>A visit</u> has been arranged for Year 6, to the <u>Mountain Peaks Field Study Centre</u>, leaving school at 9.30am. <u>This</u> is <u>an overnight visit</u>. <u>The centre</u> has beautiful grounds and <u>a nature trail</u>. During the afternoon, the children will follow <u>the trail</u>.</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> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • determiners and pronouns, which can refer back to earlier words • prepositions, conjunctions and adverbs, which can make relations between words clear • ellipsis of expected words. 	<p><i>Julia's dad bought her a football. <u>The</u> football was expensive!</i> [determiner; refers us back to a particular football]</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>Where are you going? [<u> </u>] To school!</i> [ellipsis of the expected words <i>I'm going</i>; links the answer back to the question]</p>
complement	<p>A verb's complement adds more information about the verb's subject (or, in some cases, its object).</p> <p>Unlike the verb's object, its complement may be an adjective. The verb <i>be</i> normally has a complement.</p>	<p><i>She is <u>our</u> teacher.</i> [adds more information about the subject, <i>she</i>] <i>Today is <u>Wednesday</u>.</i> [adds more information about the subject, <i>today</i>] <i>Learning makes me <u>happy</u>.</i> [adds more information about the object, <i>me</i>]</p>

conjunction	<p>A conjunction links two words or phrases together.</p> <p>There are two main types of conjunctions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • co-ordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>and</i>) link two words or phrases together as an equal pair • subordinating conjunctions (e.g. <i>when</i>) introduce a subordinate clause. 	<p><i>James bought a top <u>and</u> gloves.</i> [links the words <i>top</i> and <i>gloves</i> as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>Ali is strong <u>but</u> he is also very fast.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>Everyone watches <u>when</u> Kyle does back-flips.</i> [introduces a subordinate clause]</p> <p><i>Joe can't practise kicking <u>because</u> he's injured.</i> [introduces a subordinate clause]</p>
connective	<p>This is an informal name for words that connect the ideas expressed in different clauses; connectives may be prepositions, conjunctions or adverbs.</p>	<p><i>It rained on sports day, <u>so</u> we had to run <u>without</u> worrying <u>about</u> getting wet, <u>but</u> it was great fun <u>because</u> we got really muddy.</i></p>
consonant	<p>A sound which is produced when the speaker closes off or obstructs the flow of air through the vocal tract, usually using lips, tongue or teeth.</p> <p>Most of the letters of the alphabet represent consonants. Only the letters <i>a</i>, <i>e</i>, <i>i</i>, <i>o</i>, <i>u</i> and <i>y</i> can represent vowel sounds.</p>	<p>/p/ [flow of air stopped by the lips, then released]</p> <p>/t/ [flow of air stopped by the tongue touching the roof of the mouth, then released]</p> <p>/f/ [flow of air obstructed by the top teeth touching the bottom lip]</p> <p>/s/ [flow of air obstructed by the tip of the tongue touching the gum line]</p>
continuous	<p>The continuous (also known as the “progressive”) form of a verb generally describes actions in progress. It is formed by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • taking the <i>-ing</i> form of the verb (e.g. <i>singing</i>, <i>reading</i>) • adding the verb <i>be</i> before it (e.g. <i>he was reading</i>). <p>The continuous can also be combined with the perfect (e.g. <i>he has been reading</i>).</p>	<p><i>Michael <u>is singing</u> in the store room.</i> [present continuous]</p> <p><i>Amanda <u>was making</u> a patchwork quilt.</i> [past continuous]</p> <p><i>Usha <u>had been practising</u> for an hour when I called.</i> [past perfect continuous]</p>
co-ordinate, co-ordination	<p>Words or phrases are co-ordinated if they are linked as an equal pair by a co-ordinating conjunction (e.g. <i>and</i>).</p> <p>In the examples on the right, the co-ordinated elements are shown in the same colour, and the conjunction is underlined.</p> <p>The difference between co-ordination and subordination is that, in subordination, the two linked elements are not equal.</p>	<p><i>Susan <u>and</u> Amra met in a café.</i> [links the words <i>Susan</i> and <i>Amra</i> as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>They talked <u>and</u> drank tea for an hour.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p><i>Susan got a bus <u>but</u> Amra walked.</i> [links two clauses as an equal pair]</p> <p>Not co-ordination: <i>They ate <u>before</u> they met.</i> [<i>before</i> introduces a subordinate clause]</p>

determiner	<p>A determiner <u>modifies</u> a noun, but it goes before any other modifiers (e.g. adjectives or other nouns).</p> <p>Some examples of determiners are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <u>articles</u> (<i>the, a or an</i>) • demonstratives (e.g. <i>this, those</i>) • <u>possessives</u> (e.g. <i>my, your</i>) • quantifiers (e.g. <i>some, every</i>) • numerals (e.g. <i>thirty-one</i>) 	<p><i>the best team</i> [article] <i>that pupil</i> [demonstrative] <i>Julia's parents</i> [possessive] <i>some boys</i> [quantifier] <i>eleven strong players</i> [numeral]</p> <p>Contrast: <i>best the team</i> <i>strong eleven players</i> [both incorrect, because the determiner should come before other modifiers]</p>
digraph	<p>A type of <u>grapheme</u> where two letters represent one <u>phoneme</u>.</p> <p>Sometimes, these two letters are not next to one another; this is called a split digraph.</p>	<p>The digraph <u>ea</u> in <i>each</i> is pronounced /i:/. The digraph <u>sh</u> in <i>shed</i> is pronounced /ʃ/. The split digraph <u>i-e</u> in <i>line</i> is pronounced /aɪ/.</p>
ellipsis	<p>Ellipsis is the omission of a word or phrase which is expected and predictable.</p>	<p><i>Frankie waved to Ivana and she watched her drive away.</i> <i>She did it because she wanted to do it.</i></p>
etymology	<p>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.</p>	<p>The word <i>school</i> was borrowed from a Greek word σχολή (<i>skholé</i>) meaning "leisure".</p>
finite verb	<p>Finite verbs can stand on their own as the only verb in a sentence. They can be in the present tense, the past tense, or imperatives.</p> <p>Verbs that are not finite, such as participles or infinitives, cannot stand on their own: they depend on another verb in the sentence.</p>	<p><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]</p> <p>Not finite verbs: <i>I have <u>done</u> them.</i> [depends on the finite verb <i>have</i>] <i>I will <u>do</u> them.</i> [depends on the finite verb <i>will</i>] <i>I want to <u>do</u> them!</i> [depends on the finite verb <i>want</i>]</p>

fronting, fronted	<p>A word or phrase that normally comes after the verb may be moved before the verb: when this happens, we say it has been “fronted”. For example, a fronted adverbial is an adverbial which has been moved before the verb.</p> <p>When writing fronted phrases, we often follow them with a comma.</p>	<p><i><u>Before we begin</u>, make sure you’ve got a pencil.</i></p> <p>[Without fronting: <i>Make sure you’ve got a pencil before we begin.</i>]</p> <p><i><u>The day after tomorrow</u>, I’m visiting my granddad.</i></p> <p>[Without fronting: <i>I’m visiting my granddad the day after tomorrow.</i>]</p>
future	<p>Reference to future time can be marked in a number of different ways in English. All these ways involve the use of a present-tense verb.</p> <p>See also tense.</p> <p>Unlike many other languages (such as French, Spanish or Italian), English has no distinct “future tense” form of the verb comparable with its present and past tenses.</p>	<p><i>He <u>will leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>will</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]</p> <p><i>He <u>may leave</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>may</i> followed by infinitive <i>leave</i>]</p> <p><i>He <u>leaves</u> tomorrow.</i> [present-tense <i>leaves</i>]</p>
GPC	<p>See grapheme-phoneme correspondences.</p>	
grapheme	<p>A letter, or combination of letters, that corresponds to a single phoneme within a word.</p>	<p>The grapheme <u>t</u> in the words <u>ten</u>, <u>bet</u> and <u>ate</u> corresponds to the phoneme /t/.</p> <p>The grapheme <u>ph</u> in the word <u>dolphin</u> corresponds to the phoneme /f/.</p>
grapheme-phoneme correspondences	<p>The links between letters, or combinations of letters, (graphemes) and the speech sounds (phonemes) that they represent.</p> <p>In the English writing system, graphemes may correspond to different phonemes in different words.</p>	<p>The grapheme <u>s</u> corresponds to the phoneme /s/ in the word <u>see</u>, but...</p> <p>...it corresponds to the phoneme /z/ in the word <u>easy</u>.</p>
homograph	<p>Two different words are homographs if they look exactly the same when written.</p>	<p><i>A female pig is called a <u>sow</u>. The farmer has to <u>sow</u> the seeds.</i></p> <p><i>This animal is called a <u>bear</u>. I can’t <u>bear</u> to look at it!</i></p>
homonym	<p>Two different words are homonyms if they both look exactly the same when written, and sound exactly the same when pronounced.</p>	<p><i>Has he <u>left</u> yet? Yes – he went through the door on the <u>left</u>.</i></p> <p><i>The noise a dog makes is called a <u>bark</u>. Trees have <u>bark</u>.</i></p>
homophone	<p>Two different words are homophones if they sound exactly the same when pronounced.</p>	<p><i><u>hear</u>, <u>here</u></i></p> <p><i><u>some</u>, <u>sum</u></i></p>

infinitive	<p>A verb's infinitive is its bare root-word (e.g. walk, be). It is the form that is usually found in the dictionary.</p> <p>Infinitives are often used:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • after <i>to</i> • after modal verbs. 	<p><i>I want to <u>walk</u>.</i></p> <p><i>I will be <u>quiet</u>.</i></p>
inflection	<p>Inflection is a change ('bending') of morphology which signals a special grammatical classification of the word.</p> <p>Inflection is sometimes thought of as a change of ending, but, in fact, some words can have all their parts inflected.</p>	<p><i>dogs</i> is the plural inflection of <i>dog</i>.</p> <p><i>went</i> is the past-tense inflection of <i>go</i>.</p>
modal verb	<p>Modal verbs are used to change the meaning of other verbs. They can express degrees of certainty, ability, or obligation. The main modal verbs are <i>will, would, can, could, may, might, shall, should, must</i> and <i>ought</i>.</p> <p>A modal verb only has finite forms and has no suffixes (e.g. <i>I sing</i> → <i>he sings</i>, but not <i>I must</i> → <i>he musts</i>).</p>	<p><i>I <u>can</u> do this maths work by myself.</i></p> <p><i>This ride <u>may</u> be too scary for you!</i></p> <p><i>You <u>should</u> help your little brother.</i></p> <p><i>Is it going to rain? Yes, it <u>might</u>.</i></p>
modify	<p>One word or phrase modifies another by making its meaning more specific.</p> <p>Because the two words make a phrase, the "modifier" is normally close to the modified word.</p>	<p>In the phrase <i>primary-school teacher</i>:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>teacher</i> is modified by <i>primary-school</i> (to mean a specific kind of teacher) • <i>school</i> is modified by <i>primary</i> (to mean a specific kind of school).
morphology	<p>A word's morphology is its internal make-up, consisting of a root word plus any changes (e.g. the addition of suffix).</p> <p>Dictionaries normally give only the root word.</p>	<p><i>dogs</i> has the morphological make-up: <i>dog</i> + <i>s</i>.</p>
noun	<p>The surest way to identify nouns is by the ways they can be used: they can go with a verb to act as its subject, and can usually be singular or plural.</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 actions.</p>	<p><i>Our <u>dog</u> bit the <u>burglar</u> on his <u>behind</u>!</i></p> <p><i>My big <u>brother</u> did an amazing <u>jump</u> on his <u>skateboard</u>.</i></p> <p>Not nouns: <i>He's <u>behind</u> you!</i> [this names a place, but is a preposition, not a noun] <i>She can <u>jump</u> so high!</i> [this names an action, but is a verb, not a noun]</p>

noun phrase	<p>A noun phrase is a phrase (i.e. a group of grammatically connected words) with a noun as its “head” (main word). A noun phrase can normally be used in place of a noun.</p> <p>The noun is called the “head” of the phrase because all the other words help to modify the noun.</p>	<p><i>Foxes can jump.</i> [noun phrase consisting of just a noun]</p> <p><i>Adult foxes can jump.</i> [<i>adult</i> modifies <i>foxes</i>, so <i>adult</i> belongs to the noun phrase]</p> <p><i>Almost all healthy adult foxes 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>that</u>.</i> [pronoun <i>that</i> acting as object] <i>Year 2 designed <u>a pretty display</u>.</i> [noun phrase <i>a pretty display</i> acting as object]</p> <p>Contrast: <i>A display was designed.</i> [object of active verb → subject of passive verb] <i>Year 2 designed pretty.</i> [incorrect, because adjectives cannot be objects]</p>
participle	<p>Verbs in English have two participles, called “present participle” (e.g. walking, taking) and “past participle” (e.g. walked, taken).</p> <p>Unfortunately, these terms can be confusing to learners, because:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • they don’t necessarily have anything to do with present or past time • “past participles” are also used as passives. 	<p><i>He is <u>walking</u> to school.</i> [present participle] <i>He has <u>taken</u> the bus to school.</i> [past participle] <i>The photo was <u>taken</u> in the rain.</i> [past participle]</p>
passive voice	<p>A verb in the passive voice:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • is in its past-participle form (e.g. <i>thrown</i>, <i>taken</i>, <i>helped</i>) • follows the verb <i>be</i> • has its normal (active) object and subject reversed. <p>Contrast active voice.</p> <p>A verb is not “passive” just because it has a passive meaning: it must be the passive-voice version of an active-voice verb.</p>	<p><i>A visit was <u>arranged</u> by the school.</i> <i>The ball was <u>thrown</u>.</i></p> <p>Active-voice versions: <i>The school arranged a visit.</i> <i>He threw the ball.</i></p> <p>Not passive voice: <i>He received a warning.</i> <i>We had an accident.</i></p>

<p>past tense</p>	<p>Verbs in the past tense are commonly used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • talk about the past • talk about imagined situations • make a request sound more polite. <p>Most verbs take a suffix <i>-ed</i>, to form their past tense, but many commonly used verbs are irregular.</p> <p>See also tense.</p>	<p><i>Tom and Cristy <u>showed</u> me their new TV.</i> [names an event in the past]</p> <p><i>Alex <u>went</u> on holiday to Brazil.</i> [names an event in the past; irregular past of <i>go</i>]</p> <p><i>I wish I <u>had</u> a puppy.</i> [names an imagined situation, not a situation in the past]</p> <p><i>I <u>was</u> hoping you'd help tomorrow.</i> [makes an implied request sound more polite]</p>
<p>perfect</p>	<p>The perfect form of a verb generally calls attention to the consequences of a prior situation. It is formed by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • taking the past participle of the verb (e.g. <i>thrown, taken, helped</i>) • adding the verb <i>have</i> before it (e.g. <i>she has helped</i>). <p>It can also be combined with the continuous (e.g. <i>he has been reading</i>).</p>	<p><i>She <u>has downloaded</u> some songs.</i> [present perfect; now we have some songs]</p> <p><i>I <u>had eaten</u> lunch when you came.</i> [past perfect; I wasn't hungry when you came]</p>
<p>phoneme</p>	<p>A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that signals a distinct, contrasting meaning. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • /t/ contrasts with /k/ to signal the difference between <i>tap</i> and <i>cap</i> • /t/ contrasts with /l/ to signal the difference between <i>bought</i> and <i>ball</i>. <p>It is this contrast in meaning that tells us there are two distinct phonemes at work.</p> <p>There are around 44 phonemes in English; the exact number depends on regional accents. A single phoneme may be represented in writing by one, two, three or four letters constituting a single grapheme.</p>	<p>The word <i>cat</i> has three letters and three phonemes.</p> <p>The word <i>catch</i> has five letters and three phonemes.</p> <p>The word <i>caught</i> has six letters and three phonemes.</p>
<p>phrase</p>	<p>A phrase is a group of words that are grammatically connected.</p> <p>Technically speaking, they are connected because all the words in the phrase help to modify the main word of the phrase (called the "head"). If this main word is a verb, then the phrase is a clause or a sentence. Phrases can be made up of other phrases.</p>	<p><i>She waved to <u>her mother</u>.</i> [The main word is <i>mother</i>, a noun.]</p> <p><i>Always cross <u>on the zebra crossing!</u></i> [The main word is <i>on</i>, a preposition.]</p> <p><i><u>Nadia waved to her mother</u>.</i> [The main word is <i>waved</i>, a verb. This phrase is also a sentence.]</p>

<p>punctuation</p>	<p>Punctuation includes any conventional features of written presentation other than spelling and general layout: the standard punctuation marks (. , ; : ? ! - - () “ ” ’), and also word-spaces, capital letters, apostrophes, paragraph breaks and bullet points.</p> <p>One important role of punctuation is to indicate sentence boundaries.</p>	<p><u>"I'm going out, Usha, and I won't be long," Mum said.</u></p>
<p>relative clause</p>	<p>A relative clause is a special type of subordinate clause that makes the meaning of a noun more specific (i.e. it modifies the noun). It does this by using a special pronoun to refer back to that noun.</p> <p>In the examples, the relative clauses are underlined, and the colour-coding pairs the pronouns with the nouns they refer back to.</p> <p>It is sometimes possible for the pronoun to refer back to the main clause as a whole, rather than referring back to a noun. It is also possible for the pronoun to be omitted.</p>	<p>That's the boy <u>who lives near school</u>. [<i>who</i> refers back to <i>boy</i>]</p> <p>The prize <u>that I won</u> was a book. [<i>that</i> refers back to <i>prize</i>]</p> <p>Tom broke the game, <u>which annoyed Ali</u>. [<i>which</i> refers back to the whole clause]</p> <p>The prize <u>that I won</u> was a book. [the pronoun is omitted]</p>
<p>root word</p>	<p>A root word is a word which is not made up of any smaller root words, or prefixes or suffixes. When looking in a dictionary, we sometimes have to look for the root word of the word we are interested in.</p>	<p><u>played</u> [the root word is <i>play</i>]</p> <p><u>unfair</u> [the root word is <i>fair</i>]</p>
<p>schwa</p>	<p>The name of a vowel sound that is found only in unstressed positions in English. It is the most common vowel sound in English.</p> <p>It is written as /ə/ in the International Phonetic Alphabet. In the English writing system, it can be written in many different ways.</p>	<p>/əlon/ [<u>a</u>long]</p> <p>/bʌtə/ [<u>u</u>tter]</p> <p>/dɒktə/ [<u>o</u>ctor]</p>
<p>sentence</p>	<p>A sentence is a group of words which are grammatically connected, and where nothing is grammatically missing. In other words, a sentence must be grammatically complete.</p>	<p><u>John went to his friend's house.</u></p> <p>Contrast: <i>John went to.</i> [The preposition <i>to</i> should be linked to a noun, but the noun is missing. This is not grammatically complete, and so it is not a sentence.]</p>
<p>split digraph</p>	<p>See digraph.</p>	

Standard English	Standard English is the variety of the English language that is generally used for formal purposes in speech and writing. It is not the English of any particular region and it can be spoken with any accent.	
stressed	A syllable is stressed if it is pronounced more forcefully than the syllables next to it. The other syllables are unstressed.	<u>about</u> <u>visit</u>
subject	<p>The subject of a verb is normally the noun or pronoun that names the “do-er” or “be-er”. The subject’s normal position is:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • just before the verb in a statement • just after the verb, or an auxiliary verb, in a question. <p>Unlike the verb’s object and complement, the subject can determine the form of the verb (e.g. <i>I am, <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.</i></p> <p><i>Will <u>the children</u> study the animals?</i></p>
subjunctive	<p>What is sometimes called the subjunctive of a verb is occasionally used in very formal contexts to indicate unreality, uncertainty, wish, emotion, judgement, or necessity. It can be hard to recognise, because it does not always differ from non-subjunctive forms. It has a distinguishable form in the following cases:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the third person singular of any verb in the present tense does not have its usual –s ending • the verb <i>be</i> in the present tense always has the form “be” (not “am”, “are” or “is”) • the verb <i>be</i> in the past tense always has the form “were” (not “was”) • the negatives of verbs in the present are formed differently • some modal verbs have a different form. 	<p><i>The school requires that all pupils <u>be</u> honest.</i> [It’s possible for pupils not to be honest, but the school wants them to be.]</p> <p><i>If Zoë <u>were</u> the class president, things would be much better.</i> [But Zoë isn’t the class president.]</p> <p><i>The school rules demand that pupils <u>not enter</u> the gym at lunchtime.</i> [But it still might happen.]</p> <p><i>I wish you <u>would stop</u>!</i> [not “will stop”]</p> <p><i>I insist that he <u>come</u> to visit every week.</i> [He doesn’t actually come to visit, but I would like him to.]</p> <p>Not subjunctive: <i>I insist that he comes to visit every week.</i> [I am insisting that it’s actually the case that he does visit.]</p>

subordinate, subordination	<p>A subordinate word or phrase tells us more about the meaning of the word it is subordinate to. Subordination can be thought of as an unequal relationship between a subordinate word and a main word. For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • an adjective is subordinate to the noun it modifies • subjects and objects are subordinate to their verbs. <p>Subordination is much more common than the equal relationship of co-ordination.</p> <p>See also subordinate clause.</p>	<p><i>big dogs</i> [<i>big</i> is subordinate to <i>dogs</i>]</p> <p><i>Big dogs need long walks.</i> [<i>big dogs</i> and <i>long walks</i> are subordinate to <i>need</i>]</p> <p><i>We can watch TV <u>when we've finished</u>.</i> [<i>when we've finished</i> is subordinate to <i>watch</i>]</p>
subordinate clause	<p>A subordinate clause is subordinate to some word outside itself:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • it may modify this word (e.g. as a relative clause or as an adverbial), or • it may be used as a verb's subject or object. <p>However, clauses that are directly quoted as direct speech are not subordinate clauses.</p>	<p><i>That's the street <u>where Ben lives</u>.</i> [relative clause; modifies <i>street</i>]</p> <p><i>He watched her <u>as she disappeared</u>.</i> [adverbial; modifies <i>watched</i>]</p> <p><i><u>What you said</u> was very nice.</i> [acts as subject of <i>was</i>]</p> <p><i>She noticed <u>an hour had passed</u>.</i> [acts as object of <i>noticed</i>]</p>
suffix	<p>A suffix is an "ending", something used at the end of one word to turn it into another word. Suffixes can often change one word class into another.</p> <p>Contrast prefix.</p>	<p><i>call</i> → <i>call<u>ed</u></i></p> <p><i>teach</i> → <i>teach<u>er</u></i> [turns a verb into a noun]</p> <p><i>terror</i> → <i>terror<u>ise</u></i> [turns a noun into a verb]</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>

<p>tense</p>	<p>Tense is the choice between different verb forms that is normally used to indicate time (although tense and time do not always match up).</p> <p>Verbs in English (and other Germanic languages) have two distinct tense forms: present and past. Verbs in languages like French, Spanish and Italian have three distinct tense forms: present, past and future.</p> <p>English uses a variety of verbs in the present tense to talk about future time, such as <i>may</i>, <i>will</i>, <i>intend</i>, or <i>plan</i>.</p> <p>English also uses verbs in the past tense to talk about imagined situations in the past, present or future.</p>	<p><i>He <u>studies</u>.</i> [present tense → present time] <i>He <u>studied</u> yesterday.</i> [past tense → past time] <i>He <u>studies</u> tomorrow, or else!</i> [present tense → future time] <i>He <u>may study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive → future time] <i>He <u>plans to study</u> tomorrow.</i> [present tense + infinitive → future time] <i>If he <u>studied</u> tomorrow, he'd see the difference!</i> [past tense → imagined future]</p> <p>Contrast three distinct tense forms in Spanish: <i>Estudia.</i> [present tense] <i>Estudió.</i> [past tense] <i>Estudiará.</i> [future tense]</p>
<p>trigraph</p>	<p>A type of grapheme where three letters represent one phoneme.</p>	<p><i>high</i> <i>pure</i> <i>patch</i> <i>hedge</i></p>
<p>unstressed</p>	<p>See stressed.</p>	
<p>verb</p>	<p>The surest way to identify verbs is by the ways they can be used: they can usually have a tense, either present or past. (See also future.)</p> <p>Verbs are sometimes called “doing words” because many verbs name an action that someone does; while this can be a way of recognising verbs, it doesn’t distinguish verbs from nouns (which can also name actions), and moreover many verbs do not name actions.</p>	<p><i>He <u>looked</u> out of the school bus window.</i> [present tense] <i>The teacher <u>wrote</u> a song for the class.</i> [past tense] <i>We <u>will go</u> to the zoo soon!</i> [present tense + infinitive] <i>He <u>likes</u> chocolate.</i> [present tense]</p> <p>Not verbs: <i>The <u>walk</u> to Harriet’s house will take an hour.</i> [noun] <i><u>Surfing</u> makes Michelle so sleepy!</i> [noun]</p>
<p>vowel</p>	<p>A vowel is a speech sound which is produced without any closure or obstruction of the vocal tract.</p> <p>Vowels can form syllables by themselves, or they may combine with consonants.</p> <p>In the English writing system, the letters <i>a</i>, <i>e</i>, <i>i</i>, <i>o</i>, <i>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, what appears to be two words are grammatically treated as one. This may be indicated with a hyphen or apostrophe.</p>	<p><u>headteacher</u> or <u>head teacher</u> [can be written with or without a space] <u>primary-school teacher</u> [normally written with a hyphen] <u>I'm</u> going out. <u>9.30 am</u></p>
word family	<p>The <u>words</u> in a word family are normally related to each other by a combination of form, grammar and meaning.</p>	<p><u>teacher</u> – <u>teach</u> <u>extensive</u> – <u>extend</u> – <u>extent</u></p>

Source-DFE (2013) National Curriculum in England Framework for Consultation

